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Department of Foreign Languages

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AKERMI Faten

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**Investigating the Use of Action Video-Games for Military English
Vocabulary Learning
The Case of Officers at the Algerian Military Institute of Foreign
Languages and Translation IMLET (Institut Militaire des Langues
Étrangères et de Traduction)**

Board of Examiners:

Dr.	RABEHI Salima	MCB	Biskra	Chairwoman
Dr.	MEDDOUR Mostefa	MCB	Biskra	Supervisor
Mr.	SENOUCI Zakariya	MAB	Biskra	Examiner

Dedication

To future researchers.

Acknowledgments

I owe many thanks and a tremendous debt of gratitude to the many people whose assistance was indispensable in completing this research project.

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Abstract

Video-games include authentic materials and offer a simulation of real-life situations. These games might be applied effectively within ESP courses. Currently, ESP courses at IMELT institute are held within a traditional environment. Speculatively, officer learners at this institute might be bored and demotivated. Because of that, this study aims at investigating the practicality of action video-games as an alternative instructional tool for traditional Military English teaching. It seeks exploring the difficulties faced with video-games as a learning tool. It also aims at investigating learners' perspectives towards playing video-games. The hypothesis suggested to probe this study sets out that the inclusion of action video-games within ME classes, as an instructional tool, leads to a positive implicit learning of the used vocabulary. Furthermore, the study seeks to gather both qualitative and quantitative data, thus a mixed methods approach was adopted. This study was conducted in two phases. The first phase was a preliminary study that aimed at gathering insightful information about the teaching/learning environment at IMLET. Two data collection tools were used: A questionnaire for officers and ME teachers respectively; interviews with ME teachers. The major result from this phase is that ME classes are heterogenous in terms of the learners' military branches. Thus, the action video game used in the second phase had to be versatile. The second phase is a quasi-experimental study conducted for the purpose of testing action video-games as an instructional tool for ME learning. The statistical results from this experiment revealed a considerable regression in participants' performance. Thus, the above-mentioned hypothesis was rejected. This phase also included a focus group that supported the quasi-experimental results. It confirmed that learners face difficulties when using video-games as learning tools, such as being too focused on how to play the game and forgetting to focus on the actual content of the game.

Keywords: video-games, ESP, Military English, instructional tool, vocabulary

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AI:	Artificial Intelligence
AM:	Anglais Militaire
ALN:	Armée de Libération Nationale
CALL:	Computer Assisted Language Learning
CMC:	Computer-Mediated Communication
DGBL:	Digital Game Based Learning
DVG:	Digital Video Game
E3:	Electronic Entertainment Expo
EAP:	English for Academic Purposes
ELT:	English for Language Teaching
EOP:	English for Occupational Purposes
ESP:	English for Specific Purposes
ESU:	English Speaking Union
GE:	General English
HCI:	Human Computer Interaction
ICT:	Information and Communication Technologies
IED:	Improvised Explosive Device
IMLET:	Institute Militaire des Langues Étrangères et de Traduction.
IRSA:	International Radiotelephony Spelling Alphabet
IT:	Information Technology
LAN:	Local Area Network
ME:	Military English
NEST:	Nuclear Emergency Support Team
PAX:	Penny Arcade eXpo

PTSD: Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
SAS: Special Air Service
STANAG: STANdarization AGreement
VIP: Very Important Person
VR: Virtual Reality

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GENERAL INTRODCUTION

Introduction

Recently, the importance of English in the Algerian Armed Forces has become crucial and fundamental. This is due to Algeria's membership as one of the Mediterranean Dialogue states which are one of the partners of NATO (NATO Mediterranean Dialogue, 2015). NATO, as an intergovernmental military alliance, designates English as one of its official languages. Thus, in order for the Algerian Army to have diplomatic relations it is important that its officers attain a certain level of Military English (ME).

Military English is a specialized English course devised for military personnel and government employees whose position requires them to work in international parties using English as a *Lingua Franca*. It is one of the branches of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) which is a learner centred approach concerned with teaching specific, topic related, vocabulary and terminology to learners, according to their wants and needs (Basturkmen, 2010, as mentioned in Meddour, 2014). Many tools and techniques have been used for teaching ESP, but seldom video-games.

Tavinor (2008) defines a video game as “an artefact in a digital visual medium, is intended primarily as an object of entertainment” (para. 2). Digital video-games (DVGs) are a fast developing billion-dollar business that keeps growing every year. In fact, it has been observed that during the past decade there has been an increase in the number of school children playing video-games, especially among teenagers, with over 1,909,447,000 gamers worldwide (Newzoo, 2015, as mentioned in Ebrahimzadeh & Alavi, 2017).

With most of today's video-games coming in English or with English subtitles, it is no wonder that children have learned a considerable number of lexical items. However, this does not mean that all games use the same level of English. There are different types of video-games and some of them use specific terminology related to certain fields. These

fields are a mirror image of the various professions existing in the adult world. “Video-games have come a long way since the first games emerged in the 1970s. Today’s video-games offer photorealistic graphics and simulate reality to a degree which is astonishing in many cases.” (Statista, 2019, para. 1). This observance has led to the contemplation of using digital video-games as an alternative means to the more traditional language teaching tools. Moreover, Cole & Vanderplank (2016) state that “Informal language learning instruments such as DVGs and movies have been found to result in higher learning outcomes compared to classroom practice” (As mentioned in Ebrahimzadeh & Alavi, 2017). For that, a study came to investigate how video-games can be used as a tool in ESP teaching.

In conclusion, this study focuses on how video-games are an entertaining and instructive tool that could facilitate EFL learners’ attainment of new specific vocabulary; more specifically examining the influence of military/action video-games on Military English learning.

1. Statement of the Problem

From our personal experience, as the child of a former ME teacher, we observed that officers at the Algerian Military Institute of Foreign Languages and Translation (IMLET—Institute Militaire des Langues Étrangères et de Traduction.) are being taught ME in a traditional setting. Namely through the use of textbooks, such as *Campaign Military English*. This led to the speculation that these learners often feel demotivated and bored with the current teaching system. In order to support this speculation, a preliminary study was conducted with the purpose of gathering accurate information about the current teaching environment at IMLET. Both a semi-structured questionnaire and interviews were used to collect data from teachers and officer learners.

The data analysis showed that ME classes are held within a traditional classroom setting. Learners are required to attend five hours, a day, of instruction, writing, reading

and audio-visual materials from time to time. Out of 37 questionnaire respondents, 38.9% of them rated their level of classroom enjoyment as “Good”, while 48.6% reported that they “sometimes” feel bored in class. Furthermore, when asked to describe their ME class in four words, the majority of respondents chose positive words; whereas, others used words, such as “fatiguing, hard and competitive.” Moreover, the questionnaire showed that 93.7% of respondents are, in fact, interested in learning Military English, yet demotivated due to different factors, such as the teaching methods and the quality of teaching materials (Refer to chapter three for further descriptive statistics).

All in all, a possible solution for this problem is to implement a motivating, and entertaining tool to enhance the process of teaching ME at IMLET. As it happens, action video-games are suitable for this problem, for they provide a variety of features that make the learning process more simulating and enriching.

2. Aims of the Study

The general aim of this study is to investigate the practicality of action video-games as an alternative instructional tool for traditional Military English teaching. More specifically, this study aims at:

- Examining the consequence of video-games on vocabulary learning.
- Exploring the difficulties faced with video-games as learning tools.
- Investigating learners’ perspectives towards playing video-games.

3. Research Questions

Through our work, we try to answer the following questions:

RQ1: Will the use of action video-games, as an instruction tool, improve officer learners’ ME vocabulary?

RQ2: What kind of difficulties might officer learners face when playing action video-games?

RQ3: What are the officer learners' attitudes towards playing instead of traditional learning?

4. Research Hypotheses

In accordance, we hypothesize inductively from the research questions above that:

The null hypothesis (H0) states that integrating action video-games into ME classes will not have a significant impact on officer learners' vocabulary learning. They might, in reality, produce undesirable results in terms of frustrating/boring play sessions that do not make any difference from the traditional classroom practices.

The alternate hypothesis, (H1) states that if action video-games were included within ME classes as an instructional tool, they will lead to a positive implicit learning of the used jargon and terminology.

5. Research Methodology

5.1 Research Method

Because the intention of this study is an application of action video-games in ME learning as well as investigating learner's perspectives towards these games, the research methodology is quasi-experimental in nature with a mixed methods approach. This is due to the preselection of the participants and the absence of random selection.

5.2 Sample of the Study

5.2.1 Preliminary Study

This study includes the learner's population at IMLET, and ME teachers.

5.2.2 Quasi-Experimental Study

This study includes one set of participants: 13 Officers at IMLET.

The small number of participants is related to the small number of officer learners in one class, ranging from 10 to 15 learners. These participants were pre-selected by the

administration following certain criteria provided by the researcher. Officers having been graded with an A2 or B1 level (based on IMLET's testing standards) in GE (General English) were strongly encouraged to be selected. Additionally, based on the preliminary study results, participants were required to have little to no ME background. And were also required to have no prior experience with the chosen game (*Call of Duty: Modern Warfare 4*). Last but not least, even though the participants' selection was through the administration, their participation was with their consent.

5.3 Data Collection Tools

Due to the study's nature of a mixed methods approach, a triangulation method which includes a mixture of quantitative instruments and qualitative methods is used.

5.3.1 Preliminary Study

Data collection in the preliminary study was conducted through interviews (Appendix E, F, G) and semi-structured questionnaires (Appendix C, D) that aimed at collecting data about learner's present situation at IMLET. Questionnaires were administered to both IMLET officers and teachers, while interviews were conducted with teachers only.

5.3.2 Quasi-Experimental Study

Data collection in the quasi-experimental study is conducted in two parts: The first part is an empirical setting, where a quasi-experiment that relies on the one group pretest/posttest design is conducted. A pretest (Appendix K, L) is applied before the treatment (the action video game *Call of Duty 4: Modern Warfare*) to assess the participants' prior knowledge of ME, while a posttest (Appendix M, N) is applied after the treatment to assess their achievement. As for the second part, a focus group discussion (Appendix P, Q), in which participants are asked about their attitudes and opinions towards the used method, takes place after the posttest.

5.4 Structure of the Thesis

Besides a general introduction and a general conclusion, this thesis is divided into three chapters. Chapter one provides an overview of CALL (Computed Assisted Language Learning) and DGBL (Digital Game-Based Learning). In addition to an overview of video-games and their use in language learning. Chapter two is devoted to Military English as part of ESP, and to the analysis and review of Military English related books. As for chapter three, it is dedicated to the field work and application of the quasi-experiment. It details the research methodology, analyses the collected data, and states the research findings.

CHAPTER ONE:
VIDEO-GAMES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING
AND TEACHING

Introduction

The gist of this chapter turns around the underpinnings that shaped and guided this research. First the chapter introduces the different fields of Computer Assisted Language Learning and Digital Game-Based Learning. It provides their definitions, their related benefits, and their limitations. Then, it identifies the distinct differences between these two fields. Next, it introduces the industry of video-games. It provides a brief overview of its history, and a description of video game culture. Moreover, it gives an account of the relationship between video-games and language learning and teaching. Finally, this chapter ends with a mention of the impact of video-games on other different skills.

1.1. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

1.1.1. Defining CALL

Beatty (2003, p.7, as mentioned in Eskelinen, 2012) broadly defines CALL as "any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language" (p.4). CALL is an interdisciplinary field that draws on SLA, Educational Psychology, instructional design, computational linguistics, Artificial Intelligence (AI), and Human Computer Interaction (HCI) (Ward, 2002). It involves the use of specifically designed computer programs in the language learning process. These programs can either function as a tool or a tutor.

1.1.1.1. CALL as a Tutor

Merriam-Webster's dictionary defines a tutor as "a person charged with the instruction and guidance of another." This usually refers to any teacher in a traditional teaching environment; however, nowadays certain computer programs are being used as tutors instead of human teachers. The role of a tutor is not limited to instruction only, but also to provide assessment and evaluation. Ward (2002) paraphrases Neri, et al.'s (2001)

claim by saying that “It is generally agreed that the provision of (almost) immediate feedback is beneficial for the learner” (p. 40). With computer programs’ feedback and assessment, learners are able to correct their mistakes and learn better. Because, with the touch of a button a computer program is able to give timely, accurate, and appropriate feedback to each individual learner; whereas, a human teacher is unable to do so (Ward, 2002).

