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VIDEO BASED SIMULATIONS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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RESUME

SIMULATION VIDEO DANS L'APPRENTISSAGE D'UNE LANGUE SECONDE

par:

Brian Smalridge et John Donahue

Dans ce projet on évalue les effets de l'utilisation du vidéo en concertation avec la technique pédagogique de simulation. Les sujets sont sélectionnés parmi les étudiants en première année au collégial qui sont inscrits à un cours d'espagnol de niveau débutant. On croit que le moyen de la télévision utilisé dans ce contexte pourvoit une occasion unique aux étudiants de faire une auto-évaluation de leur performance. Des études préliminaires démontrent qu'en rendant possible l'observation de soi et la connaissance de soi par l'entremise du vidéo dans les situations de "role play", qu'il y a une réduction de l'anxiété et de l'insécurité ainsi qu'un encouragement de l'utilisation pragmatique de la langue, de l'imitation ainsi que des gestes. Des études démontrent un besoin, dans l'apprentissage de la langue seconde, d'une plus grande possibilité de mettre en pratique les approches à la communication qui soutiennent et favorisent la compréhension entre les partenaires communiquants. Les résultats de recherche démontrent une plus grande motivation et créativité de la part des étudiants, une plus grande confiance en soi, ainsi que des gains considérables quant aux connaissances et aux habiletés linguistiques (Whybra and Prinzing, 1984).

La présente étude dévoile que la télévision, lorsqu'utilisée avec une stratégie de simulation, est supérieure aux méthodes d'enseignement traditionnelles et éveille l'intérêt des étudiants, les encourage à participer activement en classe et améliore la compétence et l'habileté orale. Cette technique est utile pour tous cours de langue seconde ou de communication qui ont comme but d'améliorer la compétence de la langue parlée.

ABSTRACT

VIDEO-BASED SIMULATION IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

by:

Brian Smalridge and John Donahue

This project examines the effects of using the video medium with the teaching technique of simulation. Subjects are selected from among first year college students enrolled in beginner's Spanish courses. It is believed that television used in this context provides the unique opportunity for students to conduct a self-evaluation of their performance. Preliminary investigations have found that by making self-observation and self-awareness possible through videotaping second language students in role play situations, there is a reduction of anxiety and insecurity as well as a promotion of the pragmatic use of language, mimicry, and gestures. Studies have cited a need in second language learning for opportunities to practice those communicative measures which uphold and further the understanding between communicating partners. Research results show greater student motivation and creativity, increased student confidence, and substantial gains in language skills and knowledge (Whybra and Prinzing 1984).

The present study reveals that television when used with a simulation strategy is superior to a traditional method of instruction and arouses student's interest, encourages active class participation and improves oral proficiency skills. This technique is useful in any second language or communications course that aims to improve competency in spoken language.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Educational theories and the practices they spawn evolve to meet the needs and goals of educational systems; consequently, they are subject to the whims of current fashion or to factors, usually economic and political, which affect educational institutions. While the predominant theories of learning of a particular period or place will inevitably affect, to some extent, the way all subjects are taught, foreign language teaching seems to undergo more frequent and more radical shifts than most. This is partly due to the political and social implications of second language teaching, elements which have profound implications on the attitude of students towards foreign language learning, and partly to our imperfect understanding of how language itself works and is acquired. In large part it is also due to the kind of competence the system seeks to foster or the learner seeks to acquire from second language study.

In the opening chapter to Speaking in Many Tongues, Wilga Rivers outlines the dominant views of the past century where the pendulum has swung from the grammar-translation methods of the turn of the century to the contemporary communicative approaches. The grammar-translation methods emphasized facts about language, the abstract analysis of forms or grammatical theory with overwhelming stress on written forms of language rather than on spoken language. The argument used to be that the maid could speak Spanish but that did not qualify her to teach the language. Her linguistic competence did not entail the academic,

analytic knowledge expected in a language course. The communicative approaches, on the other hand, see language as a social tool and place major emphasis on oral, native-like competency since language usage in real life is overwhelmingly oral in nature. What is the value of being able to identify all the parts of speech, to explain the theory behind the use of the imperfect subjunctive in noun clauses if you are unable to understand a native speaker or to communicate with one in a natural, easy manner?

In an age when only an elite attended university, when travel was restricted to a certain class, when a desire to read literary masterpieces in another language motivated students, the grammar-translation methods provided the academic, intellectual thrust expected at university. Few language students today are motivated by a similar desire to read literary classics or to exercise their intellects with verbal gymnastics. What possible desire could a student have to be able to write good Spanish? Most want to be able to speak another language. Teaching students to speak another language has become, in recent years, the goal of foreign language courses at all levels.

There abound dramatically different opinions on how best to achieve this goal. The current communicative methods, an outgrowth of Chomskian linguistics, recognize that the students of a foreign language, like children learning their mother tongue, progress through a series of interim grammars before achieving fluency and that oral fluency comes through constant practice in speaking, not through analysis of written forms and pattern drills. The subject of this report is the use of simulations in conjunction with video as a teaching strategy to develop oral competency.

Background

Reporting on attitude surveys conducted in 1971 at UCLA among beginning students of Spanish, Frey and Sadek demonstrated a marked preference for instruction favouring spoken language over written language: "... teaching... techniques stressing oral competence were singled out as the most positive aspect of the programme..." (Hispania, Vol 54, NO.3, 1971 p. 436) In March of 1986, Hispania devoted an issue to current trends in the teaching of Spanish. Once again, oral proficiency was highlighted as the principal goal of beginning language courses, but a plethora of methodologies and approaches had made their appearance. These ranged from methods which eliminated the formal presentation of grammar completely (as in Para Empezar, by Peris, López, Baulenas y Bleger, Barcelona, Edi 6, 1987) to those which had grafted new strategies onto older grammar-oriented ones (as in Situaciones, by Nila Gutiérrez Marrone, Toronto: Random House, 1987). What clearly emerged from the survey was the awareness of a need for methodologies and strategies which provided ample opportunity for the student to use his new language skills for communicative purposes. The strategies, consequently, derived from a definition of what communicative purposes one had in mind and what level of language usage matched those purposes. There has not yet emerged a consensus on what these should be for the beginning level Spanish course.

Getting students to use structures and vocabulary in a natural way is not easily accomplished in the traditional classroom setting. Stern points out that the learning of the formal features of a language (i.e. facts about a language,

grammatical theory) does not readily translate into ability to use language. Many years of formal language training may still result in failure to understand or express oneself in real life situations. (1973, 280) Sandra Savignon defines communicative competence as being able to function in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence adapts itself to the context in which communication occurs, (Joiner and Westphal, editors, Developing Communication Skills, 1978, p. 8). Simulations, also called "creative drama" or "role playing", are useful in helping students relax and in giving the teacher a chance to vary classroom activities. They provide a stimulating way of learning new vocabulary and structures and above all, they stress cooperation rather than competition and this encourages an environment in which students enjoy using the target language. (Wattenmaker and Wilson, 28). They permit students to get to know each other and thus break down the barriers that create inhibitions about speaking in the target language. As Renée Desick points out in "Developing communication skills through small group techniques," conversing with classmates of equal language competence -- or incompetence, if you prefer,-- is far less intimidating than conversing with a seemingly omnipotent, bilingual teacher, who, it would appear, never makes mistakes. (Joiner and Westphal, 139) Simulations stress skill using, the process of interacting with others. Communicative competence involves the ability to select vocabulary, structures, gestures, tone of voice appropriate to a situation, pragmatic factors which are as important in communicating, if not more so, that strict grammatical accuracy (linguistic competency). (Dickinson, "Problems and solutions in the use of games and role-play simulations" no date). Littlewood asserts that simulations are

ideal instruments for developing communicative activities: they provide whole task practice, they improve student motivation and they allow natural learning and use of the target language; furthermore, they create social context which reinforces learning. (Littlewood, pp. 17-18) Christina Bratt Paulston and Howard Selekman add that these interaction activities help engineer the "great leap" from linguistic competence to communicative competence because vocabulary and structures learned through immediate need in a specific situation tend to be retained. (Joiner, ed., 36) Sandra Savignon adds that the self-assurance required in real life situations does not come from the repetition of patterned phrases but from understanding how to use language and repeated practice in doing so. Real life conversations rarely match textbook utterances. There is much starting, stopping, repeating, mispronunciation, fragments etc. Understanding native speakers means developing strategies to grasp the communicative intent in a given situation, since sentences modelled on pattern drills will rarely be heard as such. (pp. 13-16)

In learning a second language there is a need for real life situations where students can practice the target language and amend their performance. Traditional second language teaching methods do not take place in a real life context nor allow for a natural communicative exchange. A simulation technique in second language learning endeavours to develop automatic, spontaneous use of structures and vocabulary in appropriate contexts (Littlewood 1981). A classroom situation should provide an opportunity to practice the grammatical patterns which normally appear in real life contexts.

The careful structuring of activity-based experiences

appears to be beneficial in developing communication and social skills as well as in learning subject matter. In his thesis, Berger quotes Brunner's (1966) view that activity-based experiences, films, T.V. programmes, filmstrips, sound recordings, simulations and games should not be dismissed as merely enrichment. These devices provide vicarious experiences for all types of learners.

