

The Effectiveness of Using E. Contextualized Situations for Developing EFL Speaking Skills among Secondary School Students

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Abstract:

The present study aimed at developing some Speaking Skills among Secondary School Students through using E. Contextualized Situations. The participants of the study consisted of first year, El Sadat Secondary school (N=50) during the second semester of the academic year 2021/ 2022. The study followed the two-groups (experimental- control) pre-post test design. Four main tools used were: An EFL Speaking Skill checklist required for first year students, an EFL pre Speaking Skill test to measure some of students' speaking skills, an EFL post Speaking Skill test to measure some of students' speaking skills, an EFL Speaking skills rubric to score students' performance on the EFL Speaking Skill tests. In addition, the study used quantitative method for collecting and analyzing the data. t-test was used to compare the mean scores of pre and post test of the study participants. E. Contextualized Situations method was applied on the participants during the second semester of the academic year 2021/2022. Results of the quantitative analysis revealed that the participants' EFL speaking skills were developed significantly as a result of using E. Contextualized Situations. Therefore, it can be concluded that using E. Contextualized Situations is effective in improving EFL first year secondary school's speaking skills

Key words: EFL speaking skills- E- Contextualized Situations

فاعلية استخدام المواقف السياقية الإلكترونية في تنمية مهارات التحدث لدى طلاب المرحلة الثانوية

الملخص:

يهدف البحث إلى تعزيز وتنمية تعلم امهارات التحدث باللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية لدى طلاب السنة الأولى بالمدارس الثانوية وذلك باستخدام المواقف السياقية الإلكترونية. ولقد تم استخدام التصميم التجريبي ذو المجموعتين (التجريبية و الضابطة) (قياس قبلي بعدي) ولقد بلغت عينة الدراسة خمسون طالب من طلاب السنة الأولى من مدرسة السادات الثانوية وتم تصميم قائمة بالمهارات اللازمة لهؤلاء الطلاب لمعرفة مدى أهميتها بالنسبة لهم؛ كما تم تحكيمها بواسطة عدد من المحكمين الخبراء في مجال المناهج وطرق تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية. وتم تصميم اختبار قبلي بعدي لقياس مهارات التحدث لدى العينة. تم اختبار الطلاب قبلًا لتحديد مستوى أدائهم القبلي وتدريبهم من خلال استخدام المواقف السياقية الإلكترونية على كيفية تنمية وتعزيز مهارات التحدث باللغة الانجليزية. ولقد تم إعادة تطبيق الاختبار على الطلاب لقياس مدى التقدم في مستوى أدائهم ولقد أثبتت النتائج وجود فرق في أداء الطلاب قبل وبعد تطبيق الاختبار وذلك لصالح الاختبار البعدي مما يدل على مدى فاعلية استخدام المواقف السياقية الإلكترونية لتعزيز وتنمية مهارات تعلم التحدث باللغة الانجليزية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: مهارات التحدث باللغة الانجليزية- المواقف السياقية الالكترونية

Introduction:

Speaking is a two-way process between speaker and listener, and it involves the productive skill of understanding. It means that in the speaking process, people try to communicate with each other and use their language to send their message to the second person. In this case, the speaking process requires at least two people, one as a speaker who produces information and the other as a listener who receives that information.

Speaking, on the other hand, was defined by Muklus (2017) as the capacity for conversation or the fluid expression of a series of ideas. Speaking is the primary communication ability, according to Welty (1976:47). Speaking is one of the key components of communication, according to Irawat (2003:7), in which individuals take turns acting as speakers and listeners in order to share information, ideas, and emotions with others through oral language.

Speaking is a simple act, yet it can be challenging in some situations. The following traits of effective speaking must be present in the pupils in order for them to engage in successful speaking:

- 1) A lot of learners talk. The majority of the time allotted for an activity is actually taken up by students talking. This may be obvious, yet frequently the majority of the time is consumed by teacher talk or pauses.
- 2) People are very motivated. The reason why students want to talk is either because they are passionate about the subject and have something original to say about it, or because they want to help the group complete a task.
- 3) The level of language is acceptable. Learners speak in ways that are pertinent and simple to understand.

Speaking is "the process of building and communicating meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a range of circumstances," according to Ponomarcnko & Malyuga (2012). Speaking is one of the four productive abilities that learners of foreign languages must acquire. It is a fundamental component in second language acquisition and teaching. Producing words that listeners can understand is a sign of good speaking abilities. In line with Brown and Yule (1983). The ability that students will be evaluated on most in practical circumstances is speaking. It is a crucial component of daily conversation, and most frequently, a person's ability to talk clearly and fully forms the basis of that impression. Because of this, teachers have a duty to do everything in their power to ensure that their pupils are as ready as possible to use English outside of the classroom. Despite its significance, English language teachers, who have instead focused on memorization of dialogues or drills, have long devalued speaking instruction. The objective of speaking instruction should instead be to help students become better communicators since only through improved communication skills will students be

able to express themselves and grasp the social and cultural norms that apply to each communicative situation.

If we consider the reasons for teaching speaking, we can mention the following reasons:

- Speaking is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching.
- The mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second language or foreign language learners.
- Our learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course based on how much they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency. (Ponomarenko & Malyuga, 2012).

Society, for example, is an external factor that significantly influences how languages are structured and shaped. In actuality, studying language and communication in isolation is challenging. Sociolinguistics is the branch of linguistics that studies how various social circumstances influence the social functions of language. The context of language use is frequently provided by social circumstances, which are addressed independently in the branch of linguistics known as pragmatics. The social functions of language take into account the social characteristics of the language user, such as gender, social status, age, education, geographic background, ethnicity, etc. Studies have shown that the speech patterns of men and women differ noticeably, for instance. Language speakers while interacting with other language speakers consider all these social considerations. As a result, when expressing ideas, a man will use different language strategies when speaking to his wife (intimate) than he does when speaking to his boss or superiors (strictly formal), colleagues (relatively less formal), friends, or siblings (informal), and so on. The social dimension of language is essential for effective interaction with language speakers (Khullar, 2018).