1.1.1.2. CALL as a Tool

Generally speaking, Merriam-Webster’s dictionary defines a tool as “something (such as an instrument or apparatus) used in performing an operation or necessary in the practice of a vocation or profession.” In the language teaching field tools usually include teaching aids, such as cards, charts, pictures, videos, songs, etc.; teaching materials, such as textbooks, white boards, work sheets, etc.; teaching methods, such as the direct method, silent method, audio-visual methods, etc.; and teaching activities, such as storytelling, role play, debates, dialogues, etc. As a tool, CALL programs are considered as teaching aids. They are specifically designed to assist teachers in their courses. Generally, they do not provide instructions nor feedback, and the teacher is in charge of planning how and when to use them. An example of this would be the use of electronic dictionaries (Ward, 2002).

1.1.2. Benefits of CALL

In the following, we highlight a few benefits of CALL that Ward (2002) presents in her thesis.

Non-Traditional Features

Ward (2002) reports Felix’s (1999) statement by saying that “CALL programs should not just imitate what happens in a traditional classroom situation but enhance the learning process by doing things that are only possible with the use of the computer” (p.41). With today’s technology, CALL programs offer an integration of sound and videos. Thus,

they create a dynamic dimension and a recreation of context. All in all, today's CALL programs have helped avoid the boredom associated with traditional classrooms.

Motivation

When learning a foreign language, learners seek opportunities to engage in the target language and its environment; however, this is not always feasible. Today's CALL programs provide authentic materials and context, in addition to non-traditional features. Language learners are usually intrigued by this, and interested to use them. To sum up, CALL increases learners' levels of motivation by providing foreign language context.

Learner Autonomy

CALL programs allow learners to work at their own pace. Learners are able to repeat and spend as much time as they want on topics which they find to be difficult. They are in control of the learning process and thus feel more satisfaction towards it. All in all, learners assume the responsibility of their learning.

Access to Information

With CALL programs, learners are in control of the information they learn; whereas, in traditional classrooms, they do not have the freedom to do so. To illustrate, a learner feeling overcharged cannot leave the classroom until the end of the course. By forcing him to stay, it is possible that the overcharged learner does not pay attention, and misses the topic being taught. However, with a CALL program, a user is able to leave whenever he feels overloaded, and return whenever he wishes. Moreover, upon his return, the learner can simply continue from where he last stopped. Ergo, with CALL programs users have more control over the amount of information they bear during a lesson.

Privacy

Many learners do not participate in traditional classrooms because they are shy. They fear making mistakes and being ridiculed in front of their peers. Because of that, they

miss the chance to interact with others and practice their language. CALL programs are helpful because they offer a private environment to self-conscious learners. They offer forums where learners can learn without being shy and fearing exposure. In sum, CALL programs offer self-conscious learners the opportunity to learn within sheltered and protected confines.

1.1.3. Limitations of CALL

Ward (2002) also presents limitations of CALL in her thesis. We mention a few of them as follows:

Limited Availability of Resources

CALL is a relatively young field with limited resources. These resources include the time and money for developing CALL materials, in addition to finances to purchase computers. Teachers often have only one available computer in a classroom, and have trouble managing it with groups. Moreover, some CALL programs require certain resources, such as microphones, headphones, and internet access, which aren't always available. All in all, CALL programs are useful, yet they require certain amounts of funding.

Anti-Social Behavior

In some cases, CALL program users, especially self-conscious ones, may get engrossed in the program and focus on learning the language in isolation. Pennington (1996, as mentioned in Ward, 2002) claims that CALL programs may promote anti-social behavior. Being able to communicate with others is the main reason behind learning a language; however, learners cannot achieve that if they behave anti-socially. Also, it is worth noting that computers are able to teach learners, yet they cannot force them to speak with others. To sum up, CALL programs help with language learning, but they do not establish human communication.

Underutilization of Resources

CALL programs offer a whole variety of features to make learning more interesting. However, users are often unaware of these features, and do not make full use of the program. Still, in some cases, users are aware of them, yet incapable of using them due to their lack of skill. All in all, CALL programs are unbeneficial if their users do not utilize them fully.

1.1.4. Video-Games and CALL

As mentioned in its definition, CALL involves the use of specifically designed computer programs in the language learning process. The development of a specific CALL program is difficult, and requires the efforts of a whole team. As Ward (2002) explains,

CALL development is challenging and difficult. In an ideal situation, a CALL program will be developed by a team of experts. There will be linguists, language specialists, teachers and software engineers. Each person will bring his/her own expertise to the process to ensure that the final product does what it is meant to do (p. 44).

Most schools and language teachers are unable to use specifically designed CALL programs because they are often expensive and time-consuming. Thus, they opt for the next best thing, that is, commercially designed CALL programs which include video-games. Some commercial video-games are specifically designed for language learning; whereas, others are just for entertainment. However, some of these entertainment video-games provide long hours of speech which can be considered as language input, such as the one used in this study. Eskelinen (2012) mentions that multiplayer video-games which allow gamers to communicate with others from around the world is considered as a specific form of CALL. This form of CALL is known as Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC). Beatty (2003, as mentioned in Eskelinen, 2012) explains CMC as a computer-based

discussion that does not necessarily involve learning. It offers a learning opportunity, such as learners and native speakers finding common understanding; however, learners are not necessarily obliged to learn from it. In conclusion, commercial video-games are considered a part of CALL known as CMC; however, successful language learning using CMC is not guaranteed.

1.2. Digital Game-Based Learning (DBGL)

1.2.1. Defining DBGL

Coffey (2009) best defines DBGL as “an instructional method that incorporates educational content or learning principles into video-games with the goal of engaging learners” (p. 1). In other words, it is a field that uses digital games in the education and training of different knowledge and skills. Teachers choose from a selection of games, such as adventure, action, sports and strategy and apply them in their classes. While choosing, they take into consideration their students’ age, gender, characteristics, competitiveness and previous gaming experience (Coffey, 2009).

1.2.2. Benefits of DGBL

According to Deuble (2006, as mentioned in Coffey, 2009), DGBL engages and motivates students. Also, it provides practical experiences and promotes long term memory. Additionally, games, such as role-playing, simulation, and adventure help develop a set of skills and not just one skill. Moreover, DGBL partakes in the development of vocabulary skills and the enhancement of mental quickness.

Also, according to Griffiths (2002, as mentioned in Coffey, 2009), video-games serve as a great tool for conducting educational research. Additionally, they are diverse and manage to attract learners coming from various demographic backgrounds. Moreover, they provide helpful feedback and help learners set and work towards accomplishing goals. Furthermore, their interactive nature stimulates learners and encourages them to seek new

information. Last but not least, video-games can help learners develop computer skills that they need in a society that continues to develop technologically.

1.2.3. Limitations of DGBL

Coffey (2009) cites that the goals of video-games are not always similar to the learning goals of the classroom. Also, she mentions that video-games are a distraction to learners. Moreover, Griffiths (2002, as mentioned in Coffey, 2009) states that educational researchers have difficulty evaluating the educational impact of some games because they are constantly being upgrade. Finally, Coffey (2009) mentions that teachers must take into account the availability of technology within school in order for them to be able to use DGBL. Otherwise, learners might not have equal access to the gaming experience.

1.3. CALL vs. DGBL

There are a few differences between CALL and DGBL that can be distinguished from the previous sections in this chapter. First, CALL includes a variation of computer software, from electronic dictionaries and emails to forums and games; whereas, DGBL is limited to digital or video-games only. Second, the games used in CALL are most of the time specifically designed, while in DGBL commercial games are most commonly chosen by teachers and used. Last but not least, CALL is concerned with teaching one skill which is language; in contrast, DGBL is concerned with different knowledge and skills. To conclude, no matter their differences, both CALL and DGBL aim at helping learners on their learning journey.

1.4 Video-Games as a Cultural Phenomenon

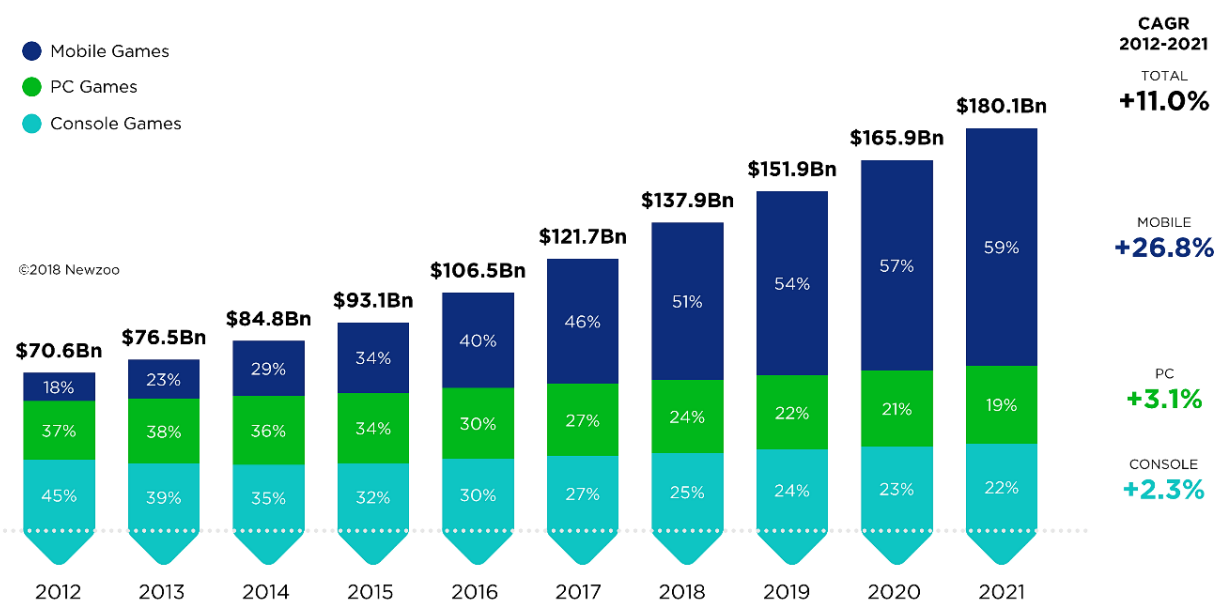
Games have been an entertainment tool for humans for centuries. It first begun with board games and then progressed to today's video-games which are rapidly developing. During the last decades their industry has increased to surpass other forms of entertainment.

In fact, on April 26th, 2019 the premiere of the movie *the Avengers: Endgame* generated \$357,115,007 during its first three days. Leading it to become the best opening box office of any movie up to date, followed by *the Avengers: Infinity War* on April 27th, 2018, with earnings of \$257,698,183 (All Time Box Office: Top Opening Grosses by Days in Release, 2019). Whereas, on the parallel universe of video-games, the game *Grand Theft Auto V* became the highest-grossing entertainment release in the history of mankind after its release on September 17th, 2013. In just three days, the game earned more than \$1 billion (Silva, 2018). Additionally, according to the leading global provider of games and esports analytics Newzoo (2018, as mentioned in Wijman, 2018), the global games market revenue is expected to reach \$180.1 billion by the year of 2021, as represented in the graph below.



2012-2021 GLOBAL GAMES MARKET

REVENUES PER SEGMENT 2012-2021 WITH COMPOUND ANNUAL GROWTH RATES



Graph 2: 2012-2021 Global Games Market Revenues

Not only did video-games overwhelm both the music and movie industry on the global market, but they have also managed to influence them. Video-games have gone so

far as to the creation of a new subculture known as “video-game culture” that shapes today’s society in different ways.

1.4.1. A Brief History of Video-Games

Games have long existed in different shapes and forms, such as riddles, puzzles, board games, and even sports. As a matter of fact, one of the oldest games in the world is the Egyptian board game *Senet* which dates all the way back to 3100 BC (Senet: One of the world’s oldest board games , 2012). Moreover, other games that can be traced back to ancient times are ones, such as backgammon, chess, dominoes, cards and, the Chinese game *Go*. However, games as we know them today i.e. video-games first started in the 1970’s.

November 29th, 1972 marks the beginning of the modern video-games industry with the release of the electronic game ‘*Pong*.’ A simple two-dimensional graphical representation of a tennis-like game constructed by Al Alcorn, an engineer working for Nolan Bushnell and Ted Dabney founders of the *Atari Corporation*. The game was a training exercise assigned to Alcorn, who had no prior experience with vide-games. It was initially installed in an arcade cabinet in *Andy Capp’s Tavern* (a local bar in Sunnyvale, California) to test its marketability. After a few days of its installment, the machine started having technical problems: the coin machine was jammed. As it turned out, the game was so popular that it was literally too full of money (Barton & Loguidice, n.d.).