Simulations are representations of reality. They require students to become actively involved in the solution to the problems that they encounter in simulation. These can be presented in a variety of formats and media -- paper and pencil, three dimensional models, computers, videotape or videodisc, live persons or a combination of these. Although real life situations are probably ultimately superior to simulations they have the disadvantage of having several uncontrolled variables. Simulations have the ability to compress time so that events that may take a month in real life can be experiences in minutes. All students in simulation exercises are exposed to similar problems and have the same opportunity for learning and can be evaluated accordingly. Another advantage is that students cannot be merely observers in their educational process. They must make significant decisions and reap the consequences of those decisions. (Miller 1984)

The prospectus for conferences dealing with foreign language teaching or with education technology as well as journals devoted to these subjects reveal an increased interest in the use of video and simulations. In some cases, this involves video as a means of presenting information, that is, to teach grammatical structures and vocabulary. [e.g. thesis entitled Production and Evaluation of a Video-based Instructional Package by Michael Kelly at Concordia University. March, 1986] Others

stress the use of professionally produced video materials to present cultural information. Marcel Pérez has developed simulations as a method of teaching conversation in advanced level French language courses at Vanier College. The methodology used at Champlain in the present project is both similar and different to these approaches. As in the former methods, videos produced professionally were used to provide cultural background to the Spanish speaking world. However,student-produced videos are used as instructional materials in the class, largely as review to check student progress. Marcel Pérez uses simulations with advanced students to develop oral fluency in students who have already had several years of formal instruction in French. In our project, simulations and videos were used from the start as a means of internalizing formal linguistic elements (grammar, syntax, vocabulary) and using them in practical, true-to-life contexts. The simulations were an integral part of the process of language acquisition, that is, the method attempts to blend the acquisition of linguistic competence with the acquisition of communicative competence.

Traditional research and meta-analyses performed on the influence that media has on learning have consistently produced no significant difference among comparative media studies. In reviewing research on media effects, Clark (1983) states "The best current evidence is that media are mere vehicles that deliver instruction but do not influence student achievement any more than the truck that deliveries the groceries causes change to our nutrition." (Clark, 1983, p. 445) Hornik's (1981) synthesis of research on television effects similarly assessed decades of findings. He concluded that the researchers failed in their efforts to show a significant relationship between media use (television

viewing) and education achievement (reading scores).

Clark (1983) proposed that future research should begin by investigating "variables having to do with our beliefs about media" (p. 454). Hornik suggests a thorough examination of the difference in the relationship between media use and educational achievement among subgroups in the population. According to Hornik, "Specification is the order of the day. What sorts of people of what ages are particularly vulnerable to television effect?" (1981, p. 211) Few studies of video-based instruction have been conducted on what Cohen (1981) has found to be promising implementation of VBI -- use of videotape for purposes of feedback. This meta-analysis showed that most research has been on closed circuit television -- half of the studies compared instructional television to conventional instruction (Cohen 1981, Petkovich, 1984).

This study will build on the findings of Clark, Hornik, Cohen and Petkovich. The question of whether media influences second language acquisition among first year college students will be addressed. Comparisons will be made among student achievement scores of a treatment group and a control group. The control group will be exposed to the traditional classroom methods of instruction. The other treatment group will use a video-based simulation strategy. Data will be collected over one college semester.

CHAPTER TWO

Review Of The Literature

A computer search using the ERIC data bank as well as a manual search of the libraries at Concordia and McGill Universities was done to prepare a review of literature. The search followed a general to specific approach. The search involved three areas: communicative approaches to language teaching, use of video and simulations.

Communicative Approaches

Much has been written in the past two decades on the value of communicative approaches in developing oral proficiency in second language learning. Some of these, such as Hildebrando's article in Hispania or Finocchiaro and Brumbit's The Functional-notional approach: from theory to practice (1983) are historical in perspective tracing the growth and spread of communicative approaches in theory and practice. Others focus on specific problems posed by these methodologies. It would be impossible to refer to all the works both in book and journal form which are available on this topic. The bibliography to this report provides a partial listing of the works available in the field. This review, therefore, will restrict itself to comments on aspects of group dynamics and testing, as more specific articles will be mentioned under video and simulations.

Joiner and Westphal's Developing Communication Skills general considerations and specific techniques (1978) contains a collection of basic texts by experts in second language teaching, among others, Westphal, Savignon, Paulston, Zelson, Palmer,

Valette, Desick. All of these stress the importance of group work in teaching for oral competence. Group work builds self-assurance in the student (p. 13), encourages co-operation thus creating a non-threatening atmosphere in which skill-using is possible (p. 36). Students use language creatively, learning to listen and to evaluate both themselves and their peers (p. 62). The classroom, as it were, becomes de-centralized. The student accepts responsibility for his own learning. The classroom activities become student rather than teacher oriented (p. 139).

Many of these same notions are also found in Wilga Rivers' Speaking in Many Tongues (1968), a classic in the field. Rivers underlines the distinction which all language teachers must make between *skill getting* and *skill using.* The process of skill getting does not automatically translate into skill using since there are many affective domains involved in skill using which are not directly addressed in skill getting. The teacher, she tells us, must be willing to relax his control of the class, to build an atmosphere of security in which the student does not fear using a new language. The teacher is no longer the omniscient source of information but rather a helper, a guide who directs the student and provides encouragement and reassurance. . Thus Rivers feels that well-developed interpersonal skills are necessary for the teacher in a communicative language course.

Ludger Schiffler of the Freie Universität von Berlin (1984) studies in depth the advantages and disadvantages of work in groups in language courses, the problems faced by timid students, and the unequal distribution of work that may result from unmotivated students who refuse to do their share and thus overload the "willing horse". The instructor, he notes, must be sensitive to these problems, resolving them by supervising

carefully the distribution of work among group members, e.g. distributing a task among the group assigning a specific task to each member ensuring that the work gets done. He also speaks of the value of group solidarity and peer pressure and inter-group competitiveness as useful parts of classroom dynamics. David Rowlands (1972) comments on the "anti-social" nature of many language classes where students never seem to get to know each other and see language learning as a contest rather than a social venture. George Varnava (1975) sees group work as a means of dealing with mixed level students in a classroom providing opportunity for all to practice language skills. Philip Smith (1981) feels that group work confers relevance on language learning and without perceived relevance and meaningfulness, the student will not be motivated to use it. In this, Smith echoes Littlewood (1981) who likewise stresses group activities as a means of demonstrating the 'relevance' and 'purposefulness' of language learning. He also stresses the need for positive reinforcement, the need to avoid excessively negative stress on 'correctness' both of which are guaranteed to make learners lose confidence in their ability to communicate and to come to regard language learning as a chore to be avoided.

Dickinson (no date), Wattenmaker (1980), Keller and Warner (1976), Maley and Duff (1978) provide suggestions for group activities which develop oral competency. The topics and strategies they suggest are applicable to any language course and offer suggestions for incorporating the activities into the regular framework of a language class. The titles of these works can be found in the bibliography to this report.

Wilga Rivers (1972), Rebecca Valette (1977), and Walter Bartz (1979) look at the problem of testing in language courses.

All point out that tests have traditionally emphasized written language as well as "facts about language" -- knowledge of forms, ability to make transformations in forms -- rather than communicative ability. They make suggestions about the type of examination structure which can test the creative use of language thereby showing the students' knowledge of forms together with their ability to use those forms spontaneously. For written tests, sentence completions, 'guided composition' where words are provided which the student must use in a sentence or paragraph, or where some visual stimulus is provided. For oral tests, simulations, role-playing are suggested as well as 'conversations.' All recommend the use of a rating scale (see Appendix for a sample of such a scale) which describes areas of competence and communicative success rather than strict grammatical accuracy as the criteria for evaluation.

In classroom activities, in oral exercises, these people also recommend a judicious form of correction in which only major errors (i.e. those which hinder communication) are highlighted so that the student does not become overwhelmed with a sense of his inadequacies, a feeling which soon translates into hostility to language learning. Marcel Pérez (1982) mentions the use of tape recorders to help students recognize their errors in pronunciation and intonation and the use of group correction as tools in the classroom. Knight (1975) sees a similar function for video in the language classroom.

Meta-analysis on Media Research

In his 1983 article "Reconsidering Research on Learning from Media", Clark points out that the meta-analysis on media research "provide[s] strong evidence that media comparison

studies [which] find causal connections between media achievement are confounded. The most common sources of confounding seem to be the uncontrolled effects of a) instructional method or content differences between treatments that are compared, and b) a novelty effect for newer media, which tends to disappear over time." (pp. 448).

The meta-analysis published by Cohen et al. in 1981 found that seventy-four percent (74%) of the studies of student achievement reported no significant difference between visual-based instruction and conventional teaching. Seventy-six percent (76%) of the studies reporting significant differences favored visual-based instruction. This percentage is somewhat higher than in studies completed in earlier years. In fact, Cohen found that the year in which studies had been conducted made it possible to predict the achievement outcome in the meta-analysis. More recent studies, those conducted after 1970, have produced results more favorable to visual-based instruction.

Cohen et al. also found that the level of institution at which the research was done correlated significantly with achievement outcome. This could possibly be attributed to the fact that higher level institutions have more resources for the development of sophisticated visual equipment.

The meta-analysis identified major directions for future research on visual-based instruction. Few studies have been done on what appears to be a promising implementation of visual-based instruction-use of videotape for the purposes of feedback.

The meta-analysis by Shwalb et al. (1986) integrated the findings of 128 studies reporting on the use of technology in Japanese schools. Of the 128 studies, 116 were achievement studies and the box-score review found that fifty-six percent

(56%) of these studies reported no significant difference between technology and conventional teaching, and ninety-four percent (94%) of all studies reporting significant differences favored learning with the aid of technology.