Shristi (2009) throws light on his article upon the seven main functions of language.

These functions are:

1. Expressive and communicative functions.
2. Interpretative functions
3. Control function.
4. The functions of remembering and thinking.
5. The discovery of one's name.
6. Social functions of language.
7. Creative functions.

A crucial social function of language is communication. While fostering a sense of individual identity, language also helps people feel socially connected and a part of a community by denoting various levels of social proximity and distance.

According to George (1945), when someone uses the term "social functions of language," they are referring to the ways in which a group of people's language is connected to their social position and structure. To make this social perspective on language more understandable, we should first set it apart from the earlier psychological perspective, which aimed to establish the relationship between language and cognition. to transmit or express "mental content," in this sequence. The underlying premises of this previous perspective were that language served only as a technical tool for the "mental life" and "material culture" of the group, serving as a channel for the expression and transmission of ideas. Social theorists up to the turn of the century generally held this viewpoint, and they showed little interest in language as a source of information on social structure.

According to Richards (2016), "conversation as transaction" refers to circumstances in which the emphasis is on what is said or done. The message and one's ability to comprehend it precisely and clearly are the main concerns, not the participants or

their interpersonal interactions. According to Jones, "Talk is coupled with other acts in such transactions." The capacity to use English for a variety of transactions, according to him, is one of the most crucial communication abilities. A transaction is an engagement that prioritizes accomplishing a task over sustaining a social connection.

Burns (1998) makes two distinct distinctions between communication as transaction. In the first type, participants primarily pay attention to what is said or accomplished while the focus is on giving and receiving information (e.g., asking someone for directions). If information is successfully presented or understood, accuracy may not be a top priority. The second kind of transaction focuses on acquiring goods or services, such booking a hotel room or placing a food order at a restaurant. In these circumstances, conversation is frequently information-focused, linked to certain activities, and takes place in the scenarios that have already been discussed.

It is considered that teaching language in the context of situations is a more effective way to improve speaking abilities after discussing the language functions, language as a social language, and language as a means of transaction.

Situated Learning theory have a drastic replacement in the form of situated learning theory (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Its central argument challenges two assumptions that are implicit in many conventional theories: first, that "learning represents the acquisition of objective knowledge," and second, that learning is most effectively accomplished during educational or training sessions that are held separately from the contexts in which it will be applied. The contextual learning theory regards learning and knowledge as processes that are fundamental to everyday practice in the workplace, home, and other social situations, in contrast to the cognitivist pre-expression. As a result, daily practice and learning are inseparable.

Participation, according to Lave and Wenger (1991), is essential to contextual learning because it influences how individuals build their identities and behaviours. Participation goes beyond attending an event. It concerns how people comprehend, participate in, and uphold the social norms, behaviours, and values of the communities in which they engage. Although the term "community of practise" is not explicitly defined in contextual learning, the examples provided frequently highlight learning that takes place in a small, tightly knit community. Most follow the apprentice-to-master paradigm, where apprentices progress from minimal to active engagement. In fact, a popular interpretation of the book is that "formal" learning environments such as classrooms are not where situated learning theory is applicable.

Identity learning is given new attention by the situated learning theory, which is concerned not only with the practical application of knowledge but also with understanding oneself and one's potential (Lave,2004). Given the focus on identity, it is surprising that there is little information in the literature on situated learning about how identities develop and how they are shaped by social and contextual factors as well as individual agency, other than to refute the notion that it is solely a process of imitation (Lave and Wenger, 1991:95). Because of this crucial omission, contextual learning theory's explanatory power is poor, making it difficult for researchers to create coherent explanations for how and why identities evolve (for a notable exception, see Keller and Keller, 1996).

Because the "historical and social context" gives our actions structure and significance, practice is always social practice in the framework of situated learning (Wenger, 1998). Newcomers progressively gain a general understanding of the community's practices through involvement (Lave and Wenger, 1991:95). Other stated beliefs, presumptions, and understandings as well as language use, role definitions, and behavioral scenarios may support these behaviors. Individuals may alter, transform, or even reject these practices depending on other contextual

influences rather than simply imitating them. Social learning theory is a significant explanatory paradigm that clarifies practice–development (Bandura, 1986).

Although the notions of identification, participation, and practice are crucial to the theory of situated learning, there is still significant confusion regarding how to distinguish between "participation" and "practice." These phrases are occasionally used synonymously, which causes conceptual ambiguity. The term "participation" refers to both means of acting and to being involved in a meaningful way. The underlying premise of this argument seems to be that participation requires "hearts and minds," as well as a sense of belonging (or a desire to belong), reciprocal obligations, and a knowledge of the significance of actions and interactions. Because practice is restricted to observable behavior rather than the linkages and meanings that such conduct may or may not imply, it becomes easier to apply. Handley, Clark, Fincham, and Sturdy (2006): 12.

According to Herrington and Oliver (1999), a widespread theoretical change in the educational world from "behavioural to cognitive to constructivist" learning views has given rise to situated learning as a model of instruction. Teachers and education experts started looking into the idea of apprenticeships in the middle to end of the 1980s in an effort to identify the qualities that were essential to its success. Their goal was to start the process of establishing a theoretical perspective for learning based on the apprenticeship model, whose success cognitive science had not been able to explain up until that point. Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989), who created a proposal for an instructional model with implications for classroom practice, initially applied the concept. Situated learning advocates contend that learning is only relevant when it is integrated into the social and physical environment in which it will be applied.