Pong was not the first video game ever made; however, it was the first commercially successful one. Instead, *Computer Space* was the first video game ever made, released in 1971 by a company named *Nutting Associates*. It was created by the same gaming entrepreneurs and founders of *Atari*, Bushnell and Dabney. This game came with the concept of creating a machine specifically designed for a game (instead of programming a game for an existing hardware). And with that they invented the first commercial arcade video game (Barton & Loguidice, n.d.).

The development of video-games continued to progress with the advancement of technology, all the way to the creation of VR (Virtual Reality) video-games. Where in 1991 *The Virtuality Group* launched a range of VR arcade games and machines. Players would wear a set of VR goggles and play on gaming machines with real-time (less than 50ms latency) immersive stereoscopic 3D visuals. Some units were also networked together for a multi-player gaming experience (A look at the history of virtual reality and VR gaming, 2017).

To sum up, video-games have gone from one original game to a total of 2.5 billion video-games worldwide as of the year 2016 (The European Mobile Game Market, 2016, as mentioned in 2019 Video Game Industry Statistics: Trends & Data, 2019). They have come a long way since their creation, and they continue to evolve still. Each passing year more of them are released greater, better, and much more entertaining.

1.4.2. Video Game Culture

The exponentially increased public acceptance and popularity of video-games as a form of entertainment has led to the emergence of a culture known as “Video Game Culture.” As Fisher (2010, as mentioned in *The Impact of Video-Games on Culture*, 2016) states, “Video-games, once viewed as a mindless source of entertainment, are now being featured in publications such as *The New Yorker* magazine and *The New York Times*” (para. 20). Today, video game culture is expressed through video game parties, communities, conventions, e-sports, video game streaming, and even a World Video Game Hall of Fame.

First, with the availability of LAN (Local Area Network) gaming and online gaming, video-games can be played in various social ways. To begin with, LAN gaming is when a LAN connection is established between different computers using a router, for the purpose of playing multiplayer video-games together. Video game players i.e. “gamers”

usually throw LAN parties which are social gatherings that involve friends, family and in some cases total strangers. GameTree website (2018) mentions that,

Level Skip points to a joint survey by Pew Research Center and the MacArthur Foundation on the cooperative nature of console games. Two-thirds of the young gamers they surveyed said that they play video-games as a way to socialize with friends and family face-to-face, including the opportunity to discuss game strategies for either competitive or cooperative play – ultimately a way to improve young people’s conversation skills (para. 2).

As a matter of fact, one of the largest LAN parties was QuakeCon 2002 where around 1300 gamers plugged their own computers into a network to play (Rouse, 2005). Also, with the vast spread of the internet nowadays, gamers have opted to playing online instead of throwing parties. This has led to the emergence of what is known as “Gaming Communities” where gamers are not physically located at the same place, but they can still socialize together. Gamers not only play but they also communicate and share experiences together.

Another aspect of video game culture is annual gaming conventions that are held around the world. Game conventions are events in which gamers are brought together to participate in different types of activities. Most of these activities include tournaments and prizes. Additionally, in large conventions such as E3 (Electronic Entertainment Expo) and PAX (Penny Arcade Expo), producers and game developers can be found exhibiting their latest creations, and promoting future releases and trends of the industry.

Moreover, the tournaments held at game conventions are very professional and competitive to the point of becoming known as e-sports. E-sports often feature a live online broadcast of the competition and sizeable cash prizes for successful competitors. In fact,

the highest awarded prize was a \$25.5 million prize for the *Dota 2* International Tournament in 2018 (Hayward, 2018). Furthermore, professional video game players are now being considered as professional athletes. As O'Neill (2013) mentions in Väisänen (2014), "In fact, the USA has begun to grant foreign professional video game players the same P-1A visas as traditional athletes" (p. 5).

Other than actively playing video-games, gamers also enjoy watching others play through video game streaming. Video streaming is a method of transmitting videos over a computer network, usually through websites such as YouTube. As for video game streaming, it is the sharing of video game related videos. In fact, some of the most popular YouTube channels today are primarily video game related. For example, the Swedish gamer PewDiePie's YouTube channel ranks as second in the world with 96 million subscribers.

Last but not least, video game culture even has a monument which is the World Video Game Hall of Fame. As Keogh (2016) says, "The existence of a World Video Game Hall of Fame suggests a sort of new cultural legitimacy to the video game form, a shifting sense that these digital works matter enough to be remembered" (para. 4). The hall of fame first opened on June 4th, 2015 and is located in The National Museum of Play's eGameRevolution exhibit in New York. Video-games are displayed there based on certain criteria. Keogh (2016) mentions that one of the criteria a video game must meet for consideration in the World Video Game Hall of Fame is to have: "Exerted significant influence on the design and development of other games, on other forms of entertainment, or on popular culture and society in general." (para. 5).

To conclude, video-games have gone from being a derivative entertainment medium that inspired from other media, such as books, music and movies to becoming a new media other types now derive from. Not only have they successfully managed to

establish their own culture, but they were also able to interact and influence older forms of entertainment.

1.4.2.1. Language of Video-Games

As with any other culture, video game communities managed to develop a distinctive set of slang terms and phrases. These terms were not only used to communicate during games, but also outside of games on chatting forums and face to face communication. More importantly, due to the tremendous popularity of video-games, these slang terms overlapped heavily with internet slang, and thus became known to the general public. Such as the word “LOL,” meaning “Laughing Out Loud” which stemmed from the gaming community, yet is commonly used with non-gamers (Shaw, 2010).

The mixture of gaming language with internet language led to the emergence of a very rich gamer’s jargon. There are terms to describe game genres, gaming events, game demographics, strategies, situations and more (Shaw, 2010). Here are a few examples of some gaming terms.

- **AFK:** Meaning “Away From Keyboard,” used to refer to people who are not at the computer or paying attention.
- **GL HF:** Meaning “Good Luck, Have Fun,” often said at the beginning of a match to show good sportsmanship.
- **GG WP:** Meaning, “Good Game, Well Played,” said at the end of a game to congratulate an opponent, whether they won or lost.
- **Scrub:** A player who does not have the proper skills, but believes that he/she is the best player in the world, or better than expected during the game.
- **Leeroy Jenkins:** A nickname for any player that decides to act like Rambo on the battlefield, acting rashly without taking into consideration the concept of caution.

While most gaming terms are abbreviations, for convenience in communication during game play, it is commonly encouraged to use neologisms i.e. new coined terms that are mostly used for cyberbullying. One example of these neologisms is the term “noob” which is derived from the word “newbie,” which is a derogatory term for a new or unskillful player.

The words exemplified above are the results of the creativity and communication of a whole gaming community; however, some terms and expressions come from certain games, such as *The Elder Scrolls V: Skyrim*. *The Elder Scrolls V: Skyrim* is an action role-playing video game whose creators invented a new language, spoken by dragons within the game. The language is known as *Dovazhul* “Dragon-Voice, the Dragon language or Dragonish,” and consists of 34 symbols, a unique grammar, unique pronunciation, and unique word construction. Its script is similar in appearance to cuneiform, the written language of ancient Mesopotamia, while its grammar is similar to English (Dragon Language, n.d.).

Many players of *The Elder Scrolls V: Skyrim* were able to attain this ‘Dragon language,’ and were able to communicate with it both orally and in writing. From a language learning perspective, we notice that what happened with these players could have been an application of Krashen’s input hypothesis. Krashen’s (1985) input hypothesis claims that individuals acquire a second language by understanding language input just beyond their current level of competence. His idea of understandable input is explained with the formula of $i + 1$, where i stands for the learner’s (in this case player’s) current level of competence, and $i + 1$ stands for the level after it. Thus, a learner of level i progresses by understanding the language of level $i + 1$ (Krashen, 1985). Such as the case with *The Elder Scrolls V: Skyrim* players who were exposed to a sizeable amount of a foreign language

during long periods of play. They were exposed to audio recordings, in-game dialogue translations, and transcriptions. This eventually led to them attaining the Dragon language.

All in all, video game communities not only managed to create their own distinctive language, but they also managed to learn others. For that, we can deduce that video-games are a rich source of language input because of their entertaining stories, which lead to longer hours of language input that could result in positive results when applied conveniently.

1.5. Video-Games in Language Learning and Teaching

Reinders (2012) states that research concerning game-based language learning and teaching is still relatively novel (as mentioned in Väisänen, 2014). This indicates that the benefits of video-games as language tools are not yet accessible. However, despite the lack of evidence, researchers like Gee (2003, 2007) believe that video-games have potential as language learning/teaching tools because they utilize good principles of learning (as mentioned in Väisänen, 2014). Few studies, whose findings report a correlation between video-games and language learning, support Gee's belief.

To begin with, statistics conducted by Wastiau, Kearney, and Van denBerghe (2009) show that among eight European countries (without including Finland) the use of games in teaching is mostly used in first and foreign language teaching with a percentage of 25% (as mentioned in Eskelinen, 2012). As for Finland, a study conducted by Uuskoski (2011) concluded that Finnish high school students who spend more hours a week playing video-games obtain higher English grades than those who spend less time playing (as mentioned in Väisänen, 2014).

Next, Ashraf et al. (2014) view vocabulary acquisition as the core of language learning. They believe that video-games can be effective in vocabulary training because nowadays the use of ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) for children is as natural as breathing (as mentioned in Klimova & Kacet, 2017). In 2009, a case study

was conducted by Wastiau, Kearney and Van den Berghe. It was implemented on 12-year-old Austrian children who played a video game in German first, and then played it again in English during their English lessons. The results showed that these children gained new vocabulary (as mentioned in Eskelinen, 2012). Furthermore, a study done by Saarenkunnas (2006) focused on the informal language learning of a 10-year-old boy. In this case study, the collaboration and communication of many players within the video game, mainly the negotiation of vocabulary, proved to be a great resource for learning (as mentioned in Eskelinen, 2012).

Furthermore, Ang and Zaphiris (2008, as mentioned in Klimova & Kacet, 2017) believe that computer aided language learning technologies might help entertain and motivate learners. They also add that computer games “In future, however, they may be designed as virtual learning environment in which learners may be able to congregate and engage in communication, thus learning from each other in a social context” (Klimova & Kacet, 2017, p. 20). Additionally, Aghlara and Tamjid (2011) deduced on their study that children who learn vocabulary through digital games are more motivated than those who learn it through traditional classrooms. They also mention the existence of a relationship between digital games and language learning at a young age. Moreover, they investigated the role of video game in second language acquisition and learning, and conclude that games have positive effects on the learning process. (as mentioned in Klimova & Kacet, 2017).

Moreover, A study across different European countries by Connolly, Stansfield, and Hainey (2011) evaluated the effects of an alternate reality game on secondary school students’ motivation for learning modern foreign languages. 328 students participated and their results showed that the game raised students’ motivation. It also offered opportunities for engagement with peers from different language backgrounds across different countries.

The study concluded that gaming helps motivate students for second language learning and can be used as a means to move beyond the constraints of traditional classrooms (as mentioned in Ebrahimzadeh & Alavi, 2017).

Last but not least, Reinhardt and Sykes (2012) state that language learning through digital video-games is divided into two forms, game-based and game-enhanced. Game-based language learning is concerned with using educational games that focus on the direct representation of educational materials. Whereas, game-enhanced language learning consists of using commercial games in educational settings (as mentioned in Ebrahimzadeh & Alavi, 2017). The choice of the selected commercial game is important, for it must be a game where language plays a role in achieving the ultimate goal of the game. Thus, while enjoying playing the game gamers would be involved with language processing as well.

To conclude, the few existing research studies have shown that video-games can be beneficial in the language learning/ teaching process. They motivate students and help with vocabulary acquisition, in addition to aiding them with foreign language learning.

1.6. Video-Games in Learning Other Knowledge and Skills

Albeit commercial video-games being initially designed for entertainment, they are also capable of teaching countless skills, such as the following:

Gaming skills

Well-designed video-games teach players certain skills that are essential for playing (Eskelinen, 2012). For example, at the beginning of a game, players usually go through a tutorial which shows them the basics of how to play. Such as the controls needed (press F1 to go to menu), the common actions needed (clicking and dragging the mouse in order to jump), or the symbols used in the game (red dot marks the target).

Sensorimotor Skills

Cognitive researcher Daphne Bavelier's laboratory studies have shown that gamers have better visual skills than the average person. They are able to resolve small details in clutter, and are able to resolve different levels of grey (Bavelier, 2012). Additionally, A study conducted by researchers from the university of Rochester, New York concluded that gamers between the ages of 18 and 23 could keep visual track of many objects at a time, and were also faster at finding objects in cluttered environments (Sohn, 2004). Moreover, video game players have faster reflexes and better hand-eye coordination. As Blank (2010) explains, "Action video game players' brains are more efficient collectors of visual and auditory information, and therefore arrive at the necessary threshold of information they need to make a decision much faster than non-gamers," (para. 12).