Overall the findings on Japanese TI outcomes agree with other meta-analysis on technology learning done in the U.S. The analysis of student achievement in video-based instruction favored the technology group in 31 out of 35 studies; in the remaining 4 studies, achievement differences favored conventional instruction. In these 35 studies, 14 reported differences that were significant; 13 favored VBI (video based instruction) and one favored CI (conventional instruction). In studies where different teachers taught VBI and CI classes, achievement differences were more clear-cut and in favor of VBI. In studies where the same teacher taught both, differences were less pronounced.

Shwalb's analysis shows that more positive results from the use of technology have been reported in recent studies. It may be that instruction with the help of technology has been used more discriminatingly in recent years. It is no longer seen as a panacea and is used where it can do the most good. The art of developing technology materials may have also improved, so that recent studies use better materials than did older studies .

To conclude, from the results of meta-analysis on decades of media research, it is clear that what is broadly referred to as the influence of media on learning has repeatedly produced no significant difference among comparative media studies. In reviewing research on media effects, Clark (1983) concluded, "The best current evidence is that media are mere vehicles that deliver instruction but do not influence student achievement any

more than the truck that delivers the groceries causes changes in our nutrition" (pp 445). Hornik's (1981) synthesis of research on television effects assessed decades of findings in a similar fashion. He concluded that researchers have failed in their efforts to demonstrate a significant relationship between media use (television viewing) and educational achievement (reading scores). Hornik suggests that future research investigate the relationship between the use of media and educational achievement among sub-groups of the population. What sort of people are particularly susceptible to the positive influence of television? (Krendl 1986). Similarly Shwalb (1986) and Cohen (1981) suggest that more positive results are being achieved in recent years by possibly a more discerning or appropriate use of media, particularly in institutes of higher learning. Cohen et al. conclude their analysis by recommending that studies be conducted in what appears to be the promising area of videotape and feedback.

Videotapes and Feedback

Video-tape feedback is unique to the extent that both educators and learners can review the teaching/learning process using the objective, audio-visual record provided by the video tape. Evaluative conferences can then be based on a common frame of reference rather than on subjective records and memory (Waddell 1983). Several articles and reports have been written over the decades on the success and benefit of using videotapes. Many of these suggestions and recommendations are based on the positive feelings of those using the medium for the first time. It is possible that the Hawthorne Effect (i.e. the novelty of the new technique) could explain many of these reports. However in

teacher education there is a body of literature of empirical studies on the use of video technology. These studies have established the parameters within which video has proven useful in the field of teacher training.

Simulations

In his M.A. thesis, Berger (1983) shows that research into instructional technology (Dale, 1969; Morris, 1946; Carpenter, 1953) has supported the use of surrogates of reality as aids to learning. He refers to Luria's (1973) comments that the empirical experience of many teachers shows that when faculty encourage students to bring together emotions and ideas in a language experience, the language development and learning experience are much more powerful.

A major problem in second language teaching is getting students to use structures and vocabulary in a natural way; this is not easily accomplished in a traditional classroom setting or with traditional methodologies. (Eva Kraus-Srebic, no date) Simulations are useful in helping students to relax or in giving the teacher a chance to vary classroom activities. They provide a more stimulating way of learning new vocabulary and structures and they stress cooperation rather than competition which encourages an environment in which students enjoy using the target language (Wattenmaker and Wilson, p. 128). Current opinion on second language teaching stresses the importance of communicative intent or purposefulness, that is, the use of language skills in real life situations. Simulations stress skill using, the process of interacting with others in the target language for real communicative purpose. Communicative competence, the ability to select vocabulary, structures,

gestures, tone of voice appropriate to a situation is as important, if not more so, than strict grammatical competence. (L. Dickinson, no date) Simulations are ideal instruments for developing purposeful, communicative activities because (l) they provide whole task practice; (2) they improve student motivation; (3) they allow natural learning and use of the target language; (4) they create a social context which reinforces learning. (Littlewood, 1981)

Whybra and Prinzing (1984) found that by making self-observation and self-awareness possible through videotaping second language students in role-play situations, there was a reduction of anxiety and insecurity as well as a promotion of the pragmatic use of language, mimicry, and gestures. The researchers cited a need in second language learning for opportunities to practice those communicative measures which uphold and further the understanding between communicating partners, for instance, corroboration (not teacher echo), enlarging upon a point, provocating, teasing, and even expression of incredulity, disbelief and annoyance. The results of their study showed; greater student motivation and creativity, increased student confidence, and substantial gains in language skills and knowledge.

CHAPTER THREE

Method

Student Sample

The sample consisted of 65 CEGEP students enrolled in three beginning Spanish classes at Champlain College. It was composed mostly of mother-tongue English students. Roughly 73% of the subjects were female and the remaining 27% were male. The average age was 17 years.

Content expert sample

The sample consisted of 45 college and university second language teachers in the Montreal area. Initially, 171 content experts were asked to complete the questionnaire. Forty-five responses were received, representing a return rate of 26%. Their teaching experience ranged from less than one year to more than 30.

Materials

Attitude survey. The questionnaire from Kelly's (1986) work on the Production and Evaluation of a Video-based ESL Instructional Package was modified and sent to 171 college and university SL teachers in the Montreal area. A five point Likert scale was used to gather judgmental feedback on 1) attitudes toward the learning experience (questions 1 & 2), 2) design of the video-simulation experience (questions 3 -7), 3) whether teachers would used this learning experience if available (question 8). Examples of these questionnaires can be found in Appendix A.

Design

Because intact groups were used this study qualified as a quasi-experimental design. Of the three classes, two were designated as treatment groups (N = 47) and one (N = 18) was designated as a control group. The treatment and control groups were all similar in that they had the same instructor and they met three times a week for an hour each time. They differed in their meeting times and classroom environment. The treatment groups met in class until the week of their videotaping when they met in the television studio. The control group met in a regular classroom for the entire fifteen weeks.

Procedure

Establishing the general level of scholastic ability. Given the constraints in registering and scheduling students, it was impossible to randomize students into treatment and control groups. However, the standardized CEGEP admission requirements across the province ensured that classes were roughly uniform in learning ability. To ascertain the level of each group's proficiency, the high school grades for each student in both mother tongue and second language classes were collected. As well, each student was given the Nelson Denny Reading test before the first week of class. These scores along with the students' college averages were used to determine the scholastic ability of each group.

Teaching the classes. The textbook used in the course was Puertas a la lengua española Second Edition, by Copeland, Kite, Sandstedt and Vargas. In the 15 weeks we covered the first 6 chapters of the book. The chapters are arranged thematically: Chapter one -- La educación, Chapter two -- La geografía, Chapter three-- La familia, Chapter four -- La vida diaria, Chapter five -- El trabajo, Chapter six -- Las diversiones. The readings and exercises focus on the theme of the chapter. Exercises are conversational and thematic in structure, sometimes taking the form of a narrative or a letter; hence, structures and vocabulary are constantly used in a context which shows the correspondence between grammatical forms and communicative potential. The laboratory programme accompanying the book was also used. Students were required to follow the lab programme on their own time. The tapes were available from the Media Resources Centre in the Library.

Organization of class time. Students met for 3 sessions of 1 hour per week. The classes followed a regular pattern. The first class of the week was devoted to the presentation of grammatical structures and vocabulary. Readings and pattern drills were done immediately after the presentation to reinforce the new material. The second class of the week was devoted to simulations and "conversation". In this class, the exercises in the book which were conversational in nature were also covered on occasion. The third class of the week was used for review and for auditory comprehension exercises and testing.

Simulations. The first simulations were done in class to show the students how the simulations should be prepared and how they should be practiced. The students were also shown how to use the book as a resource in the preparation of the simulation. At this point, they were cautioned about improper use of a dictionary (i.e. selecting a word without double checking if it was the appropriate one) and the tendency to translate literally structures and patterns from their mother tongue. After two simulations had been prepared and presented in class, simulations were assigned one week in advance. The groups had to meet outside of class to prepare and practice the simulation for presentation the following week. Some time was provided at the end of the first class in the week for students to ask questions if they were experiencing difficulty with the task. Usually a choice of two topics was provided. There follows a sample of the simulation topics for each of the six chapters. Before the videotaping of a longer simulation, the students in the treatment groups had performed 6- 8 such simulations in class.

Formation of groups. Due to problems in scheduling, the formation of groups was left to the students. (i.e. students in certain programmes had no afternoons free, others had no mornings free, others lived far out of town etc.) A trial period of 2 weeks was allowed to see if the groups were able to work together, that is, whether they could meet outside of class time and whether they could work together in harmony. At the end of the two week period, changes were made in the groupings so that they would be able to function smoothly throughout the term.

A sample of topics for simulations. Sometimes, two simulations were assigned for one chapter, sometimes only one. This varied depending on the pace at which the class was proceeding. As part of the assignment, students were asked to incorporate the grammar and vocabulary from the chapter currently being studied into the simulations. Sample topics can be found in Appendix B.

Presentation and evaluation of simulations in class. The simulations were presented before the whole class. While the students were presenting the simulation, the instructor jotted down comments on usage or errors in forms. When the performance was finished, the instructor first asked the class questions about the performance (i.e. questions about the content of the simulation) to check if the class had understood what their classmates had said. Then, the instructor pointed out the good things in the simulation (expressions, structures, phrasing etc.) and then commented on errors in usage or in grammatical forms or pronunciation and intonation. Only the major errors or frequently repeated errors were highlighted in this way. Sometimes students were asked to write comments about the presentations of their classmates. The comments focused on the appropriateness of vocabulary, structures, or pronunciation.