According to Collins et al. (1989), approaches that use a contextual learning approach can "best teach" higher order learning, including "cognitive and

metacognitive strategies and processes." However, it appears that there hasn't been much study done to date on whether learning settings built on a situated learning framework enhance and encourage higher order thinking. The majority of studies looking into how often students employ higher order thinking when using multimedia tools find little evidence of it in regular student activity. While advocates of situated learning continue to assert that learning in a situated learning environment results in higher-order learning, very little research has been done to assess the effects of situated learning components on students' thinking, especially when using interactive multimedia programmes (Herrington and Oliver, 1999).

A core idea of situated learning, according to Lunce (2006), is that all learning occurs in contexts that influence other learning. This idea is an offshoot of constructivist theory (Land & Hannafin, 2000). The value of the knowledge and its relevance to the learner are destroyed when learning is taken out of its context. Situated learning is defined as learning that occurs in the constrained environment of a school. However, while being attributed to the culture of practice in the actual world, classroom situated learning is implicitly based on school culture. This separation frequently has a negative effect on the learner's motivation and causes cognitive dissonance. Situated learning is a practice-based methodology, which tends to blur the lines between classroom and workplace learning. The learning environment can be dynamic because situated learning can occur in environments that are culturally and socially varied. Therefore, situational learning is not required to adopt the linear method of education that is most common in a classroom. Learning can happen organically as a result of the learner seeing the usefulness of the information being imparted and the necessity of using it to interpret, analyze, and resolve practical issues. As a result, pupils who participate in contextual learning activities frequently display emergent metacognitive tendencies. Last but not least, contextual learning is typically motivated by demand—either by the

student or by some existence that appreciates or needs to have a certain skill mastered in a certain setting.

A collaborative process in which the learner engages with other participants in a "community of practise" is a second crucial idea of contextual learning. Members of these communities tend to interact with one another on a peer basis rather than in the more formal teacher–student relationship found in classrooms. The role and status of the learner as a member of a community gradually change from that of a novice apprentice to an expert as their knowledge and skills advance. Observing the behaviours and participating in the spoken communities of practitioners at work are both important parts of the learning process. During the break in instruction, the student engages in learning activities as a member of a community. Activities focused on role–playing or scenarios may also be a part of situated learning. Instead than using formal tests, assessment is frequently focused on the learner's demonstrated level of proficiency. When situated learning is expertly planned, significant learning can be transferred to environments outside the learning context.

While implicit knowledge can be challenging to identify and explain, it is frequently an essential component of the cultural or community of practice. This is why it is considered to be a third crucial component of situated learning.

Finally, everyday cognition refers to the act of learning to use a tool or fabrication in a real–life setting in order to achieve a real–world goal. It is a crucial component of situated learning. The student when necessary can more easily remember this kind of knowledge because it is linked to cues from a real–world setting. The procedural regimentation of the traditional classroom typically replaces ordinary cognition in the classroom setting. This is regrettable because problem solving and hypothesis testing are good uses of everyday cognition.

Key strategies often used in situated learning environments include the following:

- Stories.
- Reflection.
- Anchored instruction.
- Cognitive apprenticeship.
- Modeling.
- Collaboration.
- Coaching.
- Scaffolding and judging.
- Multiple practices.
- Exploration.
- Articulation.

Compared to other learning strategies, situated learning does have three important drawbacks. First, creating programmes for contextual learning takes a lot of time. Second, a motivated student who is engaged in contextual learning is frequently necessary for its effectiveness. Third, while contextual learning may be appropriate for a variety of learning objectives, it is not the best teaching strategy for imparting knowledge or teaching abstract, difficult concepts. (Pages 39–40 of Lunch, 2006)

According to Brown, Collins, and Duguid's (1989) model of situated cognition, learning is meaningful only if it is integrated into the social and physical environment in which it will be applied. Formal education is frequently rather distinct from authentic activity, or the customary cultural practices. Many of the activities students complete are comparable to the kinds that professionals carry out in their regular jobs. They suggested the cognitive apprenticeship model, which is based on the successful and time-honored apprenticeship paradigm and is intended to enculturate pupils into authentic practices through activity and social contact. The idea of the apprentice watching the "community of practice" is crucial to the contextual learning concept. The participation transforms from a spectator to an agent capable of carrying out all aspects of the culture as learning and involvement

progress. A number of case studies and some research that can be found in the literature support the case that the contextual learning approach can be successfully employed as a model of instruction.

The situational views, which were previously explored, presuppose that organisational transformation takes place in a more accidental way from theory, as an ongoing improvisation performed by organisational actors as they attempt to understand and behave coherently in the outside environment. Its application to knowledge management is consistent with our claims that new information is mostly produced through the ongoing contacts and improvisations that individuals make while carrying out their duties in an organization. Instead of the widely held belief that knowledge management occurs as a result of top-down, manager-driven, intentional efforts at organisational learning, the situated learning literature advocates a greater sensitivity to incidental, unplanned organisational learning and knowledge generated by the everyday actions of organisational employees. The behavioral traditions in organisational learning are likewise congruent with this emphasis on the incidental part of understanding how organisational structures change.

Nine distinct qualities were identified in our earlier research (Herrington & Oliver, 1995; 1998) as essential components in developing learning environments based on situated cognition and situated learning concepts. The majority of the existing literature explaining this learning theory and others closely connected to it made it possible to identify these traits. A set of guidelines that might be used to guide the operationalization of situated learning components for computer-based learning environments were established through this method. The nine components are outlined in the section that follows, along with explanations of how each one might be incorporated into computer-based learning tools.