Cognitive Skills

Challenging video-games have the ability to grasp their players' attention for hours at a time. Sohn (2004) states that "It usually takes 50 to 60 hours of intense concentration to finish one" (para. 6). This attention grasping ability can be useful in different ways. Education professor at the University of Wisconsin, James Gee notes that "Kids diagnosed with ADHD because they can't pay attention will play games for 9 straight hours on the computer...The game focuses attention in a way that school doesn't" (para. 7). Moreover, Bavelier (2012) conducted brain imaging on video gamers and found that certain brain regions in individuals who play action video-games are better than those of regular individuals. These areas are: the parietal cortex which is known to control the orientation of attention, the frontal lobe, which controls how we sustain attention, and the anterior cingulate, which controls how we allocate and regulate attention and resolve conflict.

Information Technology (IT) Skills

The majority of gamers spend countless hours playing a video game on a computer. At the beginning they learn the simple functions of a computer, yet with time their kills

improve and they delve deeper into computer functions. As Sohn (2004) mentions “Kids who play computer games often end up knowing more about computers than their parents do.” Professor James Gee had the opportunity to observe many young gamers that became computer science majors in university (Sohn, 2004).

Other Skills

Video game content sometimes inspires new interests. Sohn (2004) mentions “After playing a game called *Age of Mythology*, Gee says, kids (like his 8-year-old son) often start checking out mythology books from the library or join Internet chat groups about mythological characters” (para. 11). Additionally, video-games, such as the *Assassin's Creed* franchise are often filled with accurate historical facts through which gamers gain knowledge. Through them, history comes alive to players participating in the game.

All in all, commercial video-games might be designed for the purpose of entertainment, yet they have a number of ingredients that prove to be useful for brain plasticity, learning, attention, vision, etc.

1.6.1. Video-Games and the Military

The US military has been using video-games in its regiment since years after World War II. Since the 1960s until the 1990s the US armed forces were the primary financiers, sponsors and inventors of specific technology used in video-games. They have used video-games for a broad array of purposes with three major aims: to recruit soldiers, to train them, and, lately, to treat psychological disorders (Shaban, 2013).

First, video-games help motivate players to join to the military. Well-designed army video-games offer its player a realistic experience that is action packed, thrilling, and exciting. In some cases, gamers are in awe of these games and make life changing decisions to join the military based on a game that they enjoyed very much. Hawking, (2016) notes that, “The popular first-person shooter *Call of Duty* may well double as an army

recruitment tool” (para. 11). All in all, Video-games not only inspire new interests in gamers, but can also motivate them to choose new paths.

Second, the US military uses video-games to train its soldiers. Commercial gaming technology helps conjure tailor-made battle environments for soldiers, and provides a virtual reality-based training. Moreover, the army uses certain games, such as the 1993 game *Doom* which shows the potential for 3-D piloting that can help train soldier to pilot drones. Also, the game *Virtual Battlespace 2* enables the construction of specific frontline scenarios— IED (Improvised explosive device) explosions, ambushes, medical evacuations— to train entire companies of soldiers (Shaban, 2013).

Last but not least, video-games are used to treat soldiers’ psychological disorders, such as Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD).

Simulators such as *Virtual Afghanistan* use head-mounted displays to create “immersive, interactive environments.” With the help of clinicians in controlled settings, soldiers are able to confront traumatic memories in a process called exposure therapy. By recalling distressing episodes from their past, soldiers learn to habituate themselves to those fearful experiences (Shaban, 2013, para. 9).

Additionally, role playing enables soldiers to control different characters (military spouse, social worker, soldier with PTSD). This allows them to gain perspective and self-reflection. To sum up, these games have shown positive results in helping cure mental illness.

In conclusion, video-games have been used by the U.S army for years and have proved to be beneficial. This shows that video-games are a flexible tool that can be applied in teaching in any field.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter was an attempt to review the use of technology in EFL learning. More precisely, the use of video-games in language learning and teaching. It defined the different fields of CALL and DGBL as technology-based methods for language learning. Moreover, it compared between the two, and tackled their various benefits and limitations. Additionally, it defined video-games as a tool used in both these field. Furthermore, in order to inform the reader about this tool, it provided a historical background concerning video-games as well as a description of video-games culture and their use in language learning and teaching.

CHAPTER TWO:
MILITARY ENGLISH AS A BRANCH OF
ESP

Introduction

This chapter addresses the notion of Military English as a part of ESP. It is composed of two main sections: General Overview of English for Specific Purposes and General Overview of Military Language. The first section introduces the field of ESP. It provides its definition and recounts its history briefly. It also describes its characteristics and mentions the role vocabulary plays in this field. As for the second section, it introduces the field of Military Language. First it gives a proper definition of what the military actually is. Then it defines military language in general and states its characteristics. After that it delves deeper in Military Language and precises Military English. It defines it and refers to the literature used to learn about this specific language.

2.1. General Overview of English for Specific Purposes

2.1.1. Defining ESP

ESP is a diverse discipline whose definitions vary based on the linguists who define it. These varied definitions cover various characteristics of this approach (Sifakis, 2003 cf. Rogers, 1989; Rogers, 1996, as mentioned in Javid, 2013). Tomlinson (2014) defines English for Specific Purposes as “An umbrella term that refers to the teaching of English to students who are learning the language for a particular work or study-related reason” (p. 306). It covers a wide range of fields, such as medicine, law, business, engineering, history, art and design; as a matter of fact, it mainly covers any area of contemporary academic or professional life in which English is needed (Tomlinson, 2014). Furthermore, it is a learner centred approach concerned with teaching specific, topic related, vocabulary and terminology to learners, according to their wants and needs (Basturkmen, 2010, as mentioned in Meddour, 2014). Moreover, Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991) mention that ESP “implies meticulous research undertaken to produce pedagogically suitable materials

and exercises for mostly adult learners defined in a specific context” (As mentioned in Ting, 2010, p. 3).

ESP comprises of two main areas: English for Occupational Purpose (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). EOP is concerned with allowing learners to use English in a particular job or profession, while EAP provides learners with the appropriate language skills for pursuing a tertiary-level course taught in English, and/or presenting, researching, and publishing in academic settings (Tomlinson, 2014).

In sum, ESP is a learner (mainly adult learners) centered approach concerned with designing and applying specific courses, based on learners’ wants and needs, to teach English in a particular field.

2.1.2. A Brief History of ESP

This chapter does not allow for a detailed history of ESP, thus only some of its main developments are mentioned. For a more detailed summary we recommend Hutchinson and Waters (1987), and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) who provide detailed accounts of ESP history. With that said, we report a brief account of how ESP first started.

After World War II, the world was dominated by two forces: technology and business. For various reasons, mostly the power and influence of the United States, the primary language for both fields was English. Until the 1960s, there had been no real efforts to design language courses for specific learning objectives; however, after the war, international exchanges in technology and business became increasingly important, with English as the *lingua franca*. Because of that, and due to the wishes of learners who were learning the language for professional or academic purposes, it became apparent that there was a need for English courses that were designed to satisfy real-world demands as efficiently as possible. This tendency was accelerated in the 1970s by the considerable investment in English language programs in oil-producing countries. (Phillipson, 1992;

Pennycook, 1994, as mentioned in Tomlinson, 2014). That development was “reflected in an increasing number of publications, conferences and journals dedicated to ESP discussions” (Tratnik, 2008, as mentioned in Javid, 2013). From that time on, ESP has grown to become one of the most prominent areas of ELT (English Language Teaching).

2.1.3. ESP Characteristics

Stevens' (1988, as mentioned in Javid, 2013) definition of ESP makes a distinction between four absolute and two variable characteristics of ESP:

I. Absolute Characteristics:

ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

- Designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- Related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- Centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse;
- Contrasts General English.

II. Variable characteristics:

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

- Restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- Taught according to any pre-ordained methodology (Gatehouse, 2001 cf. Stevens, 1998, pp. 1-2, as mentioned in Javid, 2013).

Additionally, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, pp. 4-5, as mentioned in Javid, 2013) present a modified definition of ESP which is also comprised of absolute and variable characteristics that are as follows:

I. Absolute Characteristics

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;

- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
- ESP is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

II. Variable Characteristics

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
- Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners”.

2.1.4. The Role of Vocabulary in ESP Teaching and Learning

In terms of teaching vocabulary in ESP contexts, it is important to make a distinction between two categories of vocabulary: technical and semi-technical. Because, they are of great importance to learners studying ESP. Dudley-Evans and St Jon (1998, as mentioned in Brooks, 2014) define the two categories as:

- a. Vocabulary that is used in general language but has a higher frequency of occurrence in specific and technical descriptions and discussions i.e. semi-technical vocabulary.
- b. Vocabulary that has specialized and restricted meanings in certain disciplines and which may vary in meaning across disciplines i.e. technical vocabulary.

Brooks (2014) provides the following pharmaceutical text as an example to illustrate the difference between the above-mentioned vocabularies.

We report a double blind, placebo controlled, crossover trial of an angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor, enalapril, in patients with chronic fluid overload receiving dialysis. We used a crossover study and carried out procedures within the study according to the standard of ethics committee of this hospital, Each patient was given either enalapril or placebo in the first period of treatment and the alternative treatment in the second period; the order in which treatment was given was randomized, 13 patients receiving enalapril and 12 placebos first. Randomization was carried out by suppliers of the drug (Ferguson, 2002, a mentioned in Brooks, 2014, p. 157).

From the provided text above, we note that the technical vocabulary items used are as follows: angiotensin, enzyme, inhibitor, enalapril, chronic, dialysis, and placebo. As for the semi-technical vocabulary they are: report, double blind, control, crossover, trial, convert, fluid, overload, receive, study, carry out, procedure, standard period treatment, randomize, randomization, supplier and drug.

Furthermore, potential ESP teachers usually give priority to semi-technical vocabulary. Because, according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, as mentioned in Brooks, 2014) this type of vocabulary is used in general life contexts but also has a higher frequency of occurrence in scientific and technical descriptions and discussions. Moreover, when teaching technical vocabulary, most learners who are in specific scientific fields have no problem with technical words; whereas, a language teacher may in fact, have great difficulty with them (Stevens, 1973, as mentioned in Brooks, 2014). Because of that, teachers with no technical expertise sometimes consider whether to integrate or skip these words depending on the needs and aims of the learners; however, under certain

circumstances, and as the only qualified instructor, it may be the duty of an ESP teacher to do research first then teach the technical vocabulary (Brooks, 2014).

All in all, vocabulary plays an essential role in ESP. It is categorized into sections and given priority during sessions.

2.2. General Overview of Military Language

2.2.1. Defining the Military

A military, also known as armed forces, is a heavily-armed, highly-organized specialized group that was mainly established for warfare. It is officially authorized and maintained by a state or government. Its members are identifiable by their distinct military uniform which not only designates them as military, but also indicates their appointed military branch. The military consists of one or more military branches such as an Army, Navy, Air Force, and in some countries, Marines and Coast Guard. The main task of the military is usually defined as defending the state and its interests against external armed threats. Other than that, the military may be employed in additional functions within the state, including internal security threats, population control, the promotion of a political agenda, emergency services and reconstruction (Military, 2019).

2.2.1.1. The Algerian Military

The Algerian Military, also known as *The Algerian People's National Armed Forces* is the armed forces of the *People's Democratic Republic of Algeria*. It is the direct successor of the *Armée de Libération Nationale* (ALN), the armed wing of the nationalist National Liberation Front, which fought the French colonial rule during the Algerian War of Independence (1954-1962). It consists of ground forces, Air Force, Navy and the Algerian Territorial Air Defense Forces. The Algerian Military exists to counter foreign and domestic threats; however, except for clashes with Morocco in 1963 and 1976, the

armed forces have not been involved in hostilities against a foreign power. Their combat capabilities in defense of the country has thus remained untested, yet the Algerian military is arguably recognized to be among one of the most professional and well-trained militaries in both Africa and the Arab world, (Algerian People's National Armed Forces, 2019).

2.2.2. Military Language (Soldier Talk)

“Anyone who has ever served in either the armed forces or military organization of any country will recognize that “soldier talk” is a language in its own right” (Okongor, 2015, p. 656). As a specialized group the military has its own language. Armed forces from different countries have different military registers; however, they all share universal characteristics of military communication. As Okongor (2015) said, “The universal language of the universal soldiers is obscene, crude and raw. The soldiers’ talk varies from one country to another” (p.656).