Video production. At the end of the tenth week of semester and the beginning of the eleventh, the students were assigned the video-simulation project. This simulation was similar to previous assignments but was longer and required work in the television studio. Students were not expected to handle the video equipment. The Audio-Visual department provided the technical expertise to handle the video production. Before the students

began work on the assignment, they were taken to the television studio to see the layout of the room. This would help them plan the setting for their scene and give them an idea of the type of props they might need. They were also made aware of the limitations of the equipment there and the camera angles that could be used. The technician explained that if they required music to be dubbed in, or scenes from outside, they would have to provide him with the material and tell him where it/they should be edited into the scene. Thus the students did not have to worry about the technical aspects of the video production.

The assignment was as follows. Each group was to prepare a 5-10 minute skit to form part of a programme titled Somos así. This programme would present scenes from daily life in Montreal. The choice of topic was left to the students. Unlike previous simulations done in class which were more closely linked to the topics being studied in class, this simulation exercise required that the students draw on the work of the entire semester.

The students had two weeks to prepare and present the video performance. Appointments were set up with the technician in the television studio. The tapes of the performances were given to the teacher .

Viewing and evaluating the video performances. At the beginning of the fourteenth week of term, the class viewed the performances. As with previous simulations, these video skits were used as comprehension exercises for the whole class. Students were free to comment on the good things in the videos and were asked to make suggestions for improvements. The instructor also pointed out good features in the productions and commented on errors. Each video was seen without interruption

first, then, the video was reviewed in more detail, stopping the machine to comment on particular features or problems as they appeared. The students were also asked to complete a questionnaire evaluating the video-simulation project which they had done.

Teaching the control group. The textbook used with the control group was the same as for the treatment group and the use of class time was approximately the same. The first class of the week was devoted to the presentation of new material and drills to reinforce them. The second class was devoted conversation done in class with the instructor asking the students questions about some topic covered in class or with students asking each other questions. The third class of the week was devoted to review and to listening and comprehension exercises and to testing. Essentially the same material was covered in the two groups. The difference was the use of simulations in the second class each week in the treatment groups.

Assessment of outcomes. Two types of evaluation were used in both groups: formative evaluation to check mastery of forms and vocabulary (these might be announced tests or spot tests) and summative evaluation, roughly after every other lesson in the book, that is, after chapters 2, 4 and 6.

Formative Evaluation. These varied over the course of the semester. Some were dictations where the student listened to a tape and wrote in the missing words in a written text he had been

given. Others required the selection and insertion of the correct verb in the correct form in a text, or the transformation of statements from singular to plural, present to future, present to progressive etc. Sometimes these took the form of comprehension tests to check students' ability to understand dialogues between native speakers. The voices on these tapes and the content of the dialogues were both new to the students.

Summative Evaluation. Testing in foreign language courses is difficult because the test does not always measure what one is attempting to teach. Wilga Rivers points out that, despite the method of instruction used, tests end up taking the same format. This means that students being taught with an audio-lingual approach find themselves taking exams more appropriate to a grammar-translation method. The difficulty is to design tests which really do measure what one is trying to teach. Summative evaluation usually focuses on the mastery of forms and vocabulary rather than the use of those forms for meaningful communication, that is, a student is required to insert the correct form or to make transformations in an automatic fashion without showing that he can generate a meaningful utterance on his own. A student may have mastered the basic forms without developing a sense of how they can be used in practical situations. For this reason, the major tests (summative evaluation) at the end of every other chapter consisted of two parts, each designed to measure both communicative (use) and linguistic (grammatical) competence. One part was designed to test oral competence and the second part to measure written competence. Oral competence was tested in the following way: each student was required to submit a tape onto which he had

read a text which the instructor had selected and distributed. This was designed to test pronunciation and intonation, linkings etc. The student was also asked to prepare on audio tape a 3-5 minute talk on a topic which he chose from those suggested by the instructor. The topics were based on the chapters being tested. There was also a written section based on the grammar and vocabulary from those same lessons. This section likewise was designed to test both linguistic and communicative competence. The examination consisted of sentence completion, or sentence/dialogue construction from a series of words provided. Performance in this type of exercise requires creative use of language as well as grammatical accuracy. This form of assessment tested with equal emphasis the written and oral performance of both groups.

Oral Interaction Interview outcomes. The students from both the treatment and control groups underwent an oral exam at the end of the semester. This exam/interview was modelled on the Oral Interaction Interview used by the Canadian Civil Service Commission to determine the level of proficiency of candidates for the Public Service. According to the information provided by the Personnel office of the Canadian Public Service Commission, this Oral Interaction Interview was adapted from the examination procedure used by the Foreign Service Institute in the United States, an examination procedure developed, it seems, at the Monterey Language School in California. This procedure rates the candidate according to a scale which describes the communicative tasks which he can perform in the target language. The scale ranges from 1 to 5, with 1 representing a minimal level, i.e. an ability to answer questions simply, with a word or

two, and 5 representing competence equivalent to that of an educated native speaker. The exam/interview attempts to ascertain what functions the candidate can perform through questions, conversation and simulations or role-playing. For our purposes, this format had to be adapted since the treatment group had already had extensive practice in simulations while the control group had not. Consequently, the format selected was that of an discussion group in which individuals were to present themselves, talking about their background, their interests, their hobbies etc. This format did not give any special advantage to either group.

Students in groups of 3 selected a time to present themselves for the interview. There were two examiners present, and each ranked the students on the basis of the scale found in Appendix C. The two examiners did not discuss the results either after the particular interviews or when the entire procedure was finished. The two ratings were collated and compared by a third party. All interviews were recorded on audio tape.

In the interview itself, both examiners joined in the discussion which became progressively more difficult to ascertain the highest level of performance the student was capable of.

In his discussion of Testing for oral competence, Walter H. Bartz (Testing Oral Communication in the Foreign Language Classroom published by the Centre for Applied Linguistics), summarizes the work of the Foreign Service Institute and this oral interactive interview. He also discusses the work of other experts in language testing, such as Sandra Savignon, Linder, Wilga Rivers, all of whom stress the need for creativity and self-expression, as well as the opportunity to demonstrate listening

skills and the ability to respond naturally. All recommend a scale based on the kinds of communicative tasks that the student can perform, rather than one based on strict linguistic competence (i.e. grammar etc.). In the Appendices to Speaking in Many Tongues, Wilga Rivers includes a sampling of the type of rating scale she considers appropriate to assessing communicative success. The interview technique used met the criteria suggested by these experts.

Assessment of attitudes. At the start of the semester, each Spanish class was visited and an explanation given of the nature and purpose of the research. Students were asked if they would volunteer for this project by signing a consent form. All students agreed to participate. An attitude survey consisting of thirty items was developed to measure student attitudes towards learning second languages. It was administered at the start of the course and again on the last day of classes. Its purpose was to measure any attitude changes toward second language learning that might have occurred as a result of the treatment intervention. An additional survey of eight questions was sent to 171 content experts to appraise their perception of the effectiveness of this teaching format. This survey was also given to subjects in the treatment conditions at the close of the experiment. Comparisons were made among the responses of the treatment groups and content experts.

Analysis

Comparisons were made among the groups means of the Nelson Denny scores as well as college averages to ensure that the entry level of scholastic achievement was roughly equal .

ANOVA measures were made on high school language scores to determine if the entry level of linguistic performance was similar. A one-way analysis of variance was performed on the post-test scores to determine the extent to which the means of the treatment and control groups differ. Aptitude by treatment interaction analyses were performed on the scholastic achievements and prior language performance categories to determine what type of people are the most susceptible to the effect of television. Post hoc comparisons were carried out to identify the locus of any significant effect resulting from the intervention.

Objectives

This project will examine the effects of using the video medium with the teaching technique of simulation. It is believed that the medium used in this context is not a neutral carrier of information but provides the unique opportunity for students to conduct a self-evaluation of their performance. It is also expected that the medium of television when used with this instructional strategy will be superior to a traditional method of instruction and will arouse student interest, encouraging active class participation and improve oral proficiency skills. The technique can be used in any second language or communications course that aims to improve competency in the spoken language.

Hypothesis

The oral expression and listening skills of college students enrolled in second language courses are improved via video based simulations.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

Assessing Perceptions on the Effectiveness of Video-simulation

An eight item survey was sent to 171 post secondary SL teachers and administered to the 47 SL students in the video-simulation condition. Members of the control group did not take part in the video-simulation and therefore were unable to give their opinion. A five point Likert scale was used to measure respondents' perceptions on the use of video-simulation. Items 1 & 2 surveyed the attitudes of respondents towards the technique. Questions 3 to 7 focused on the objectives while item 8 was a general information question. Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation scores for the responses to each question.

The return rate for the content expert survey was 26%. The data showed that teaching experience ranged from less than one year to more than thirty with an average of 14 years and a median of 15 years. Items were analyzed by means of the chi square test for one sample. Refer to the Appendix D for a breakdown of the frequency response by item and the associated level of significance. For all questions, the content expert responses were significant $p<.01$. All teachers felt that video-simulation would be successful in: stimulating student interest (question 1), motivating students to participate in small group discussions (question 2), and, helping students to develop aural comprehension and oral expression skills (question 3 and 4).