1. Authentic contexts: Situated learning environments depict how knowledge and learning outcomes will be used outside of the classroom, in real-world settings. Because of this, a contextual learning environment must offer a domain with "rich situational affordances" that preserves the complexity of the real-life context (Brow, 1989).
2. Authentic learning activities: The learning activities created for situated learning must be applicable to the real world. Using a single complex activity for students to investigate rather than a number of smaller activities improves authenticity. Authentic assignments need to give learners the chance to separate essential knowledge from irrelevant information and necessitate a sequential period of research.
3. Access to expert performances and the modelling of processes: In real-life settings, learners often learn through interactions with those who are more experienced and with experts. Such interactions provide learners with access to expert thinking and modelling processes.
4. Multiple roles and perspectives: This fourth aspect of situated learning comes from the breadth of information received by having access to many points of view and the subject matter that needs to be learnt. This type of learning activity is defined by giving students the chance to collaborate while they cope with material offered from multiple angles and express their own points of view.
5. Collaborative production of knowledge: A lot of learning that goes place outside of formal institutions is done through group-based activities and tasks rather than by an individual. The arrangement of students into pairs or small groups is necessary for collaborative learning, which also entails the use of motivating frameworks that will benefit the entire group's achievement.
6. Reflection to enable abstractions to be formed: Reflection is a learning strategy that encourages and enables students to consider and deliberate on both their

learning and learning processes. It is facilitated by tasks and contexts with high degrees of authenticity.

7. Articulation to make implicit knowledge explicit: Articulation is a learning technique that is strongly related to reflection. To fully use the knowledge that has been acquired in situated learning situations, articulation is essential. The aim of the articulation is to provide learners with ongoing opportunities to express their understandings using created meanings as opposed to manufactured opportunities.

8. Coaching and scaffolding by the teacher to critical times: Situated learning settings often provide clear roles for teachers as facilitators and coaches for the learners. In these roles, the teachers are unable to provide different forms of support for learning, particularly support in the form of scaffolding. The forms of design strategy that have been used for this purpose include the use of complex, open learning environments where no attempt is made to provide internal scaffolding and coaching.

9. Authentic evaluation of the tasks' learning The methods used to analyze and assess the learning results make up the third aspect of situated learning. As with authentic learning activities, authentic assessment demands significant student time and effort in teamwork and calls for difficult, poorly planned challenges involving judgement and a wide range of tasks with the evaluation being smoothly incorporated with the activity. In order to enable acceptable criteria for scoring a variety of goods, authentic assessments must pay attention to the validity and reliability of the measures, which contain different markers of learning. 179–182 (Oliver and Herrington, 2000).

It is essential for both teachers and students to stay informed, educated, and involved with technology in education, especially in EFL, in the setting of such a high-tech learning environment. These technologies must be combined in order to facilitate English language learning. Teachers and students now have enormous

opportunities to engage with one another and with the rest of the world thanks to Internet use. The current technical and technological scenario has almost completely replaced the traditional classroom with a virtual, global learning environment without face-to-face interaction, particularly in several industrialized countries of the world. Its effects are being felt in developing nations where the educational system is in competition with the rest of the developed world's educational system.

E-learning has gained popularity as a method for acquiring knowledge and achieving academic goals and has enormous potential to improve self-directed learning. It is no longer thought of as a passing craze. Researchers' definitions of e-learning are distinctive. A computer-mediated technology that is used to facilitate teaching and learning is what it is described as. According to the European Commission (2001), e-learning is a form of instruction and interaction that allows for remote uploading and sharing. According to Sangra (2012), e-learning uses ICT (Information and Communication Technology) integrated learning, online learning, and distant learning to deliver classes and materials. In all definitions, the significance of technology and computers is highlighted.

Five types of E-Learning can be identified from literature. They are a) tele mentored, b) learner-led, c) facilitated, d) instructor led and e) embedded. Tele mentoring is the method where the learners are given printed study material; and the instructions and guidelines are given through videos through electronic platforms (Gulbahar, 2009). Learner led E-Learning is the method where learners are given learning materials and learners work on the materials mostly on their own. The facilitated eLearning allows the learners to get involved in discussions through forums and chats related to the topic of the course. Instructor led E-Learning contains videos, real-time webcasts and instructors' presentation on topics to help the learners carry out their studies. This also includes video conferencing, audio, and white-board applications. Embedded eLearning provides students with video

and resources in the form of relevant web-links. This enables the learners to get better and deeper knowledge in the relevant assignments. (Jose, Jafer Zaino IAbidin, 2015: 14-15).

Content for E-learning is usually in an electronic format and stored on a server or CD ROM. E-learning content can be accessed by students directly from a standalone computer or server through networked computer. The contents of E-learning are usually interactive and interesting and virtually the instructor supports students. To improve the effectiveness of the learning process, currently E-learning is adopted by a growing number of educational institutions universities. Technological progress is expected to further develop the concept of E-learning.

Specifically, the E-learning formats can be divided into types, namely classes using lecture capture and courses using learning management system. The former is technology that records lectures in the classroom automatically. This model was originally designed to improve classroom learning by making lectures accessible online repeatedly for students. The latter, the Learning Management Systems, are software which is protected by password where students can log in and use them to learn. In addition, the teacher can also register students in the class. Learning management systems also provide facilities to discuss and work on learning materials and assess students learning outcomes. (Hatmanto & Purwant; 2019:44).