2.2.2.1. Characteristics of Military Language

Military language has unique linguistic features and characteristics that distinguish it from other occupational registers. It is characterized by the use of signals, which are used as the primary medium for effective communication. Additionally, its functionality demands the use of particular linguistic terms, such as the use of acronyms, abbreviations, euphemisms, and slang. Furthermore, the way in which a message flows within the military hierarchy is dictated by the tone of the message, which is formal. It must be clear and brief. It also depends on who is sending the signal and to whom. For example, if it is from a high-ranking officer to a lower ranking officer, then it must be polite and frank, giving the most detailed information, and inferring that final decision is with the superior officer. It should be noted that whatever is the direction of the hierarchy, a signal message is characterized in two ways: (a) it is detailed and often conscious of rank and position. (b) It is brief and

precise, often making adequate use of former mentioned coded expressions, abbreviations and symbols. Last but not least, in military language there is high degree of care, especially in the use of 1st and 2nd person singular pronouns. This is done in order to avoid personal responsibility for actions taken in the course of performing formal functions.

2.2.3. Military English

A lexico-semantic analysis of military language conducted by Okongor (2015) reported that ME is comparatively distinct from other varieties of English. Most Military English terms are taken from GE and used in this specific field to mean more than they ordinarily do. For example, the word “ground” usually refers to the solid surface of the earth i.e. land, but in ME it is an area of operation i.e. the battlefield (Okongor, 2015). Another example would be the word “bird,” in ordinary usage it is “Any of a class (Aves) of warm-blooded vertebrates distinguished by having the body more or less completely covered with feathers and the forelimbs modified as wings.” (Merriam Webster’s Dictionary). Whereas, in the military, “bird” refers to an aircraft. Furthermore, ME has a unique style. It includes the use of abbreviations and acronyms that have technical meanings (mostly regarding weaponry). This makes it very difficult for a person who is outside the context to understand the meaning of such words. To illustrate, the acronym “NEST” does not refer to an actual bird nest, it refers to a “Nuclear Emergency Support Team”. Last but not least, ME has a unique way of word combinations, that derive from other words, which have new meaning. For example, the imperative phrase “stand down” does not give the order for a strange standing position, it gives the order to retreat from a state of readiness i.e. to relax. All in all, ME has a register specified for particular functions.

2.2.3.1. Military English Literature

2.2.3.1.1. Campaign Military English

Campaign Military English is a course specifically designed, by Simon Mellor Clark and Yvonne Baker de Altamirano, to meet the English language needs of military personnel on international operations peacekeeping, humanitarian assistance and training exercises. It is a three-level course suitable for students ranging from beginners to advanced learners. It consists of a teacher's book, three student books with included audio recordings in the form of CD's, and three grammar practice books. The whole set is served with multiple illustrations and real military texts from armed forces of different countries.

Campaign Military English targets the four language skills, and encourages teachers to start every course with a needs analysis. In fact, it not only takes into consideration the learners' specific needs, but also their ranks, military branches, experience, and specializations. Additionally, *Campaign Military English* levels are designed based on the NATO STANAG 6001 scale. A STANAG (STANdardization AGREement) is an international military standard, created by NATO to regulate how armed forces from different countries operate. STANAG 6001 is a language proficiency scale designed to allow comparisons of language ability in different countries. Based on this, *Campaign Military English* is divided into three levels (King, Walden, Klark, & Altamirano, 2004).

First, *Campaign 1* is suitable for students beginning from a low elementary to low limited working level (on the STANAG 6001 scale). It is composed of 14 units, each based around a topic. Topics range from *Military echnology* to *sports and fitness* to *peacekeeping*. Additionally, there are topics and texts from a variety of international context, including the USA, the UK, NATO and the UN. Moreover, each unit contains seven sections that represent lessons of between fifty to sixty minutes long. Second, *Campaign 2* is suitable

for students beginning from a low limited working level to a low minimum professional (on the STANAG 6001 scale). It is composed of 12 units based on topics, such as *parachute regiment*, *operation orders*, and *United Nations police*. As for *Campaign 3*, it is suitable for learner beginning from a low minimum professional level to a full professional (on the STANAG 6001 scale). Like *Campaign 2*, it is also composed of 12 units whose topics range from *humanitarian assistance* to *special air service* to *multinational coalition*. Last but not least, the Grammar Practice book provides consolidation materials for self-study. The units are extensions of the units in above mentioned books, providing further practice of the grammar point and key vocabulary (King, Walden, Klark, & Altamirano, 2004).

Since its release, *Campaign* has proven to be an effective course for teaching ME, the following are a few reviews and testimonials from satisfied teachers and students who used it.

John Whitehead (Head of English Language Teaching at the British Council),

“Campaign is making a major impact on the British Council’s Peacekeeping English program, which enables international peacekeepers to communicate more effectively with each other in trouble spots across the globe. By helping them to keep the peace Campaign is helping to save lives and is a worthy ELTON winner” (Campaign Reviews, n.d.).

The British Council Innovations Awards 2005 (Judge’s comment),

“Hugely impressed by this entry, particularly the exemplary Teacher's Book, which is an excellent guide to the specifics of the military, and elements of professional behavior (good teaching habits) which should be on all teacher training courses. Very well-designed Student's Books that

welcomes the learner in, and allows the learner space to learn” (Campaign Reviews, n.d.).

English Speaking Union (ESU) judge, “An excellent example of ESP / functional language teaching at its best, and for a very important contribution to peacekeeping” (Campaign Reviews, n.d.).

Paul Woods (Peacekeeping English Project Manager for the British Council),

“Campaign is an ideal course for all military personnel who need to learn English for international cooperation and will be a valuable resource for the British Council’s Peacekeeping English Project in Central and Eastern Europe. Its unique advantage is that it uses a communicative approach in a military context” (Campaign Reviews, n.d.).

Miriam Tavcar, Solvenia,

“I am more than pleased that I have finally found suitable material for teaching English in the course of defense studies. So far, such materials have been rather scarce therefore I welcome any material I can get. The Campaign News Digest is the best for at least three reasons: the texts are short, up to date and professional, there is a student worksheet and teacher's notes and (most importantly) the material is photocopiable” (Campaign Reviews, n.d.).

2.2.3.1.2. NATO Glossary of Acronyms and Abbreviations

In the previous section 2.2.1 (Characteristics of Military Language) we mentioned that the military uses acronyms and abbreviations. This is primarily due to their effectiveness in communication. Not only do they save precious time by conveying short

precise communication (which could mean the life or death of soldiers in battlefields), but they also help with memorization as Holst (2015) states, “For example, would you be more likely to remember National Space and Aeronautics Administration or NASA?” (para. 4).

Because of international diplomatic relations, it was evident that an effective shared universal language was needed in order to communicate clearly. Thus, came the NATO Glossary of Acronyms and Abbreviations which is a book that contains a list of terms used in civil and military international diplomatic communication, and NATO publications. Moreover, due to the continuous developments in diplomacy, the NATO Glossary of Acronyms and Abbreviations continues to be updated, and new edited versions are released yearly.

Included within the NATO Glossary of Acronyms and Abbreviations is The NATO phonetic alphabet.

2.2.3.1.2.1. NATO Phonetic Alphabet

The NATO phonetic alphabet, also known as the International Radiotelephony Spelling Alphabet (IRSA), is a universal word database used in military communication, aviation communication, and radio transmissions. It was first created to avoid miscommunication on radio transmissions. Because, in the old days, the quality of transmission was not always great, especially further away from the source of transmission. Nowadays, the development in technology has enabled the distances from the transmitter to increase greatly, yet the IRSA is still being used by the military because of the noises during communication (guns firing, bombs exploding, soldiers shouting, etc.) (Prokes, n.d.).

This alphabet consists of 26 code words that incorporate sounds common to English, French and Spanish. These words were chosen based on extensive testing, as they ensure mutual illegibility between speakers from different linguistic backgrounds. Each of

these words represents a different letter in the alphabet. These words are: **Alfa**, **Bravo**, **Charlie**, **Delta**, **Echo**, **Foxtrot**, **Golf**, **Hotel**, **India**, **Julieta**, **Kilo**, **Lima**, **Mike**, **November**, **Oscar**, **Papa**, **Quebec**, **Romeo**, **Sierra**, **Tango**, **Uniform**, **Victor**, **Whiskey**, **X-ray**, **Yankee**, and **Zulu** (The NATO Phonetic Alphabet: What It Is and How to Use It).

The concept behind the NATO alphabet is simple, we replace each letter of a word with a code word, from the alphabet, that starts with the same letter. For example, a soldier trying to communicate his location on the radio would use a phrase, such as Bravo-India-Sierra-Kilo-Romeo-Alfa. Following the IRSA we can see that the used phrase simply means “Biskra.”

In conclusion, since its creation the NATO phonetic alphabet has proved to be an effective way to communicate efficiently through radio communication.

Conclusion

The current chapter focused on Military English as a branch of ESP. It defined ESP from different views and gave a brief recount of its history starting from the 1960s. It also described its characteristics and mentioned the importance of vocabulary in ESP learning and teaching. Furthermore, it gave an overview of Military Language and focused mainly on Military English. It described its efficiency and its characteristics. It also mentioned some of the literature related to Military English, such as the NATO Glossary of Acronyms and Abbreviations, and explained how certain terminology is used.

CHAPTER THREE:

FIELD WORK AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The current study aims at investigating the practicality of action video-games as an alternative instruction tool for traditional Military English teaching; intrinsically, the present chapter demonstrates the field work and the analysis of the collected data. Initially, it reports a preliminary study conducted for the purpose of gaining insight on ME teaching methods, and a quasi-experimental study conducted for implementing action video-games as a tool for teaching ME. It attempts to describe in detail each of these two studies. It mentions the rationale of each data collection method and the adopted approach used to conduct this study. It includes the description of each data collection method, data analysis and the interpretation of the results in addition to the statistical procedures. In the end, this chapter provides a careful discussion of the findings in order to answer the research questions, and to test the hypotheses suggested in the general introduction.

3.1 Phase One: Preliminary Study

This phase aimed at gathering information regarding the current educational situation at IMLET. It was conducted on November 7th and 8th of 2018.

3.1.1. Rationale

As mentioned in the general introduction, a preliminary study was first conducted at the beginning of this research. This initial phase was conducted in order to give a transparent view about the methods used for teaching ME at IMLET. Moreover, it was conducted to gather reliable and concrete information that supports the researcher's initial speculations concerning the educational environment at the institute. In short, this phase helped pave the way to a better understanding of the problem at hand.

3.1.2. Analysis and interpretation of Gathered Data

3.1.2.1. Officers' Questionnaire

Due to time limitation and a sizeable number of officers, the chosen data collection tool is in the form of a questionnaire. As Dörnyei (2007) mentions, "The popularity of questionnaires is due to the fact that they are relatively easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processible" (pp.101-102). The purpose of this questionnaire was to investigate the officer's perceptions and attitudes towards the methods and tools currently used for teaching ME at IMLET. It also tackled their backgrounds and motivation for studying ME besides the troubles and difficulties they face in the classroom.

3.1.2.1.1. Structure and Content

The officer's questionnaire in the preliminary study consists of three parts and was designed in English. Section one contains six questions seeking participants' background information. It consists of both closed-ended and semi-structured factual questions. The aim was to gather data concerning officer's personal experience with ME. Section two also consists of six questions. Like in its previous section, they are a combination of closed-ended and open-ended attitudinal questions in addition to a five-point rating scale (from deficient to excellent). The gist of this section was to gather officers' experiences and level of satisfaction concerning the currently used teaching methodology of ME, and the troubles they face while learning it. As for section three, it also consists of six questions. A combination of closed-ended and semi-structured questions targeting the current used methodology of teaching ME (see Appendix C).

3.1.2.1.2. Respondents to the Officers' Questionnaire

The used questionnaire here is what Dörnyei (2003) calls as the *Self-Administered Pencil-and-Paper* questionnaire. This questionnaire is a type of questionnaire which respondents fill out by themselves. There was a total of forty copies of the questionnaire

distributed among five classes. Only thirty-seven copies of the questionnaire were handed back, representing a response rate of 92.5%. At this preliminary phase of the research, the respondents were chosen from the whole population of officer learners at IMLET which was estimated to be around 50 learners (5 classes with a number ranging between 10 to 15 learners per class). This means that the selected sample included any officer without regards to his level of GE. In doing so, the researcher aimed at extending his sample and collecting a considerable amount of information. In sum, the total number of answered questionnaire copies were all handed back in time.

3.1.2.1.3. Data Collection Procedure for the Officers' Questionnaire

Only one procedure was followed for this questionnaire, which is distributing the questionnaire to the officers during their on-going sessions. Since this procedure comprised a disturbance of classes, it was only possible with the help of the Colonel in charge of the institute who personally supervised it.