TABLE 1

Mean and Standard Deviation Scores from the Survey of Teacher and Student Opinion

	Group					
	Teachers			Students		
Measure	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Interest	45	4.22	.79	47	4.11	.60
Motivation	45	4.09	.85	47	3.87	.71
Oral Express.	45	3.89	.92	47	4.02	.68
Oral Compre.	45	3.73	.86	47	4.11	.67
Enjoyment	45	3.98	1.01	47	4.00	.88
Small Grp value	45	4.16	1.03	47	4.30	.66
Realistic sit.	45	4.07	.94	47	3.91	.75
Usefulness	45	3.87	1.20	47	4.47	.69

The 8 items on the student survey were significant p< .01 (See Appendix D). As with the teachers, students were generally positive about the benefits of the video-simulation technique. They found the learning activity interesting. The planning and performing of the exercise were enjoyable and motivated them to practice the second language through small group discussions. Students believed that their listening comprehension and oral skills had improved via the technique and felt that other second language students would also profit from this approach.

A contingency table was constructed to analyze the bivariate frequency distributions of student and teacher responses. Of the eight items on the survey, questions 3 and 8 were significant p<.05. Question 4 was significant p< .1. This indicated that students were significantly more optimistic than their teachers about the influence of video-simulation on improving listening comprehension and oral proficiency skills in a second language.

Written comments by the content experts. Overall, the written comments of the teachers supported the approach. Their remarks were grouped into the following themes.

1. The project appeals to extroverts and may put excessive pressure on introverts; not appropriate for all types of students; small classes needed; not for large groups.
2. A good idea but don't restrict scope to vocabulary and structures in textbook; more than 30 hours of instruction needed before this could be used for some languages; project assumes high level of performance: eliminate video part.

3. Similar technique used by assessor with favorable results; assessor would be willing to try the technique; technique considered good for promoting vocabulary and pronunciation and for motivating students.
4. Professor needs to guide scripting and taping phases to ensure no 'cheating' occurs; process does not provide immediate feedback; fear that method reinforces student errors in grammar and usage.
5. Method an excuse to avoid real teaching !; problems with access to equipment.

Absentees

The absentee rate for the video-simulation condition (N = 47) was on average 2.4 classes missed over the fifteen week period. The rate for the control group (N = 18) was 3.3 classes missed over the same period of time.

Performance Study

Sample. At the time of the first meeting, subjects in all groups voluntarily signed a consent form to indicate their willingness to participate in the study. Each group was told that the project involved an investigation into the effectiveness of various teaching strategies and techniques. It was also explained that their decision to participate would not in any way effect their chances of success in the course. The mortality rate of the study was low. The video-simulation groups lost just 2 subjects (N = 49), and the control condition lost 4 subjects (N= 22) . This did not have a deleterious affect on the study.

The Prior linguistic and scholastic levels of groups. Since groups could not be randomized, the prior language performance level of each group was determined by ANOVA measures on students' high school mother tongue and second language scores. Table 2 shows that there was no significant difference in performance levels among groups as they entered the experiment. $F(2, 62) = .768$, $p = .468$. The Nelson Denny cumulative scores and the college averages of students were used to determine if all groups were similar in scholastic achievement. Table 3 indicates that no significant difference existed among group Nelson Denny scores $F(2,54) = 1.254$, $p = .294$. ANOVA measures on the college averages also gave non significant results $F(2,61) = .157$, $p = .855$.. See Table 4. The college averages were the most valid and reliable measurement of students' scholastic performance. It was these scores therefore, that were used to ascertain the entry scholastic achievement in the study.

In summary, these statistical measures revealed that at the beginning of the experiment all groups were similar in their linguistic performance and scholastic achievement levels. Table 5 provides the group mean and standard deviation scores for these variables.

TABLE 2

Summary Table - High School Language Scores

Analysis of Variance

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	2	76.27	38.135	.768	.468
Within groups	62	3077.33	49.63		
Total	64	3153.6			

TABLE 3

Summary Table - Cumulative Nelson Denny Scores

Analysis of Variance

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	2	1371.97	685.99	1.254	.2936
Within groups	54	29548.87	547.20		
Total	56	30920.84			

TABLE 4

Summary Table - College Averages

		Analysis of Variance			
Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	2	36.15	18.07	.157	.855
Within groups	61	7016.08	115.02		
Total	63	7052.23			

Table 5

Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for the General Linguistic, Scholastic Achievement and Interview Scores of Each Group

	Video Simulation #1			Video Simulation #2			Control Group		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
High School	27	77.07	8.51	20	79.20	5.39	18	76.61	6.16
Nelson Denny	23	65.26	24.10	18	54.84	24.61	16	65.56	20.75
College averages	27	69.81	8.99	20	68.05	13.31	17	68.64	9.84
Examiner # 1	27	84.68	9.04	20	85.5	7.35	18	76.61	4.58
Examiner # 2	27	82.41	13.67	20	84.65	8.99	18	82.39	5.77
Composite score	27	83.85	10.69	20	85.1	7.75	18	79.78	4.75

Oral Action Interview Scores

The means and standard deviation scores of both evaluators' assessments and the composite score of the oral interviews are also shown in Table 5. The means of all groups fell in a hierarchical arrangement as originally hypothesized - the means of both video-simulation groups were higher than the control group means. A Pearson's correlation coefficient measure was performed on the set of rater's scores and revealed a coefficient of .73. This was high enough to permit averaging the two evaluator's scores into one composite set of scores reflecting students' performance during the Oral Action Interview. It was this score that was used as the dependent variable in the study.

A between group ANOVA was carried out on the experimental groups to determine if the intervention produced significant differences in students' performances during the Oral Action Interview (OAI). An omnibus $F\ (2,62) = 2.027$, $p > .05$ in Table 6 indicated no significant difference among group OAI scores. Subjects who were exposed to video-simulation did not perform significantly better than subjects who were exposed to the control condition.

Aptitude by Treatment Interactions

Test # 1. A two way analysis of variance was performed on the high school second language scores and the treatment conditions to determine if a significant interaction was present. The F value for the interaction was computed at $F\ (4,56) = 2.89$, $p = .030$ and was statistically significant. See Factor AB in Table 7

TABLE 6

Summary Table - Oral Action Interview Scores

		Analysis of Variance			
Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	2	293.928	146.96	2.027	.1403
Within groups	62	4494.319	72.489		
Total	64	4788.246			

TABLE 7

Summary Table - Treatment by Prior Language Interaction

		Analysis of Variance			
Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
(A) Treatment Grps.	2	340.914	170.457	2.702	.076
(B) High Scl. L...	2	82.048	41.024	.65	.525
AB	4	729.228	182.307	2.89	.003*
Error	56	3532.66	63.083		

* = significant

TABLE 8

Incidence Tables - Treatment by Prior Language Interaction and Treatment by College Averages Interaction

Linguistic / Scholastic Catagories	Treatment: Video Simulation # 1 N	M	Video Simulation # 2 N	M	Control Group N	M	Totals N	M
Linguistic								
High	11	85.00	7	84.14	5	81.00	23	83.87
Middle	7	91.43	10	85.00	5	77.50	22	85.32
Low	9	76.56	3	87.67	8	80.50	20	79.80
Totals	27	83.85	20	85.10	18	79.78	65	83.12
Scholastic								
High	7	91.43	8	87.38	4	77.50	19	86.79
Middle	12	82.00	3	88.33	8	80.00	23	82.13
Low	8	80.00	9	82.00	5	80.80	22	81.00
Totals	27	83.85	20	85.10	17	79.65	84	83.13

Since there was a significant interaction present between the two variables an analysis of the simple main effects was computed. Analytical comparisons were made on the three levels of second independent variable (Factor B in table 7). Students in the 'middle' category for prior language performance performed significantly better $F(2,21) = 12.69$, $p < .05$ in the Oral Action Interview than those in the 'low' or 'high' category. See Table 9. Scheffe F-test revealed significance between: video-simulation one and two $F = 3.75$, between video-simulation one and the control group $F = 12.65$, and between video-simulation two and the control group $F = 4.245$.

There were no significant differences found between treatments and the 'low' $F(2,19) = 1.70$, $p > .05$ or 'high' categories $F(2,22) = .331$, $p > .05$ of high school second language scores. See the upper portion of Table 8 for the cell and marginal means of Factors A and B.

Test # 2. A two factor analysis was computed on the independent variables of college averages and treatment groups. The dependent variable was once again the composite OAI scores. An F value for Factor AB in Table 10 shows a non significant interaction, $F(4,55) = 1.499$, $p > .05$. A test of the main effects was then initiated to see if a significant difference existed for factor A and B respectively.

The main effect of the treatment conditions (factor A) showed non significance $F(2,55) = 2.75$ $p > .05$ and since there were no levels of this factor, analytical comparisons were not relevant. The cell and marginal means of each experimental condition are shown in the lower half of Table 8.

TABLE 9

Summary Table - Interaction between Treatments and Students with 'middle' Prior Language Scores

		Analysis of Variance			
Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	2	575.858	287.929	12.69	.003
Within groups	19	430.914	22.68		
Total	21	1006.77			

TABLE 10

Sumary Table - Treatment by College Averages Interaction

		Analysis of Variance			
Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
(A) Treatment Grps.	2	374.51	187.26	2.752	.073
(B) College A...	2	193.52	96.76	1.422	.249
AB	4	407.903	101.98	1.499	.215
Error	55	3742.06	68.037		

A one-way analysis of variance was performed on factor B - students' college averages. An F value of $F(2,55) = 1.422$, $p > .05$ indicated non significance among the three levels of this variable. The bottom half of Table 8 lists the means of the OAI scores for each level of this variable. Apparently scholastic achievement made no significant difference on students' performance in the Oral Action Interview. Those students in the 'high' category of scholastic achievement did not do significantly better in the Oral Action Interview than those in the 'middle' and 'low' category. Similarly the 'middle' scholastic achievers did not perform significantly better than the 'low' scholastic achievers.