Improving the speaking skill of students in English as a foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL (English as a Second Language) becomes an issue. Quite a few EFL teachers expect their students to be able to speak accurately after the teaching learning process. On the other hand, most learners find it difficult to express grammatically correct sentences due to the significant differences in the grammar of the native language of the students and that of the EFL and consequently they prefer to put emphasis in fluency rather than on accuracy during the speaking activities. Cultural difference is also considered to

contribute to the difficulties of EFL learners to use English in their daily conversation and in appropriate social interaction. Despite the problems faced in the teaching and learning of speaking Heaton (1988) supposed that in the teaching of speaking learners must master the three components of speaking: fluency, accuracy, and comprehensibility. It means that there must be efforts to choose effective techniques in teaching speaking and willingness to create and design interesting instructional materials that facilitate the achievement of the three speaking for in components. The teaching of speaking must open wide opportunities for learners to practice. More importantly, Jones (2007) suggests that language teachers as well as the instructional materials guide students 'manage student's activities, and direct learning during the language teaching and learning process. Therefore, the role of the EFL or ESL teachers are not only limited to the choice of effective techniques but also on creativity and innovation to design and develop instructional materials. (Manurung, 2014).

Contextual clues are provided using image and sound to support the candidate's production. Image and sound have proved to be excelled stimuli of production, especially in short term memory. They also give life and realism which in turn also adds a "flow" feeling. Overall, previous studies have shown that although the use of video for listening tasks may challenge the task construct, images enrich the students' responses and are very productive because they facilitate vocabulary and syntax recognition and use. In the project, they have been mostly used for oral descriptions and items that require item memorization. They may also seem to increase and improve the candidate's phonological production since they have a model (as happens in real life in the native–non–native interaction) to follow. (Laborda, 2012). Many studies and books sought to develop speaking skills like (Richard, 2008), (Bahadorfar& Omidvar, 2014), (Manurung, 2015), (Muklus, 2017) and (Baume, Plumbley, Calic and Frohlich, 2018).

Manurung (2015) conducted a study that aims to solve speaking problems of students in an EFL class using contextual internet-based instructional materials. The study employed classroom Action Research design in speaking class at an English Education Department at a university in Indonesia. The study implementation, observation, and reflection. The criterion of success was that more than or equal 80% of the students must gain speaking score of more than consisted of two cycles. Each cycle consisted of planning, or equal 75%. The result of cycle 1 revealed that less than 80% of the students achieved the criterion; consequently, the revised plan for cycle 2 was implemented. The results of cycle 2 revealed that more than 80% of the students gained score more than or equal 75 and therefore the cycle was stopped. The design and the development process of the instructional materials are discussed and the steps in implementing teaching integrated reading and speaking in EFL teaching and learning (TIRS) are proposed.

Muklus (2017) examined the use of talking chips strategies to teach speaking to eleventh-grade pupils. The goal of this study was to determine whether there were any appreciable differences in the eleventh-grade students' speaking abilities between those who were taught using the talking chips method and those who were taught using the traditional method. Utilizing experimental techniques and a genuine experimental design, this study was quantitative in nature. The 62 students who made up the study's sample were divided into two groups using cluster random sampling: an experimental group of 31 students and a control group of 31 students. A speaking test was used as a tool for data collection by the author. The findings of this study showed that the talking-chips method was significantly effective in teaching speaking to the eleventh-grade students.

Baume, Plumbley, Calic and Frohlich (2018) made an investigation of radio production involving editing speech-based audio using tools that represent sound using simple waveforms. They developed a semantic audio-editor based on a pilot study. They examined the existing radio production process. They observed that the

participants in their study wrote notes about detailed recordings and used annotation to mark which parts they wanted to use. On the other hand, in the few coming lines I will shed light on the situated language theory which is here in my proposal as an independent variable.

Situated learning theory (SLT) was a main theme in different research like (Herrington & Oliver, 1995), (Herrington & Oliver, 1999), (Oliver & Herrington, 2000), (Nidumolu, Subramani & Alan, 2001), (Lunce, 2006), (Handley, Clark, Fincham & Sturdy, 2006), (Dede, Nelson, Ketelhut, Clarke & Bowman, 2014), (Huang, Lubin & Ge, 2011) and (Mahmoud, 2021).

In their ethnographic case study of an attempt to alter knowledge–work processes in a market research firm, Nidumolu, Subramanis, and Aldrich (2001) use the situated knowledge perspective to emphasize the reasons for the initiative's patchy success in the company. According to this study, the success of information management activities in businesses depends on taking into account the located knowledge web and aligning the initiatives with its characteristics.

Huang, Lubin and Ge (2011) conducted a qualitative study to investigate a situated learning environment implemented in an educational technology course where pre–service teachers worked collaboratively on meaningful real–world projects, assuming the role of professional teachers. The findings implied that if we want to successfully implement situated learning, efforts should be made to promote a constructive learning culture, improve individual performance, manage students' perceptions, and foster their positive attitudes.

(Mahmoud, 2021) investigated the effect of using a situated learning–based strategy to develop some critical thinking skills and enhance English language learning interest at secondary stage pupils. The research employed a pre– posttest design group. Subjects were (٥٠) female first year secondary school pupils at Sheblanga Village. The research conclude that the proposed situated learning–based strategy

guide had a positive effect in developing critical thinking skills and enhancing English language learning interest at Secondary stage pupils.

Context of the problem:

Speaking as one of the language skills becomes an important topic to discuss in language teaching. The discussion topic can be related to the instructional techniques, the instructional materials, the instructional media, the language teachers, the language learners, and even the speaking components. The instructional techniques hold an important role to motivate and activate learner. The instructional materials play the role to contextualize the language usage and to meet language learners' needs. Instructional media bring the teaching in to real life situation, the teachers facilitate and ease the learning process, the learners manifest and produce meaningful and appropriate utterance as an indicator of instructional success, the speaking components relates to which components of the speaking to be the emphasis in a speaking class activities. In addition, success in studying a language is often measured by a learner's ability to speak in the language being learned. The mastery of speaking skills in English is priority for many second-language or foreign-language learners. Consequently, learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course based on how much they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency. (Richards, 2008:19).