3.1.2.1.4. Results of the Questionnaire

Background Information:

1. Age Distribution

Table 1.1: Officers' Age Distribution

Response	20-25	25-30	Over 30
Participants	11	12	12
Valid Percentage	31.4%	34.3%	34.3%

The table above depicts the age distribution among the responding IMLET officers. It is worth mentioning that the statistical representation is through a valid percentage. A valid percentage is based solely on the number of those who responded to the question, and not the entire number of respondents. In this case there are two missing responses. Thus, the statistical analysis was conducted on 35 respondents instead of the total number of 37. With that in mind, we notice that there is an almost equal age group distribution among the

respondents. With the 20 to 25 age group being slightly less than the other age groups. This might have an effect on the upcoming quasi-experimental, for older age groups might be less willing to participate.

2. Military Branch

Table 1.2: Officers' Military Branches

Response	Army	Air Force	Navy	Other
Participants	07	05	07	14
Valid Percentage	21.2%	15.2%	21.2%	42.2%

This question was asked in order to identify the major military branches among the respondents. The knowledge gathered from it determined which game the researcher should use later on. With the exclusion of 04 missing responses, the majority of respondents (42.2%) reported that they belong to other military branches. These branches are ones such as: National Gendarmerie, Special Forces, Signal Corps and many others.

3. Military Rank

Table 1.3: Officers' Military Ranks

Response	Lieutenant	Captain	Major	Colonel
Participants	18	12	05	01
Valid Percentage	50%	33.3%	13.9%	2.8%

This question was asked in order to identify the level of job experience among the respondents. The information gathered from it influenced the construction of the pretest. With the exclusion of one missing response, half of the respondents (50%) reported ranking as a Lieutenant. This showed that the majority of respondents are not well professionally highly ranked, thus the pretest should be at a beginner's level.

4. Months Studying Military English

Table 1.4: Officers' Months Studying ME

Response	0	2	4	5	7	12	18	24	36	60	72	96	108
Participants	07	20	01	01	01	08	02	04	04	01	01	01	01
Valid Percentage	20.6%	5.9%	2.9%	2.9%	2.9%	23.5%	5.9%	11.8%	11.8%	2.9%	2.9%	2.9%	2.9%

This question was also asked in order to determine the construction of the pretest. It was asked in months instead of years, because of the research's prior knowledge that some respondents recently joined the institute. With the exclusion of 03 missing responses, the results indicated that the number of months studying ME ranged from 0 to 108 months i.e. 09 years. Only one respondent mentioned studying it for 09 years, while the majority (23.5% of respondents) mentioned 12 months i.e. one year. And 07 respondents (20.6%) mentioned not having studied ME at all. Due to their ME background, the majority of respondents (23.5%) might score well in the up-coming quasi-experimental study pretest. Thus, the researcher should include within the quasi-experimental predetermined participants' criteria that they have little to no ME background.

5. Months Studying General English

Table 1.5: Officers' Months Studying GE

Response	0	2	12	24	36	48	60	72	84	96	108	120	300
Participants	01	01	07	03	03	04	03	01	02	01	02	02	01
Valid Percentage	3.2%	3.2%	22.6%	9.7%	9.7%	12.9%	9.7%	3.2%	6.5%	3.2%	6.5%	6.5%	3.2%

The time spent studying GE plays an important role, for it serves as a base for ME. The table above indicates that the number of months studying GE ranges from 0 to 300 months i.e. 25 years. With the exclusion of 06 missing responses, the majority of respondents (22.6%) reported studying GE for 12 months i.e. one year. Additionally, many others (71.1%) reported studying GE for more than a year. In fact, one respondent reported

having studied it for 25 years. Only a slight minority of just 02 participants reported not having studied GE at all or having studied it for just 02 months. Based on these results, participants who studied GE for more than a year might score higher than those who studied it for a lesser period. Because, they already equipped with the level of English needed to follow the instructions of the quasi-experimental treatment.

6. Stationing in an English-Speaking Country

Table 1.6: Officers' Stationing in an English-Speaking Country

Response	Yes	No
Participants	03	29
Valid Percentage	9.4%	90.6%

With the exclusion of 05 missing responses, 90.6% of the respondents were not stationed in an English-speaking country; whereas, only 9.4% of the respondents reported having been stationed in an English-speaking country for the durations of: 06 months, 01 year, and 02 years. Their stationing might have had a developing impact on their level of GE and ME; whereas, the rest of the respondents depend solely on their Algerian EFL schooling.

Question Item 1: Are you interested in learning Military English?

Table 1.7: Interest in Learning ME

Response	Yes	No
Participants	36	1
Valid Percentage	97.3%	2.7%

97.3% of the respondents reported being interested in learning ME, while only 2.7% reported not being interested. This shows that even though learning ME is a part of their line of duty, and not their personal choice, respondents betray a significant interest towards learning ME.

Question Item 2: How useful is Military English in your field?**Table 1.8: Military English Usefulness**

Response	Not Useful	Fairly Useful	Useful	Very Useful
Participants	00	06	29	02
Valid Percentage	0.0%	16.2%	78.4%	5.4%

The majority of respondents (78.4%) report ME as being “**Useful**” in their field. This information is not surprising since the primary cause of their learning is due to their needs and obligations of their field of work. However, a small number of 16.2% of respondents report ME as being “**Fairly Useful.**” This could be due to the fact that ME is not a necessity in every Military branch but merely an extra precaution.

Question Item 3: Which best four words describe your current Military English class?

This question was asked as a way of giving respondents the freedom to describe their ME class using their own words, and understating their perception towards it. The descriptions are divided into two categories: Positive descriptions and negative descriptions. For the positive descriptions, respondents used words such as: *Exciting, interesting, good, worth the hassle, and fun.* Whereas in the negative descriptions they used words such as: *Fatiguing, hard, tiring, and sometimes boring.*

Question Item 4: According to the next scale, rate the level of the current classroom experiences.

1	2	3	4	5
Deficient	Acceptable	Good	Very Good	Excellent

Classroom Experiences	1	2	3	4	5
Overall score of classroom activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Level of enjoyment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Level of satisfaction towards instructor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Level of satisfaction towards quality of teaching aids	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Level of satisfaction towards quality of teaching methods	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Table 1.9: Level of Satisfaction Towards the Overall Score of Classroom Activities

Response	Deficient	Acceptable	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Participants	05	08	13	09	02
Valid Percentage	13.5%	21.6%	35.1%	24.3%	5.4%

Table 1.10: Level of Satisfaction Towards Classroom Enjoyment

Response	Deficient	Acceptable	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Participants	03	07	14	09	03
Valid Percentage	8.3%	19.4%	38.9%	25%	8.3%

Table 1.11: Level of Satisfaction Towards the Instructor

Response	Deficient	Acceptable	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Participants	01	13	11	10	02
Valid Percentage	2.7%	35.1%	29.7%	27%	5.4%

Table 1.12: Level of Satisfaction Towards the Quality of Teaching Aids

Response	Deficient	Acceptable	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Participants	03	08	12	08	05
Valid Percentage	8.3%	22.2%	33.3%	22.2%	13.9%

Table 1.13: Level of Satisfaction Towards the Quality of Teaching Methods

Response	Deficient	Acceptable	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Participants	03	05	16	06	07
Valid Percentage	8.1%	13.5%	43.2%	16.2%	18.9%

Tables 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13 respectively report respondents' rating of the level of current classroom experiences, such as the overall score of classroom activities, the level of enjoyment, the level of satisfaction towards the instructor's practises, the level of satisfaction towards the quality of teaching aids, and the level of satisfaction towards the quality of teaching methods.

Therefore, when grouped together, they resulted in the following:

- The majority of respondents (35.1%) reported their level of satisfaction towards the overall score of classroom activities as “**Good.**” Whereas, a percentage of 13.5% reported it as being “**Deficient**” which is more than the 5.4% that said it was “**Excellent.**”
- With the exclusion of one missing response, 14 respondents rated their level of enjoyment as “**Good,**” while the two opposite extremities of “**Deficient**” and “**Excellent**” were only chosen by a total of 03 respondents each.
- 35.1% of respondents mentioned that their level of satisfaction towards their instructor is “**Acceptable,**” while 29.7% mentioned it as being “**Good.**”
- With the exclusion of one missing response, 12 respondents rated their level of satisfaction towards the quality of teaching aids as “**Good.**” Whereas, the ratings of “**Acceptable**” and “**Very Good**” tallied with 08 respondents each.
- Most of the respondents (43.2%) reported their level of satisfaction towards the quality of teaching methods as “**Good,**” while 18.9% said it was “**Excellent.**”

In general, respondents’ current classroom experiences were mostly rated as “**Good**”; whereas, a minority rated them as “**Deficient**” or “**Acceptable.**” This shows that while there is a majority of respondents that enjoyed their classes, others did not. And it is that minority that is targeted in this study.

Question Item 5: What are some of the troubles you have in the classroom?

Table 1.14: Troubles Faced in the Classroom

Response	Confusion	Distractions	Difficult Topics	Lack of motivation	Other
Participants	06	09	05	02	25
Valid Percentage	16.2%	24.3%	13.5%	5.4%	67.6%

The table above represents some troubles respondents face within the classroom. Respondents were allowed to choose more than one answer, and each was analyzed

individually in relation to the entire number of respondents (37). As shown above, 24.3% of respondents mentioned having distractions as one of the difficulties in the classroom. Additionally, 67.6% of respondents mentioned having other difficulties, such as: The loss of concentration, difficulty expressing ideas, confusion while listening, difficulty understanding questions, dissatisfaction with the used material, and self-doubt. Moreover, 10 respondents mentioned having absolutely no troubles in the classroom. Those facing different troubles in the classroom might be motivated to try different methods to improve their learning. Thus, they may be willing to participate in the quasi-experimental study.

Question Item 6: How often do you feel bored in class?

Table 1.15: Frequency of Boredom in the Classroom

Response	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Participants	03	06	18	08	02
Valid Percentage	8.1%	16.2%	48.6%	21.6%	5.4%

The majority of respondents (48.6%) reported that they “**Sometimes**” feel bored in class; whereas, only 5.4% of them reported having never been bored in class. When asked to mention some of the reasons for their boredom, some of their responses were as follows: ‘*When I don’t understand what the teacher is saying (topic)*’, ‘*when the teacher is boring*’, and ‘*when I don’t understand some words*’.

Question Item 7: How often do you use textbooks?

Table 1.16: Frequency of Textbook Usage

Response	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Participants	13	07	13	00	04
Valid Percentage	35.1%	18.9%	35.1%	00%	10.8%

An identical percentage of 35.1% of respondents reported that they “**Sometimes**” and “**Usually**” use textbooks, while 10.8% reported that they “**Never**” use textbooks. This could be attributed to personal preferences and learning methods or could have a relation

with respondents' uninterest in the taught topic. Not to mention that IMLET provides the participants with a set of textbooks from *Campaign Military English*. These textbooks include a grammar workbook which participants use as homework.

Question Item 8: How often does your teacher use teaching aids?

Table 1.17: Frequency of Teaching Aids Usage

Response	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Participants	04	05	17	08	02
Valid Percentage	11.1%	13.9%	47.2%	22.2%	5.6%

With the exclusion of one missing response, the majority of respondents (47.2%) said that their teacher “**Sometimes**” uses teaching aids; whereas, a small percentage of 5.6% said that their teacher never uses them. This could be related to teachers having different teaching methods as well as to the provided teaching program (*Campaign*) which includes a set of CDs that contain authentic audio recordings.

Question Item 9: Which is your preferred teaching aid?

Table 1.18: Officers' Preferred Teaching Aid

Response	Participants	Valid
Audio aids (taped records, language laboratory)	04	11.4%
Visual aids (board, pictures)	14	40%
Audio- visuals (video tapes, computer)	14	40%
Other	03	8.6

With the exclusion of two missing responses, 14 respondents reported that their preferred teaching aid is visual aids. The same thing can also be noted about audio- visuals. Additionally, audio aids were only chosen by 04 respondents, while 03 respondents reported having other preferred teaching aids which they did not mention. This can be attributed to participants' different preferences and learning styles.

Question Item 10: How often are you given memorization tasks?**Table 1.19: Frequency of Memorization Tasks**

Response	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Participants	03	10	11	12	01
Valid Percentage	8.1%	27%	29.7%	32.4%	2.7%

32.4% of respondents reported “**Rarely**” having memorization tasks, and 2.7% reported “**Never**” having them. However, 29.7% of respondents reported that they are “**Sometimes**” given memorization tasks. This rebuttal can be attributed to the dissimilarity between teachers and their different teaching approaches.