CHAPTER FIVE
Discussion

The Qualitative Benefits of Video-simulation

At the start of the experiment it was anticipated that the overall attitude of the treatment groups towards second languages would improve as a result of the intervention. However the results of pre and post attitude surveys administered to all groups, showed no significant attitude changes. Although students' attitudes toward the technique of video-simulation were very positive, this did not translate into generally more positive attitudes toward learning a second language.

A one sample chi square measurement on each questionnaire item in the content expert survey revealed that all were significant at $p<.01$. Most of their written comments were favorable and they centered around the two dominant and competing philosophies of teaching second languages. Video-simulation appears to be more closely associated with a communicative approach where language is seen as a tool rather than a body of knowledge to be learned and - where language proficiency rather than strict grammatical accuracy is the goal.

Students found the video-simulation an enjoyable learning experience. The absentee rate in this group was lower (2.4 classes / student) than in the control group (3.27 classes / student). The two video-simulation groups had 1 drop-out each. The control condition lost 4 subjects. This, along with the responses to Student Evaluation survey items one and two, indicated that motivation and interest were higher as a result of the video-simulation format. Eighty-seven percent of students in the experimental group believed that the technique had a significant impact on improving their oral expression and comprehension skills. Eighty-nine percent of students felt that other SL students would improve their language skills with this format Chi square for these items were significant at $p<.01$. A sizeable gap (19 to 25%) in perception was

identified in frequency scores between teachers and students on the ability of the technique to improve oral expression and listening comprehension. These comparisons were significant at $p<.05$ and $p<.1$ respectively. It appeared that students in the video-simulation treatment condition leave the course with more confidence about their SL abilities than their teachers think they've developed. This was supported by observations made during the Oral Action Interview. The raters found students in this group to be more spontaneous in their use of the SL than those in the control condition. Perhaps this is the major achievement of this technique - to impart confidence to students so that in real life situations they will continue to exercise, experiment and use a new language.

The Model's Predictions

The posttest scores of the Oral Action Interviews fell in a hierarchical relationship as originally hypothesized. The simulation with video was superior to the control group. Analysis of variance measurements on the means of all conditions revealed no statistically significant differences $F(2,62) = 2.027$, $p > .05$ among groups. Aptitude by treatment interactions showed a significant interaction between treatments and prior linguistic proficiency ($F(4,56) = 2.89$, $p = .003$) but not for treatments and scholastic achievement ($F(4,55) = 1.49$, $p > .05$). Post hoc comparisons identified a sub group of the population that appeared to be affected by the influence of video-simulation.

Treatment by prior language proficiency interactions. This sub group consisted of subjects with high school language grades between 74 and 80% . They were given the designation of having 'middle' language proficiency skills. After exposure to the video-simulation treatment, subjects in this category scored averages of 85 and 99% in the posttest Oral Action Interview. When video-simulation was used with 'middle' language proficiency performers the results seemed to be particularly

favorable, to the point where students' grades jumped into the range of the 'high' language proficiency category.

A category labelled 'high' was identified as those subjects who had high school language grades between 81 and 99%. The treatment did not appear to have a significant impact on these students' language performance in the Oral Action Interview. All condition groups performed pretty much as they had done in previous language courses in high school. Subjects in the two video-simulation treatments averaged 84.1 and 85%. The averages for the same category in the control group was 81%.

The 'low' category consisted of students who had scored between 60 and 73% on their high school language exams. Analytical comparisons showed no significance among treatment and control conditions. Although all groups obtained higher percentages than in previous language courses, video-simulation appeared to have little effect on these subjects.

Treatment by college averages interactions. A similar process was followed to determine if there was an interaction present between treatment conditions and the scholastic abilities of the subjects. The categories of 'high', 'medium' and 'low' were represented by the following percentages: 75 to 99, 69 to 74 and less than 69. No significant interaction was present and it was not surprising to find the best scores in the 'high' category followed by 'middle' and then 'low' scores. On average scores were higher in the video-simulation conditions than in the control condition but the difference was not statistically significant.

Conclusion

The results of the present study seem to suggest that if language proficiency is the only goal of instruction then the traditional method of instruction is just as effective as video-simulation. If however there is a concern for student enjoyment, variety in learning activities or student reported helpfulness of the technique while learning a second language, there is some support for the value of video-simulation.

Although results of this study cannot be generalized to the entire population, it is noteworthy that the video-simulation technique was of significant ($F(2,21) = 12.69$, $p < .05$) benefit to those students with 'middle' abilities in language proficiency - permitting these students to outperform subjects in the 'high' language proficiency category. Students with 'high' and 'low' language skills were not significantly influenced more by video-simulation than students in a traditional method of instruction.

Scholastic ability was not an aptitude that interacted with video-simulation. There was no one group among the 'high', 'medium' or 'low' categories that was significantly influenced by video-simulation.

The findings of this study were consistent with those of Clark, Cohen and Hornik. The medium of television did not make a significant difference among the groups' proficiency scores. When prior language proficiency and scholastic achievement were used to characterize sub groups within the population, the language sub group with 'middle' prior language proficiency was significantly affected by video-simulation. Replication of this study is warranted to determine if subjects with these specific learner characteristics are particularly vulnerable to the feedback effect of television or whether results of the present study can be accounted for solely by the effects of novelty.

Further work is also needed to improve the way in which proficiency in spoken language is measured. Morrow (1983) has noted that language is essentially qualitative rather than quantative in nature. It is this nature that makes the evaluation of spoken competency so difficult to assess with current scientific measurement practices.

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APPENDIX A
CONTENT EXPERT QUESTIONNAIRE

I have ___year(s) of experience teaching a second language.

Please respond to the following statements using the five point scale:

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = unsure
4 = agree
5 = totally agree

Circle only one number per question.

1.
The simulation exercise will stimulate student interest.

1 2 3 4 5

2.
The simulation format will motivate students to participate in small group discussions.

1 2 3 4 5

3.
The simulation format will be helpful in developing effective oral expression in SL students.

1 2 3 4 5

4.
The simulation format will be helpful in developing effective oral comprehension skills in SL students.

1 2 3 4 5

5 Planning the exercise will be enjoyable.

1 2 3 4 5

6.
The simulation exercise encourages practical application of acquired language skills.

1 2 3 4 5

7.
The acting out of a real life situation is realistic and practical.

1 2 3 4 5

8.
As a second language teacher I would use video simulation if it were made available to me.

1 2 3 4 5

General Comments:

Project Evaluation
STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Please respond to the following statements using the five point scale:

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = unsure
4 = agree
5 = totally agree

Darken only one number per question on the answer sheet provided.

1.
The simulation exercise captured my interest.

1 2 3 4 5

2.
The fact that the students scripted and performed the skit motivated me to participate in discussions.

1 2 3 4 5

3.
Discussions about the simulation helped me develop oral expression.

1 2 3 4 5

4.
The simulation exercise helped develop oral comprehension.

1 2 3 4 5

5.
I enjoyed planning the exercise.

1 2 3 4 5

6.
In small groups I was encouraged to use my knowledge to contribute to discussions.

1 2 3 4 5

7.
The acting out of a real-life situation was realistic and practical.

1 2 3 4 5

8.
I think other students at this level could profit from this exercise to improve their mastery of another language.

1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX B
ORAL ACTION INTERVIEW MATERIALS

SECOND LANGUAGE EVALUATION:
ORAL INTERACTION TEST

Candidate Guide

Public Service Commission of Canada, Staffing Programs Branch

Commission de la Fonction publique du Canada, Direction generale des programmes de dotation

This candidate guide was produced by the Personnel Psychology Centre of the Public Service Commission of Canada in order to assist candidates to prepare for the Oral Interaction Test. This test is the oral part of the Second Language Evaluation (SLE) system used by the federal government to assess the second language proficiency of public servants.

The guide describes the test, its format and the manner in which the candidate's performance is evaluated. It also contains information on how to complete the data information sheet and some suggestions that may help candidates in preparing for the test and in taking the test.

The Nature of the Test

The Oral Interaction Test measures a candidate's ability to use the second language in work-related situations.

The test assesses a candidate's ability to both speak and listen. Separate ratings are not given for speaking and listening; rather there is an evaluation of the level of the candidate's overall oral interaction skill.

The Oral Interaction test takes the form of a face-to-face conversation with an assessor. It is conducted in a relaxed setting and lasts from 15 to 40 minutes. The assessor guides the candidates in a dialogue about work-related matters and, in so doing, obtains a sample of the candidate's performance in the second language. The conversation is recorded for record purposes, but the candidate does not "talk to a machine'" or answer questions pre-recorded on a cassette.

The goal of the test is to find out the candidate's level of second language proficiency in oral interaction. To do this the assessor first asks questions and poses language tasks geared to the level at which the candidate appears to be functioning. A solid performance on these language tasks indicates to the assessor that the candidate is indeed functioning at the level verified. The assessor also has to determine the upper limits of the candidate's proficiency. For this purpose, questions and language tasks at higher levels are used.