Therefore, the problem of this study is that the student's at the secondary school is disabled to use the English language in speaking to cover different situations.

Statement of the problem:

The problem of this study is that there is a lack of EFL speaking skills among first year secondary school students in Elsadat secondary school in Sheblanga. The

study therefore aimed to use E. Contextualized Situations to develop EFL speaking skills.

Questions of the study:

The present study tried to answer the following questions: –

1. What are the EFL speaking skills required for first year secondary school students?
2. What is the effectiveness of using E- contextualized situation strategy on developing EFL speaking skills?

Delimitations of the study:

The present study was delimited to the following: –

- 1– A sample of first year secondary school students enrolled in Elsadat secondary school– Sheblanga
- 2– Some EFL speaking skills that were required for first year secondary school students enrolled in Elsadat secondary school– Sheblanga

Participants of the study:

The sample of the present study consists of ٥٠ secondary school pupils.

Design of the study

The present study is an experimental study. Two groups will participate, an experimental group and control group. These two groups will be chosen randomly from first year secondary school in Sheblanga. The two groups will be tested before conducting the experiment. Speaking skill in both groups would be tested to identify whether they were approximately equal. Equivalence of groups before experimental procedures would be insured in terms of the scores. During the experiment, the

experimental group will be taught through using a situated e-learning approach. Meanwhile, the control group will be taught through a traditional teaching method. At the end of the experiment, the two groups will be tested.

Instrument and materials of the study:

1. An EFL speaking skills checklist.
2. EFL speaking skills pre- post test with two equivalent forms
3. An EFL speaking skills rubric to score students' performance of the EFL speaking skills.

Terms of the study:

Speaking skill:

Speaking is a two-way process between speaker and listener, and it involves productive skill and respective skill of understanding. It means that in the speaking process people try to communicate with each other and use their language to send their message to the second person. In this case, the speaking process needs at least two people, one as a speaker who produces information and the other as a listener who receives information. (Muklas, 2017).

Situated Learning Theory (SLT):

Situated learning in general refers to that type of learning which takes place in which it is applied. It employs the social aspect of human nature to help learners feel relaxed and at ease while learning. Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that learning should not be viewed as simply the transmission of abstract and decontextualized knowledge from one individual to another, but a social process

whereby knowledge is constructed. They suggested that such learning is situated in a specific context and embedded within a particular social and physical environment. Through situated learning, students will be able to learn the skill and be able to accurately use the skills they have learned. Situated learning allows students to gain experience through doing in some way, and from this experience they can be productive in their lives after they have graduated.

Situated language learning in particular approaches consider language learners as active constructors of knowledge which are best acquired within realistic contexts and authentic settings, where students are engaged language learning tasks (Flexi,2002: p3). Thus, it focuses on the role of context and situation in language <https://Link.springer.com>

Active in experiential learning and knowledge construction.

E-learning:

E-learning=online learning= distance learning.

E-learning method is a method of learning that involves the use of computers and the internet E-learning is defined as computer mediated technology which is used to facilitate teaching and learning (Waterhouse, 2003). European Commission (2001) defined e-learning as a medium of instruction and interaction, could be used for uploading and sharing different resources synchronously or asynchronously. It can work in a collaborative manner even remotely. Sangra (2012) mentioned that e-learning is considered as distance learning, learning, and ICT (Information and Communication Technology) incorporated technology to deliver lessons and materials. The role of technology and which online computers are emphasized in all definitions. (Jose, 2015).

E-learning can also be termed as a network enabled transfer of skills and knowledge, and the delivery of education is made to an enormous number of recipients at the same or various times. Earlier, it was not accepted. Wholeheartedly

as it was assumed that this system lacked the human element required in learning
<http://m.economictimes.com>

E-learning is learning utilizing electronic technologies to access educational curriculum outside of a traditional classroom. In most cases, it refers to a course program or degree delivered completely online.

We define E-learning as courses that are specifically delivered via the internet to somewhere other than the classroom where the professor is teaching. It is not a course delivered via a DVD or CD-ROM, video tape or over a television channel. It is interactive in that you can also communicate with your teachers, professors, or other students in your class. Sometimes it is delivered live, where you can "electronically" raise your hand and interact in real time and sometimes. It is a lecture that has been prerecorded. There is always a teacher or professor interacting communicating with you and grading your participation. <http://elearning-portal.garmain.edu.krd>.

E-learning is learning done by studying at home using computers and courses provided on the internet.

<http://E-learning/meaningdictionary.cambridge.org>

Results and Discussion

Table (1): Results of Mann –Whitney test of the experimental group and the control group in the post- administration of the speaking skills Test

Skills	Group	N	Mean rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	Sig. at
Words	Control	2	21.8	546.0	221.00	1.98	.05
	Experimental	5	4	0			
	Experimental	2	29.1	729.0	0	2	Significant

	I	5	6	0			
	Total	5					
		0					
	Control	2	20.0	501.0			
		5	4	0			
Expressions	Experimenta	2	30.9	774.0	176.00	2.89	.01
	I	5	6	0	0	6	significant
	Total	5					
		0					
	Control	2	20.2	505.5			
		5	2	0			
Idioms	Experimenta	2	30.7	769.5	180.50	2.91	.01
	I	5	8	0	0	0	significant
	Total	5					
		0					
	Control	2	16.0	400.0			
		5	0	0			
Vocabulary	Experimenta	2	35.0	875.0	75.000	4.81	.01
	I	5	0	0		8	significant
	Total	5					
		0					
	Control	2	20.0	501.5			
		5	6	0			
Grammatical Structure	Experimenta	2	30.9	773.5	176.50	3.06	.01
	I	5	4	0	0	2	significant
	Total	5					