Question Item 11: Are you given vocabulary exercises, such as matching words or filling blanks?**Table 1.20: The Use of Vocabulary Exercises**

Response	Yes	No
Participants	20	17
Valid Percentage	54.1%	45.9%

54.1% say yes, while 45.9% say no. This again can be related to teachers and their different preferences; however, the majority choose to give their students vocabulary exercises as a way to learn new words. This might be due to the different objectives of learning which are predetermined by the IMLET administration

Question Item 12: Do you believe that the current Military English lessons can be improved?

- If yes, please suggest a way or two to improve them.

Table 1.21: Possibility of Improving ME Lessons

Response	Yes	No
Participants	34	03
Valid Percentage	91.9%	8.1%

A high number of respondents (91.9%) believe that their current ME lessons can be improved through diverse ways that they mention as follows: Discussions, group work, homework with colleagues, field trips, movies with subtitles, playing games, and intense English programs.

3.1.2.1.5. Discussion of the Results

The major findings of this part of the study, obtained through a questionnaire, have provided an insightful view about the current ME teaching methods from a learner's perspective.

First, the officer population at IMLET is a heterogenous population in terms of military branches and age. There are no dominant military branches, but a mixture of many different ones. Thus, when choosing the action video game for the quasi-experiment the researcher needs to take this heterogeneity into account and choose a diverse game that includes a variety of military branches.

Second, half of the officers have a Lieutenant rank. This means that they have little experience within the military. Thus, the quasi-experiment game should be at a beginner's level due to the officers' lack of knowledge of the military and possibly ME.

Moreover, the majority of officers mentioned that they had studied GE for a year. This tells us that they have a base in GE, and thus are able to follow the video-games' instruction; meaning, an instructional video game can be applied. Also, a high number mentioned having studied ME for two or less than two months. Because of that, It is preferred that the quasi-experiment sample be chosen from these participants in order to effectively examine the influence of action video-games on ME learning.

Last but not least, 97.3% of the officers are interested in learning ME and find it useful. They find their overall classroom activities to be rather good; however, they face some difficulties and sometimes feel bored in class. Also, they believe that their current ME lessons can be improved. Hence, they are open to try new methods to improve their learning.

All in all, the results of this part of the study have both rejected and confirmed the researcher's initial speculations concerning the learning environment at IMLET, and defined the quasi-experimental treatment. Contrary to the researcher's belief, IMLET officers are motivated to study ME; however, they do, in fact, sometimes feel bored. Moreover, based on these results, the quasi-experiment treatment i.e. video-game needs to be at a beginner's level and include various military branches.

3.1.2.2. Teachers' Questionnaire

The purpose of the teachers' questionnaire is to explore the methodology through which the teaching/learning process of ME within IMLET is carried out. Also, it investigates the teachers' backgrounds and their level in ME. It is also worth mentioning that because of the unavailability of teachers for the one to one interviews, this questionnaire was designed as a backup data collection tool.

3.1.2.2.1. Structure and Content

The teachers' questionnaire in the preliminary study is consists of only two parts and was designed in English. Its gist was to gather data concerning the current teaching methods of ME. Section one is concerned with teachers' background information, and consists of four questions. They are a mixture of open-ended, closed-ended, and semi-structured factual questions. Section two consists of fifteen questions. Similar to its previous section, it also consists of open-ended, closed-ended and semi-structured

questions. Its purpose is to gather information about the current teaching techniques and tools of ME (see Appendix D).

3.1.2.2.2. Respondents to the Teachers' Questionnaire

A total of fifteen copies of the questionnaire were distributed to IMLET teachers. Five were handed hand to hand by the researcher, while others were given to the administration to be distributed. The number of available teachers was undisclosed by the administration, and only three questionnaire copies were handed back. Representing a response rate of only 20%. In sum, the majority of teachers either refused to answer the questionnaire or were unavailable.

3.1.2.2.3. Data Collection Procedures for the Teacher's Questionnaire

To submit the questionnaire for the teachers, two procedures were followed. The first procedure was to hand the teachers' questionnaire simultaneously with the officers' questionnaire during ongoing classes. The second procedure was to give the questionnaire to the administration for them to hand to the teachers when they came in for their daily check in.

3.1.2.2.4. Results of the Questionnaire

Background Information:

1. Social Status

Table 2.1: Teachers' Social Status

Response	Civilian	Military
Participants	03	0
Valid Percentage	100%	0.0%

A social status refers to the role or category a person occupies within a society, such as being a civilian or military personnel. Based on the researcher's prior knowledge, this question was asked for the purpose of defining the respondents' background and their experience with the domain they are teaching. Since there were some previous cases where

officers were used as ME teachers. This gave them an advantage over the other teachers, because they had a firsthand experience with ME. From the table above, we notice that the total number of respondents are civilians. Thus, they have no military background nor training. Their lack of experience might affect their ability to meet the learner's needs i.e. if learners ask specific questions, teachers are unable to relate nor explain properly due to their lack of experience.

2. Educational Qualification:

Table 2.2: Teachers' Educational Qualification

Response	License; B. A	Magister; M. A	Doctorate; Ph.D.
Participants	01	02	00
Valid Percentage	33.3%	66.7%	0.0%

According to the responses depicted in the table above, we observe that respondents hold post graduate degrees. In fact, two of the respondents hold a magister's degree, while one respondent only has a license degree. This of course cannot reflect the respondents' quality of teaching, yet it gives an insight about their academic/educational knowledge.

3. Duration Teaching ME:

Table 2.3: Teachers' Duration Teaching ME

Response	02 months	27 years
Participants	01	01
Valid Percentage	50%	50%

With the exclusion of one missing response, one respondent has been teaching ME for two months, while another has been teaching it for a total of 27 years. This uneven experience might affect their teaching effectiveness.

4. Teaching EFL at University:

Table 2.4: Teachers' Experience Teaching EFL at University

Response	Yes	No
Participants	01	02
Valid Percentage	33.3%	66.7%

This question was asked in order to determine whether the respondents have experience teaching GE at a high-level educational institution. Out of 03 respondents, only one respondent reported having taught EFL at university. The rest of them never had the experience.

Question Item 1: How would you rate your level in Military English?

Table 2.5: Teachers' Level in ME

Response	Acceptable	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Participants	01	01	01	00
Valid Percentage	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%	0.0%

The researcher was unable to obtain a standardized test to measure the ME level of the respondents. Hence, the respondents were asked to rate their level of ME themselves. That said, they reported having an “**Acceptable**”, “**Good**”, and “**Very Good**” level in ME. Yet none of them reported having an “**Excellent**” level. This reflects their lack of expertise in the domain.

Question Item 2: Are you familiar with the domain of ESP?

Table 2.6: Teachers' Familiarity with ESP

Response	Yes	No
Participants	03	00
Valid Percentage	100%	0.0%

All the respondents reported being familiar with the domain of ESP. This means

that even though two of them are inexperienced in higher education teaching, they are aware of the techniques to teach ESP.

Question Item 3: Have you ever conducted a Needs Analysis with your students?

Table 2.7: Needs Analysis Conduction

Response	Yes	No
Participants	02	01
Valid Percentage	66.7%	33.3%

Two respondents confirmed conducting a needs analysis with their students, while one rejected doing so. This could be related to the fact that the administration is the one dividing and organizing the students into groups with an intended motive. In addition to providing a complete ME teaching program (*Campaign*). Thus, the conduction of a needs analysis might be unnecessary.

Question Item 4: What is your preferred teaching method?

- a- The direct method
- b- Audio lingual method
- c- The silent way
- d- Communicative language teaching
- e- Task-based language learning
- f- Other

Table 2.8: Teachers' Preferred Teaching Method

Response	Communicative language teaching
Participants	02
Valid Percentage	100%

With the exclusion of one missing response, all the respondents reported preferring the communicative language teaching method as contrasted to other methods. This shows that they regard interaction as an essential tool in language learning. They focus on

involving their learners in real communication in order for them to learn how to use the language appropriately.

Question Item 5: Do you stay updated with the latest developments in language teaching?

Table 2.9: Updates with Latest Development in Language Teaching

Response	Yes	No
Participants	03	00
Valid Percentage	100%	0.0%

All the respondents mentioned staying updated with the latest developments in language teaching; meaning that they do not rely on their previous knowledge only, but they learn new materials in order to improve their teaching.

Question Item 6: Do you use authentic materials in teaching?

Table 2.10: Authentic Materials Usage

Response	Yes	No
Participants	03	00
Valid Percentage	100%	0.0%

All the respondents reported using authentic materials in teaching. This is mostly because of the provided program (*Campaign Military English*) which is a European imported one, and thus includes authentic materials.

Question Item 7: How do you plan and design your lessons?

- a- Based on students' needs
- b- Based on a textbook/ syllabus

Table 2.11: Lesson Planning and Design

Response	Based on a textbook/ syllabus
Participants	03
Valid Percentage	100%

All the respondents reported designing their lessons based on a syllabus and not on their students' needs, although they previously admitted conducting a needs analysis. This can be due to administration regulations, since teachers are obliged to hand in their lessons in advance and have them approved before applying them in the classroom.

Question Item 8: What are some of the exercises you use in class?

- If other, please mention them.

Table 2.12: Exercises Used in Class

Response	Participants	Valid Percentage
Matching words	03	100%
Fill in the blanks	03	100%
Synonyms and antonyms	02	66.7%
Word formation	03	100%
Dialogue completion	03	100%
Other	02	66.7%

In this question, respondents were allowed to choose more than one exercise. Each exercise was analyzed individually in relation to the total number of respondents. All three respondents mentioned using the majority of exercises, such as matching words, fill in the blanks, word formation, and dialogue completion. Whereas, just two of them use synonyms and antonyms, and other exercises which they did not mention.

Question Item 9: Which of the following activities do you use in class?

- If other, please mention them.

Table 2.13: Activities Used in Class

Response	Participants	Valid Percentage
Presentations	02	66.7%
Pair work	03	100%
Group work	03	100%
Debates	02	66.7%
Discussions	03	100%

Written practice	02	66.7%
Role play	02	66.7%

Because of the difference between an exercise and an activity, this question was asked in addition to question item 08. As professor Jack C. Richards explains: “An exercise is a teaching procedure that involves controlled, guided or open-ended practice of some aspect of language” (Richards, n.d., para.2). Whereas, “The term activity is more general and refers to any kind of purposeful classroom procedure that involves learners doing something that relates to the goals of the course.” (Richards, n.d., para.3).

Each activity was measured individually in relation to the whole number of respondents. A total number of two respondents mentioned using all of the following: Presentations, debates, written practice, and role play. Whereas, a total of three respondents reported using pair work, group work, and discussions.

Question Item 10: What are some of the difficulties you face in class?

When asked if they faced any difficulties in class, all of the respondents said that they faced none. This could reflect the respondents’ ability to competently manage a classroom.

Question Item 11: How often do you follow a textbook?

Table 2.14: Textbook Following

Response	Very Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Participants	02	01	00	00
Valid Percentage	66.7%	33.3%	0.0%	0.0%

From the table above we note that two respondents mentioned using a textbook “**Very Often**,” while another mentioned using it “**Sometimes**.” This shows that even though they design their lessons based on these textbooks, they do not follow them often. It is worth mentioning that before presenting a lesson, the IMLET administration needs to approve them first.

Question Item 12: How often do you use the provided teaching aids?**Table 2.15: Teaching Aids Usage**

Response	Very Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Participants	02	01	00	00
Valid Percentage	66.7%	33.3%	0.0%	0.0%

Respondents “**Very Often**” to “**Sometimes**” use teaching aids. They never “**Rarely**” use them. However, this is insignificant since the number of respondents is too small to give us an actual image.

Question Item 13: What are some of the difficulties your students face with Military English?

Respondents reported that their students have a problem with poor speaking. This can have many meanings. It could mean that, perhaps, they have difficulties communicating using ME, or that they have a problem with articulation. Additionally, they mentioned that their students do a literal translation. This is considered to be insignificant since it has to do more with GE rather than ME.

Question Item 14: What is your opinion about video-games and their use as a teaching tool?

This open question gave respondents the freedom to give their honest opinion towards video-games. One respondent considered video-games as being “interesting,” while another said that they would be “an effective way of teaching if the video game is useful.”

Question Item 15: Would you be willing incorporate video-games into your classroom?

- If no, please mention why.

Table 2.16: Willingness to Incorporate Video-Games

Response	Yes	No
Participants	03	00
Valid Percentage	100%	0.0%

This question's purpose was to see how willing the teachers are in regards to having video-games in their classroom. The knowledge gathered from it gave the researcher a general image about the feasibility of the future quasi-experiment. All respondents said that they would be willing to incorporate video-games into their classroom as a teaching tool or aid.