In order to obtain a complete sample of the candidate's ability to interact, the assessor also asks the candidate to participate in one or more role-plays or simulations of work situations. The role-plays are designed to assess the candidate's ability to perform certain language tasks when interacting with a real person in situations similar to those he/she might encounter on the job. The same number of role-plays may not be used in every interview. -

Role-plays may flow naturally out of the conversation or may be presented to the candidate on a card. The assessor may decide to use one or both types depending on the circumstances. The card, if used, describes the general situation, indicates the role that the candidate will be playing, and provides some guidelines concerning what the candidate should say in playing his/her part. The instructions for the role-play are written in the first language of the candidate in order to ensure that the candIdate understands the situation. The candidate may keep the card while doing the role-play. Here is an example of a role-play card:

You are leaving tomorrow for a three-day conference in another city. You have decided to prolong your stay by two days to attend to some urgent departmental business. Ask the clerk in charge of travel arrangements to make the necessary changes. Be sure to explain.

- Why you will be staying longer
- That you need to extend your hotel reservations two extra nights
- That you wish to take the earliest flight possible after 5:OO on friday (rather than Wednesday)

Ask the clerk to call you as soon as possible to confirm your hotel reservations and the flight arrangements.

You might not have the exact vocabulary for this situation but do your best to make yourself understood.

Work-Related Content

The questions and role-plays used in the Oral Interaction Test are concerned with work-related matters only. The candidate is not

required to talk about his/her hobbies, family life, current events, etc. All topics discussed during the test are relevant to the Public Service work environment. The questions and role-plays may be specific to the candidate's job or based on general work-related sItuations that are applicable to everyone in the Public Service. For candidates who are not already employees of the Public Service, the assessor will choose topics related to the candidate's previous work experience.

The particular topics which candidates are asked to talk about will largely depend on the type of job they occupy, their individual experience, and the level of second language proficiency they demonstrate. For example, at Level A, candIdates might be asked questions about their place of work hours of

work, the operation of a piece of equipment, or the performance of a simple, routine task. At Level B typical topics might include a project the candidate is working on or an upcoming move in the division. At Level C, as well as talking about more concrete aspects of their work, candidates might be asked to discuss the implications of a regulation or a policy affecting their work, or to take a stand on a issue such as the government involvement in health and safety, or whether smoking should be prohibited in the work place.

However, candidates are not evaluated on their knowledge of facts, nor on their opinions. Because the test is a second language test, the assessor is interested not in what the candidate says but in how he/she says it, not in the opinions the candidate holds, but in how well they are expressed.

To evaluate the accuracy of the candidate's speech, the assessor does not base his/her rating on the number of errors in grammar, pronunciation, etc. Instead, the rating is based on the degree to which errors interfere with communication of the intended message.

The final rating is a global one, based on the candidate's ability to perform the language tasks with the appropriate content and accuracy for the level.

The Level Attained

The Oral Interaction Test is designed to evaluate candidates at all levels of second language proficiency. Based on the test, candidates are assigned Level A, B or C in Oral Interaction. Candidates are evaluated according to their ability in the second language, regardless of the level required in the position for which they are applying. For example, if the language requirement for a position is Level B in Oral Interaction, but the candidate is capable of performing at the "C" level, he/she will receive a Level C rating.

Exemption from further testing in the oral interaction skill may be granted to candidates who have attained a "solid C" rating. At a "solid C" level, the candidate's performance contains no major weaknesses and allows him/her to handle most situations in the second language. However, the fact that the candidate has attained a "C" rating does not mean that he/she is automatically exempted. In order to assign an exemption, the assessor must make the judgement that the candidate is unlikely to lose the level of competence demonstrated during the test. This judgement takes into account the strength of the candidate's control of the second language as well as the degree of ease and fluency demonstrated.

To determine a candidate's proficiency level, the Oral Interaction Test concentrates on an individual's ability to perform a number of universal language tasks such as asking questions, relating events, giving explanations and supporting opinions. Such language tasks are common to all work-related situations.

At each level of language proficiency there are a number of language tasks which are required. It is the candidate's performance on these language tasks which forms the basis for determining which level is assigned.

The language tasks required at Levels, A, B and C are listed below. To help you understand the meaning of these language tasks, some examples are provided. The language tasks are tested in the Oral Interaction Test by means of questions about the candidate's job or other aspects of the work environment. The language tasks are also assessed by means of role-plays which simulate situations that candidates may encounter on the job.

LEVEL A

Ask and answer simple questions. A machinist asks a colleague where a certain tool may be obtained, or a staffing officer answers an employee's question about the time allowed for a particular test.

Give simple directions or instructions. A receptionist directs a visitor to the cafeteria, or a manager gives his/her secretary simple instructions about a file that is required.

Handle simple work-related situations. A clerk explains to a visitor that the director is out of town and, therefore, unavailable for a meeting.

LEVEL B

Give simple explanations. An administrative officer explains to a caller over the phone how to complete a certain form.

Give factual descriptions (of people, places or things). A manager describes to his/her director the design, color and dimensions of the information brochures that have been ordered.

Narrate events (past, present, future). A security officer relates to the supervisor the events of a break-in in the building he/she is responsible for.

Handle work-related situations with a complication. A clerk resolves the problem of an incomplete supply order with the person responsible for filling out the order.

LEVEL C

Give detailed explanations and descriptions. A secretary explains to another secretary a complex system of keeping track of ministerial correspondence, or a lab technician describes to a colleague the steps involved in a study being conducted.

Handle hypothetical questions. A unit head explains to his/her superior what would happen to the work output if a compressed

work week were adopted by the work unit.

Support an opinion, defend a point of view, or justify an action. A project leader justifies the need for two additional staff members in order to complete a project by the deadline, or a supervisor defends the opinion that flexible hours for the support staff unit should be permanently adopted.

Counsel and give advice. An employment counselor helps an unemployed person explore his/her employment options, or one manager advises another manager on the best method of handling a difficult situation or project.

Handle complex work-related situations. The head of a unit discusses with a junior employee the problem of that employee's lateness for work and frequent absences, and the effect that this is having on the rest of the work unit.

Test Results

A candidate wishing to know his/her result(s) on the Oral Interaction Test should contact his/her department. The department will also be able to provide information in such areas as retesting procedures, validity periods and other policies related to language testing. Do not expect the assessor to give you feedback. After the interview, the assessor will not be able to tell you the results of the test or to comment on your performance.

Note: If, before or during the testing session, a candidate experiences physical or psychological indisposition of sufficient severity to interfere with his /her test performance, it is the responsibility of the candidate to inform the assessor that he/she cannot undertake or continue the testing session. A candidate who chooses to undertake or continue a testing session despite such physical or psychological indisposition must accept the test results.

How to prepare for the Test

Since the test measures your general ability to communicate in the second language and not your knowledge of structures or vocabulary, the best thing to do to prepare for the test is to speak and listen to French as much as possible. To increase your chances of performing at your true level of proficiency, you should, in the final few days before the test, listen to the radio, watch television, and speak French as often as possible with colleagues, friends, and neighbors. If you have not spoken the language for an extended period before the test, you may find it difficult to get back into it at the time of the test.

Note: Candidates must bring their Social Insurance card and one other piece of identification to the testing session as he/she may be required to provide identification.

If a candidate has a handicap that may hinder his/her test performance, he/she should contact the department to obtain additional information and assistance. Alternative test arrangements can be made when the department is aware of the problem in advance.

Suggestions for taking the test

A. BE ON TIME. By arriving on time, you will feel more relaxed and the test will get off to a good start.

B. TRY TO RELAX. The test will not begin with difficult questions or role-plays. There will be time for you to adjust to the testing situation and for the assessor to get to know you.

C. SPEAK ONLY IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE. Throughout the Oral Interaction Test, the assessor will only use the candidate's second language. You will adjust more quickly to using your second language and will perform better if you speak in your second

language from the beginning of the test.

D. CHOOSE A COMFORTABLE RATE OF SPEAKING. Speak at the pace that comes naturally. You are not evaluated on your rate of speech as such but rather on the total effectiveness of the way you communicate. Choose the rate of speech at which you function best and with the most efficiency.

E. DON'T GET HUNG UP ON A WORD. If you can't think of a certain word, use a simple substitute or explain what you mean, then go on with the conversation. Often candidates spend too much time trying to think of a particular word. This disrupts the natural rhythm of the conversation and is not necessary.

F. DON'T WORRY ABOUT MAKING MISTAKES. If you are aware that you are making mistakes and would feel better if you correct them, go ahead and do so. People do this even in their first language. However, it is not necessary to correct mistakes. Remember that the assessor is looking at your ability to communicate in the second language. In some cases, making many corrections may decrease your efficiency by interrupting the flow of speech.

G. DON'T WORRY IF YOU GET LOST IN A LONG SENTENCE. Simply stop, collect your thoughts, and break down your explanation into shorter sentences.

H. ANSWER QUESTIONS AS FULLY AS POSSIBLE. You should avoid responding to questions in monosyllables. Whenever possible, you should expand your answers by giving details, explaining points or developing your thoughts, rather than answering the assessor's question with a simple "yes" or "no".

I. TELL THE ASSESSOR IF THE TOPIC IS SENSITIVE. If the question or role-play deals with an issue that is sensitive for personal or security reasons, you should not hesitate to inform the assessor. The assessor will then simply move on to another topic or choose another role-play at the same level of complexity.

J. MAKE SURE YOU UNDERSTAND THE ROLE-PLAY. If you don't

understand the assessor's explanation or the instructions on the card, don't hesitate to ask for clarification. Do not embark on the role-play until you know exactly what role you are supposed to play.

K. JUST BE YOURSELF IN THE ROLE-PLAY. You don't have to be an actor. The assessor is not interested in your acting ability but in how well you can carry out specific language tasks when interacting in a real communication situation.