		0					
	Control	2	20.9	523.0			
		5	2	0			
Grammatically correct sentences	Experimental	2	30.0	752.0	198.00	2.62	.01
		5	8	0	0	7	significant
	Total	5					
	0						
	Control	2	18.8	471.0			
		5	4	0			
Language functions	Experimental	2	32.1	804.0	149.00	3.50	.01
		5	6	0	0	0	significant
	Total	5					
	0						
	Control	2	17.4	436.5			
		5	6	0			
Grammar	Experimental	2	33.5	838.5	111.50	4.00	.01
		5	4	0	0	6	significant
	Total	5					
	0						
	Control	2	19.9	498.0			
		5	2	0			
Stress & Intonation	Experimental	2	25	777.0	173.00	3.14	.01
		5		0	0	1	significant
	Total	5					
	0						
	Control	2	21.2	531.0	206.00	2.42	.05
		5	4	0	0	7	significant
Pronouncing words &							

sentences	Experimenta I	2	29.7	744.0			
		5	6	0			
		Total	5				
		0					
	Control	2	20.4	511.5			
		5	6	0			
Correct phoneme	Experimenta I	2	30.5	763.5	186.50	2.84	.01
		5	4	0	0	4	significant
		Total	5				
		0					
	Control	2	17.8	445.0			
		5	0	0			
pronunciation	Experimenta I	2	33.2	830.0	120.00	3.88	.01
		5	0	0	0	9	significant
		Total	5				
		0					
	Control	2	20.4	510.0			
		5	0	0			
No Hesitation	Experimenta I	2	30.6	765.0	185.00	2.83	.01
		5	0	0	0	0	significant
		Total	5				
		0					
	Control	2	19.9	499.5			
		5	8	0			
Flow of speech	Experimenta I				174.50	3.09	.01
		2	31.0	775.5	0	0	significant
		5	2	0			

	Total	5					
		0					
	Control	2	21.7	543.0			
		5	2	0			
Cohesion & Coherence	Experimenta	2	29.2	732.0	218.00	2.07	.01
	I	5	8	0	0	1	significant
	Total	5					
		0					
	Control	2	17.7	442.5			
		5	0	0			
Fluency	Experimenta	2	33.3	832.5	117.50	3.90	.01
	I	5	0	0	0	5	significant
	Total	5					
		0					
	Control	2	14.4	360.0			
		5	0	0			
total	Experimenta	2	36.6	915.0	35.000	5.42	.01
	I	5	0	0		0	significant
	Total	5					
		0					

Results in table (1) showed that there are statistical significant differences between the mean rank of the experimental group students and the control group in the post administration of the main skills and their sub- skills of the speaking skills test in favor of the experimental group students. All z values were significant in favor of the experimental group; z values were significant at (0.01) level in most skills, while z values were significant at (0.05) level in the words sub-skill of the vocabulary skill,

pronouncing words & sentences sub–skills of the pronunciation skill, and cohesion & coherence of the fluency skill.

The first hypothesis

There is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the experimental group students and the control group Students on the post–administrations of the speaking skill test in favor of the experimental group". Thus, the first hypothesis was accepted.

The second hypothesis

The second hypothesis is "There is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the experimental group students on the pre and post administrations of the speaking skill test in favor of the post administration".

The results are shown in the following tables:

1) Vocabulary

Table (2) shows the z values and their statistical significance of the difference between the mean rank of the experimental group in the pre– post administration of the vocabulary skill and its sub–skills.

Table (2): Results of Wilcoxon test of the experimental group on the pre and post administrations of the speaking skills test

Vocabulary skill	N	Mean rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Sig. at	Effect size
Word post– Negative	0	.00	.00	3.317	0.01	0.664

words pre	Ranks						strong
	Positive	11	6.00	66.00			
	Ranks						
	Ties	14					
	Total	25					
Expressions	Negative	0	.00	.00			
	Ranks						
	post- Positive	12	6.50	78.00	3.464	0.01	0.693
	Expressions	Ranks					strong
	Pre- Ties	13					
Idioms post	Total	25					
	Negative	0	.00	.00			
	Ranks						
	post- Positive	11	6.00	66.00	3.317	0.01	0.664
	- Idioms	Ranks					strong
pre	Ties	14					
	Total	25					
	Negative	0	.00	.00			
	Vocabulary	Ranks					
	post- Positive	23	12.00	276.00	4.327	0.01	0.866
Vocabulary	Ranks						strong
	pre Ties	2					
	Total	25					

Table (2) showed that most of the values of the correlation coefficients are positive and significant at (< 0.01) level.

The results in the previous table showed the following:

1. For the first sub-skill skill, using words accurately, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of

SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z= 3.3172$ 2.58). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the first sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.664), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).

2. For the second sub-skill, using expressions, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z= 3.464$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the second sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.693), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).

3. For the third sub-skill skill, using idioms, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z= 3.317$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the third sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.664), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).

4. For the main skill, vocabulary, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean ranks of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z= 4.327$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level.

2) Grammar

Table (3) shows the z value and their statistical significance of the difference between the mean rank of the experimental group in the pre– post administration of the Grammar skill and its sub–skills

Table (3) Results of Wilcoxon test of the experimental group on the pre and post– administration of the speaking skills

Grammar skill		N	Mean rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Sig. at	Effect size
Grammatical structure post – Grammatical structure pre	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	3.000	0.01	0.06 strong
	Positive Ranks	9	5.00	45.00			
	Ties	16					
	Total	25					
Grammatically correct sentences post – Grammatically correct sentences pre	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	2.646	0.01	0.529 strong
	Positive Ranks	7	4.00	28.00			
	Ties	18					
	Total	25					
Language functions post – Language functions pre	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	3.162	0.01	0.633 strong
	Positive Ranks	10	5.50	55.00			
	Ties	15					
	Total	25					
Grammar post – Grammar pre	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	3.839	0.01	0.768
	Positive Ranks	18	9.50	171.00			

Ranks	
Ties	7
Total	25

Table (3) showed that most of the values of the correlation coefficients are positive and significant at (< 0.01) level.

The results in the previous table showed the following:

1. For the first sub-skill skill, **grammatical structure**, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.000$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the first sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.60), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).
2. For the second sub-skill skill, **grammatically correct sentences**, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($Z=2.646$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the second sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.529), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).
3. For the third sub-skill skill, **language functions**, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.162$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the third sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.633), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).

4. For the main skill, **grammar**, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z= 3.839$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level.

3) Pronunciation

Table (4) shows the z values and their statistical significance of the difference between the mean rank of the experimental group in the pre- post administration of the pronunciation skill and its sub-skills.

Table (4): Results of Wilcoxon test of the experimental group on the pre and post administrations of the speaking skills test

Skills	Group	N	Mean rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	Sig. at
Words	Control	25	21.84	546.00	221.000	1.982	.05 Significant
	Experimental	25	29.16	729.00			
	Total	50					
Expressions	Control	25	20.04	501.00	176.000	2.896	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	30.96	774.00			
	Total	50					
Idioms	Control	25	20.22	505.50	180.500	2.910	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	30.78	769.50			
	Total	50					
	Control	25	16.00	400.00	75.000	4.818	.01

Vocabulary							significant
	Experimental	25	35.00	875.00			
	Total	50					
Grammatical Structure	Control	25	20.06	501.50	176.500	3.062	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	30.94	773.50			
	Total	50					
Grammatically correct sentences	Control	25	20.92	523.00	198.000	2.627	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	30.08	752.00			
	Total	50					
Language functions	Control	25	18.84	471.00	149.000	3.500	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	32.16	804.00			
	Total	50					
Grammar	Control	25	17.46	436.50	111.500	4.006	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	33.54	838.50			
	Total	50					
Stress & Intonation	Control	25	19.92	498.00	173.000	3.141	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	25	777.00			
	Total	50					

Pronouncing words & sentences	Control	25	21.24	531.00	206.000	2.427	.05 significant
	Experimental	25	29.76	744.00			
	Total	50					
Correct phoneme	Control	25	20.46	511.50	186.500	2.844	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	30.54	763.50			
	Total	50					
pronunciation	Control	25	17.80	445.00	120.000	3.889	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	33.20	830.00			
	Total	50					
No Hesitation	Control	25	20.40	510.00	185.000	2.830	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	30.60	765.00			
	Total	50					
Flow of speech	Control	25	19.98	499.50	174.500	3.090	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	31.02	775.50			
	Total	50					
Cohesion & Coherence	Control	25	21.72	543.00	218.000	2.071	.01

							significant
	Experimental	25	29.28	732.00			
	Total	50					
Fluency	Control	25	17.70	442.50	117.500	3.905	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	33.30	832.50			
	Total	50					
total	Control	25	14.40	360.00	35.000	5.420	.01 significant
	Experimental	25	36.60	915.00			
	Total	50					

Table (4) showed that most of the values of the correlation coefficients are positive and significant at (≤ 0.01) level.

The results in the previous table showed the following:

1. For the first sub-skill skill, stress and intonation, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.464$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the first sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.693), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).
2. For the second sub-skill skill, pronouncing words and sentences, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of the SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.000$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the second sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.60), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).
3. For the third sub-skill skill, correct phoneme, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean ranks of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.162$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the third sub-skills the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.633), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).
4. For the main skill, pronunciation, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the

post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.162$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level.

4) Fluency

Table (5) shows the z values and their statistical significance of the difference between the mean ranks of the experimental group in the pre- post administration of the fluency skill and its sub-skills.

Table (5): Results of Wilcoxon test of the experimental group on the pre and post administrations of the speaking skills test, and the total degree of the speaking skills test

Fluency		N	Mean rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Sig. at	Effect size
No hesitation post – No hesitation pre	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	3.464	0.01	0.693 strong
	Positive Ranks	12	6.50	78.00			
	Ties	13					
Total		25					
Flow of speech post – Flow of speech pre	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	3.000	0.01	0.60 strong
	Positive Ranks	9					
	Ties	16					
Total		25					
Cohesion & Coherence post – Cohesion & Coherence	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	3.162	0.01	.0633 strong
	Positive Ranks	10					
	Ties	15					

Coherence	Total	25					
pre							
	Negative	0	.00	.00			
Fluency	Ranks						
post	Positive	21	11.00	231.00	3.162	0.01	.0633
-	Ranks						strong
Fluency pre	Ties	4					
	Total	25					

Table (5) showed that most of the values of the correlation coefficients are positive and significant at (≤ 0.01) level.

The results in the previous table showed the following:

1. For the first sub-skill skill, No hesitation, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.464$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the first sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.693), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).
2. For the second sub-skill skill, Flow of speech, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of the SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.000$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the second sub-skill as the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.60), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).
3. For the third sub-skill skill, Cohesion & Coherence, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean ranks of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.162$). Thus, there

are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the third sub-skills the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.633), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).

4. For the main skill, Fluency, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean rank of the pre and post administrations of SST in favor of the post-administration. The z value was ($z=3.162$). Thus, there are significant differences at (0.01) level. In addition, the treatment was effective in developing the main skills the effect value of the difference between pre and post administrations was (0.633), which is very strong, as it is more than (0.5).

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