L. DON'T WORRY IF THE ROLE-PLAY SITUATION IS UNFAMILIAR. If the role-play is not exactly the kind of thing you have to do in your job, this should not affect your performance. Since the functions tested in the role-plays are universal language tasks, you should be able to interact in all role-plays at your level, whether you normally have to deal with these particular situations or not.

M. DON'T WORRY IF THE TEST SEEMS DIFFICULT. It is normal to feel that the test is difficult at some point. The assessor has to use more advanced questions and role-plays in order to give candidates the opportunity to reach their maximum level of proficiency. You cannot expect, therefore, to do the test without feeling, at some point, that it is demanding and that you are not performing as well as you would have liked to perform.

N. REMEMBER THAT THE TAPE-RECORDER IS ONLY USED TO PROVIDE A RECORD OF YOUR INTERVIEW. Do not pay attention to the tape-recorder. Just concentrate on talking to the assessor. It is the interaction between you and the assessor which counts.

Completing the Answer Booklet

There is one answer booklet for the three second language tests: Reading, Writing and Oral Interaction. Candidates for the Oral Interaction Test are only required to complete the personal information sheet which is the first page of the booklet. This page is common to all three tests and if a candidate is taking all three tests within a few days of each other, this page is filled out with the Reading and Writing tests. If a candidate is taking only the Oral Interaction Test, then this page is filled out at the end of the Oral

Interaction Test. In order to complete this page candidates will need to know their Social Insurance Number, their classification code and their department code. Examples of the classification code are:

Stenographer (ST-STN-02)
Clerk (CR-04)
Engineer (EN-ENG-01)
Personnel Officer (PE-03)

Examples of the department code are:

Statistics Canada - STC
National Defence - DND
Employment and Immigration - EIC
Environment - DOE

Sample topics for simulations

Chapter one:

1. It's your first day at university. You meet some students in the cafeteria. You introduce yourselves, say what schools you are from and what programme you are currently in. Talk about the courses you are taking, the room or building where they are held, the teachers, and whether or not you find them interesting, boring etc... You leave for class, or for home and you say good bye.

2. You're a reporter for the school newspaper and during the first week of classes, you interview some new students. Find out who they are, what school they're from, what programme they're currently in, how they like the new school. Thank them for their co-operation.

Chapter two:

1. You and your family are planning a trip to a South American country. Discuss where you are planning to go and why, what you expect to see, how much time you will spend, how you will travel etc.

2. You and a friend go to a travel agency to arrange a trip. The travel agent will ask all pertinent questions about dates, times of departure, cost, hotels etc...

3. You are a reporter for the Champlain Radio Station. Interview a student from a Latin American country. Ask him what his country is like, which city etc. he comes from, how he likes Canada, etc...

Chapter Three: (use of ser, estar, haber, tener, hacer)

1. You are planning a family reunion for sometime next

month. Discuss with your parents who will be invited, when the invitations will be sent out, when they should answer. Then speculate about who will probably be able to come and what the partly will be like.

2. There is a member of your family who is particularly unusual. You and you friends are discussing these "skeletons" in the family closet.

Chapter Four: (use of the present subjunctive)

1. You and your friends are discussing part-time jobs. Talk about where the job is, the hours you have to work, what the clients (if any) are like. Do you like the job? What does your boss want you to do? Do you like doing it?

2. You have just arrived in a new town and you need directions to get somewhere. Stop somebody in the street and get the help you need.

3. You are a grandparent and your grandchild who is having trouble with a schoolmate comes up to ask you for advice. The child explains his problem and you, in your infinite wisdom, give him the appropriate advice.

4. You are experiencing existential angst over the boredom of your daily routine. Confide in a friend how boring your daily routine has become and your friends will try to suggest ways to spice up your existence.

Chapter five: (further uses of the present subjunctive)

1. You're the manager of a MacDonald's store and you are laying down the rules for a group of new workers. State precisely what you expect of these workers. They will ask questions requesting clarification of some points. You hope they will enjoy working at MacDonald's.

2. You must decide what programme you will register for

when the university resumes in the winter. Discuss the problem with your parents. They will indicate what they hope you will take and you will state your own preferences.

3. You phone the host of a radio talk show which gives advice on personal problems. You will state you problem to the host who will discuss it with you and give advice about what you should do.

4. You and some friends have gone to a carnival and have dropped into a fortune-teller's tent. The fortune-teller will either read your future in the crystal ball or read your palm. Some of her predictions please you, and some don't. She charges an awful lot of money.

Chapter six:

1. You and some friends are planning to go to a movie. Find the **cartelera de espectáculos** and see what's playing. Each of you has a particular preference. Say what you like about the movie, what you don't like. Decide on a film, and pick a time and place to meet. Are you doing something after the flick?

2. You are a transfer student to a new city and you ask some of your new friends what entertainment is available in the new town. They wish to know your preferences and then they describe all the different activities -- movies, pubs, sports -- available.

3. You and your friends play for a football team and your coach is very demanding. What does he want you to do that you don't like doing? Is that enough for you to quit the team?

4. You are the host(s) of a T.V. show that discusses entertainment in Montreal. What is available? What is particularly interesting for the tourist visiting Montreal for the first time? Have you any guests to interview?

APPENDIX C

Spanish Oral Exams

Marking Scheme Description

A + (9.8) A (9.5) A- (9.2)

The student student at this level has no difficulty understanding questions asked at normal speed and can answer questions accurately. The student can give explanations, detailed descriptions or narrate, support an opinion or give advice. The formal aspects of language, grammar, tone, intonation, pronunciation, are reasonably accurate and natural. The student appears at ease using Spanish and is not afraid to attempt saying new things. Answers here will reveal creativity, a break with the forms and structures used by the examiner. The student at this level is expressing himself fluently.

B+ (8.8) B (8.5) B- (8.2)

The student can perform most of the tasks expected of an A student but may not be able to do so as quickly or as accurately. There may also be minor problems in the rhythm of speech or in vocabulary usage but these do not hinder communication. The student appears at ease using Spanish.

C+ (7.8) C (7.5) C- (7.2)

The student at this level may have difficulty understanding questions asked at normal speed and may ask for repetitions of

the question. Answers may be factual without elaboration. The student can give simple instructions, describe events or people in a simple manner. The student has difficulty expressing himself; intonation, vocabulary usage, grammar do cause problems in communicating. The student does not appear at ease using Spanish; he repeats the words and structures used by the examiner. The student appears unwilling to take the initiative in conversation; he prefers to react to what has been said.

D + (6.8) D (6.5) D - (6.2)

The student at this level has considerable difficulty understanding questions asked at normal speed and requires several repetitions and time to figure them out. Answers tend to be simple, consisting of one or two words. The student can handle only the simplest of directions or descriptions. Communication is restricted to the basics of getting and giving information. Speech is hesitant, laboured; inaccuracies in intonation, vocabulary and grammar strain comprehension without rendering it impossible.

F (4)

The student at this level has great difficulty understanding questions and is unable to answer them or gives inappropriate answers. This results in a severely restricted ability to state an opinion, to give instructions or to narrate. Mechanical elements of language are so poorly used that communication is severely strained if not impossible.

APPENDIX D

Chi square test

Evaluation of Video-simulation

1. The video-simulation exercise captures my interest.

Likert scale (-)	1	2	3	4	5	(+)	
Frequency:							
teachers (N=45)	1		4	23	17		$X^2 = 47.8$ p< .01
students (N=47)			6	30	11		$X^2 = 65.4$ p< .01

2. The fact that the students script and perform the skit motivates participation in discussion.

Likert scale (-)	1	2	3	4	5	(+)	
Frequency:							
teachers (N=45)	1		8	21	15		$X^2 = 36.2$ p< .01
students (N=47)		2	9	29	7		$X^2 = 56.7$ p< .01

3. Discussions about the video-simulation helps develop oral expression.

Likert scale (-)	1	2	3	4	5	(+)	
Frequency:							
teachers (N=45)	1	1	13	18	12		$X^2 = 26.0$ p< .01
students (N=47)		2	4	32	9		$X^2 = 72.7$ p< .01

4. The video-simulation helps develop oral comprehension.

Likert scale (-)	1	2	3	4	5	(+)	
Frequency							
teachers (N=45)	1	1	15	20	8		$X^2 = 31.8$ p< .01
students (N=47)		1	5	29	12		$X^2 = 60.6$ p< .01

5. Planning the exercise is enjoyable.

Likert scale (-)	1	2	3	4	5	(+)	
Frequency							
teachers (N=45)	1	3	8	17	16		$X^2 = 23.8$ $p < .01$
students (N=47)	1	1	9	22	14		$X^2 = 34.2$ $p < .01$

6. The small groups encourages students' to use their knowledge to contribute to discussioons.

Likert scale (-)	1	2	3	4	5	(+)	
Frequency							
teachers (N=45)	2	2	3	19	19		$X^2 = 37.1$ $p < .01$
students (N=47)		1	2	26	18		$X^2 = 59.9$ $p < .01$

7. The acting out of a real-life situation is realistic and practical.

Likert scale (-)	1	2	3	4	5	(+)	
Frequency:							
teachers (N=45)	1	2	6	20	16		$X^2 = 32.4$ $p < .01$
students (N=47)		3	6	30	8		$X^2 = 60.3$ $p < .01$

8. Other SL students at a beginner's level, could profit from video-simulation to improve their mastery of another language.

Likert scale (-)	1	2	3	4	5	(+)	
Frequency:							
teachers (N=45)	3	2	11	11	18		$X^2 = 19.3$ $p < .01$
students (N=47)			5	15	27		$X^2 = 57.1$ $p < .01$