3.1.2.2.5. Discussion of the Results

The findings of this part of the study, obtained through a questionnaire, are of a very small sample that can be considered as insignificant. However, despite the low number, they have provided an insightful view about the current ME teaching methods from a teacher's perspective.

First, the responding teachers at IMLET come from civilian backgrounds; meaning that they have no prior experience with the military. Thus, it can be deduced that their lack of experience affects their ME teaching quality as opposed to other teachers who are originally officers.

Second, these teachers are aware of ESP and claim to conduct a needs analysis with their students. However, they base their courses on the ME teaching program provided by IMLET. Because of this program, they often follow textbooks and use teaching aids. Moreover, they use a variety of exercises and activities, and prefer to focus on the communicative aspect of language.

Last but not least, Teachers at IMLET are willing to incorporate video-games into their classes as a teaching aid. Thus, the researcher is able to conduct his study with the consent of one of the teachers.

3.1.2.3. Teachers' Interviews

The general purpose of the teachers' interviews in the preliminary study was to investigate the teachers' methodology of teaching. Whether they used certain tools and whether they had any experience in the domain they were teaching. Moreover, these interviews provided the teachers with an opportunity to give their impressions on the content that they were teaching, and to express their opinions regarding the development of their classes. This gave the research a more in-depth insight on the teaching environment at IMLET.

3.1.2.3.1. Structure and Content

These interviews were of a semi-structured form based on Dörnyei's (2007), The semi-structured interview is suitable for cases when the researcher has a good enough overview of the phenomenon or domain in question and is able to develop broad questions about the topic in advance but does not want to use ready-made response categories that would limit the depth and breadth of the respondent's story (p.136).

During the interviews, the researcher referred to an interview guide i.e. a list of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts (see Appendix E). The list of these questions included items that started with 'Wh-questions' and 'auxiliary questions.' In sum, these interviews were open and conversational interviews in which the researcher gave the interviewees the freedom to speak as they wished, and left enough room to generate new questions.

3.1.2.3.2. Respondents to Teachers' Interviews

These interviews were first intended for any available/willing IMLET teacher. However, due to their unavailability, it was conducted with only two teachers. One who was recently retired and another who was recently hired. They were both content to discuss the current situation with the researcher.

3.1.2.3.3. Data Collection Procedures for the Interviews

The interviewees were first informed about the purpose of the interview. Once they both agreed to having their credentials used, they were audio-recorded. The time devoted to one interview was related to the interviewees' free time. After finishing the interviews, the researcher transcribed the audio-texts (see Appendix F and G).

3.1.2.3.4. Results of the Interviews

This section reports findings from interviews with two IMLET teachers in the preliminary study. When first asked about their background, both the interviewed teachers said that they come from civilian background and are inexperienced with the field.

T. 1 recounted her background saying that:

I graduated from Bouzareah's University like 18? 17? Years ago. 2002, 16! Years ago. I worked as a supply teacher at many different places. Middle schools, primary schools, as a teacher of French, teacher of English. And then I worked with many private schools as a side teacher.

While T. 2 told us:

I studied translation at the University, I have a license (B.A).

When asked about how they came to occupy the position that were in, as military teachers, they both gave different responses.

T. 1 informed us that:

Uhh—I'd say fate. Because basically I didn't want to be a teacher... And then here I was working as a supply teacher and there was a teacher who just resigned, and they were in need.

As for T.2, he mentioned that:

I joined this institute in 2016, just new. I've been two years here, ok. So, I had an exam, I had a test and I joined.

In order to gain an insightful image about the educational environment at IMLET. Teachers were asked about the methodology they use to teach ME. If they preferred certain techniques and if they used certain tools.

T. 1 stated that she bases her teaching on communication, mentioning that:

The first thing, I have a good method. First of all, I work with Campaign. The Campaign is a good method, ok, it's a European one, it has three levels. So, I work with all the skills with communication.

She also added that:

I use translation when I'm working with A1 level and they are beginner, I use translation. And I don't use translation when I'm working with A2 level.

As for the tools she uses, she said that:

I use textbooks and the board sometimes, because sometimes they ask me to write a word that they do not know. It is necessary.

Additionally, she mentioned that she uses mimics and that she considers herself an actor in the classroom. As for T. 2 he was direct in saying that:

For me I use the board, I use the TV, I use the projector, aaaand what? Yeah, I try to use all the materials.

He then proceeded to mention his preferred teaching method:

I like interactive method. I like interactive method, yeah. So, my method is based on speaking first, because uhh — I think that if we want to evaluate someone, we evaluate him from his speaking.

Moreover, he explained and illustrated the way he presents a course:

The first thing I make warm up, to warm up. Always, I start my course by warming up students uhh—for example I, we talk what happen now in the world and current events ...I try to touch every domain. [Exemplifies] So, what happened yesterday? Okay. Did you hear...? ...Or I touch a familiar topic. So, familiar with the unit, for example, and I go on.

When asked about the students' (officers') attitudes and interest in the classroom, both teachers said that their students give positive feedback.

T.1 said:

Uhh—it depends. But for my class, ok, they are interested. They say they like me, I do not know, but this is what they say ... they always say, we like Mrs, Delili's class, it's fun.

When asked to elaborate why her classroom is fun, she said that she tells a lot of jokes and that she has a good sense of humor. She also mentioned that they have a European program, and that the students come from conservative social backgrounds. Thus, she has to make them laugh in order to make them feel comfortable and to help share in class.

As for T. 2 he did not elaborate much. He only mentioned that he makes them interested.

An unexpected development in the interview with T. 1 is that she brought up an interesting topic about homework, through which she firmly stated her opposition to it.

T. 1 expressed her resistance in these words:

I'm against homework and I have problem with the boss and the administration (la D.E) because of that ... I tell them the five hours that we spend together every day is enough ... And I'm against homework and I don't think that can help, because I guess homework stops at eighteen ... These classes are not done for homework; they are done for communication I am working with mature people, with family men so I'm against homework.

Her mentioning of five hours also led to the researcher asking if these hours are consecutive to which T. 1 replied that they are from eight a.m. to one p.m.

Moving on to ESP, the researcher wanted to know if the teachers had any knowledge about it, and conducting a needs analysis.

T. 1 said that she had quite the experience with ESP:

I did English for computers, I did English for pilots and controllers, I did Campaign Military English, I did English for electronic students also (electricity and that) so I taught that. I did for medical students. I did it before having a job I used to gather foreign students, Palestinians and Jordanians, who come to study medicine here in Algeria, I gave them classes.

As for T. 2 he was only aware of the meaning of the acronym ESP, and had no knowledge about the domain.

Without having to ask, T. 1 mentioned that she conducts a needs analysis with her students; however, when asking T. 2 he mentioned that he was unaware of what the process is and demanded an explanation. Once the researcher explained what a needs analysis is, T. 2 confirmed doing it with his students.

In sum, what can be retained from the interviewees' responses is that both teachers have more similarities than differences. First, they both come from non-military backgrounds with bachelor's degrees from university. Second, they both make use of the provided teaching aids, such as the board and textbooks. Additionally, even though one of the teachers is unaware of the procedures of ESP, both teachers conduct a needs analysis with their students. Last but not least, both teachers reported that their students are satisfied with their classes. In conclusion, the information provided by these two teachers helped in creating a general image about the IMLET teaching system.

3.1.3. Limitations of the Preliminary Study

This study faced a number of limitations that hindered the progress of the research. The first limitation of this study was the restricted time. There was a very small time period allotted to gathering a large amount of data. Second, many teachers were unavailable or unwilling to be interviewed; however, the researcher suspected this might occur and prepared a questionnaire as a precaution. Finally, distributing the teachers' questionnaire proved to be challenging since the administration was uncooperative. Because of that only three out of fifteen questionnaire copies were gathered which resulted in limited information. All in all, the faced limitations affected the final results of the study. Some data was very limited and thus was considered as insignificant.

3.2. Phase Two: Quasi Experimental Study

This phase was conducted from April 4th to May 2nd, 2019. It was designed for the application of the experimental treatment, and hypothesis testing.

3.2.1. Quasi-Experimental Study

The true experimental research design is the standard for assessing and evaluating the usefulness of an instruction program and the improvements of students' performance. Cook and Campbell (1979) define quasi-experimental research as follows: “The prefix *quasi* means “resembling.” Thus, quasi-experimental research is research that resembles experimental research but is not true experimental research. Although the independent variable is manipulated, participants are not randomly assigned to conditions or orders of conditions” (As mentioned in Price, Jhangiani, & Chiang, Quasi-Experimental Research, 2015). In addition, Dörnyei (2007) states that:

A typical experimental design would be an intervention study which contains at least two groups: the ‘treatment’ or ‘experimental group’, which receive the treatment or which is exposed to some special conditions, and the ‘control’ group, whose role is to provide a baseline for comparisons. From a theoretical perspective, the ultimate challenge is to find a way of making the control group as similar to the treatment group as possible. (p. 116).

Based on the explanations above, and due to fact that the present study explores the effectiveness of video-games in teaching new ME vocabulary which requires an already existing base in GE. It is deduced that a random selection of participants cannot be used. Additionally, because of time constraints and a lack of participants only one group of participants can be selected. Hence, the researcher has opted for a quasi-experimental research design.

3.2.1.1. The One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design

In our current study participants were administratively grouped into one group based on the criteria provided by the researcher, and also on their schedule and free time.

Hence the researcher opted for a “one-group pretest-posttest design” to examine the outcomes that resulted from the use of action video-games as an instructional tool for ME learning. Moreover, the pretest-posttest design consists of a treatment level and a pre- and post- measurement of the dependent variable to determine the difference between means in the pretest and posttest. “In a **pretest-posttest design**, the dependent variable is measured once before the treatment is implemented and once after it is implemented” (Price, Jhangiani, & Chiang, *Quasi-Experimental Research*, 2015, para. 3). Thus, the pretest was administered on the second session right before starting the treatment, while the posttest was administered on the last session. Furthermore, Price et al. (2017) mention that,

“If the average posttest score is better than the average pretest score, then it makes sense to conclude that the treatment might be responsible for the improvement. Unfortunately, one often cannot conclude this with a high degree of certainty because there may be other explanations for why the posttest scores may have changed” (para. 5).

Based on that, an additional data collection tool (Focus Group) was used for the purpose of making relevant inferences, explanations and interpretations of the study results.

3.2.1.1.1. Participants

Following the researcher’s provided criteria to the IMLET administration, the participants were a group of thirteen officers from a pre-selected administration group. They were a heterogenous group in terms of their military branch, yet they all had a B1 level in GE (based on IMLET’s testing standards). Additionally, they had recently joined IMLET and had not undergone the ME courses yet, thus they had no prior ME education. Last but not least, their ages ranged from 20s to 40s.

3.2.1.1.2. Experimental Program Description

At the beginning of the experimental program, the researcher first met with the participants and introduced the research topic. She defined the topic and stated the general aims and methods of the research. After that, the participants were given the opportunity to ask questions, and then a consent form was provided for them to sign their agreement to willingly participate in the study (see Appendix H).

Before starting the treatment, the officers passed the pretest which lasted for one hour and then they proceeded to the game. Because of their lack of experience with video-games and gaming in general, they were given a basic control guide at the beginning of the first session to help them start with the game (see Appendix J). The administration of the treatment occurred in two sessions per week. Each session was one hour and a half long. This led to a total number of three hours per week for one month i.e. a total of 12 hours of game play. During the treatment, the researcher did not instruct the participants, nor did she facilitate their experience. As a matter of fact, the researcher served as an observer only. After the last session of the treatment, the participants passed the posttest which also lasted for one hour.

Lastly, after the posttest a focus group was conducted for the purpose of gathering the opinions and perspectives of the participants regarding their experience during the quasi-experiment.

3.2.1.1.3. The Treatment

The treatment of the study is introduced in the form a commercial action video game which was chosen, among various other action games, because of its free availability and various game modes which are suitable for the heterogenous participant group. The game *Call of Duty 4: Modern Warfare* is a part of the *Call of Duty* series. It is a first-person shooter that was release in 2007. It was the top-selling game worldwide during that year,

selling around seven million copies by January 2008 and almost sixteen million by November 2013 (Call of Duty 4: Modern Warfare, 2019).

The story of the game takes place in the year 2011, where a revolutionary leader has executed the president of an unnamed country in the Middle East, and an ultranationalist movement ignites a civil war in Russia. The conflicts are set in various locales, such as the United Kingdom, the Middle East, Azerbaijan, Russia, and Ukraine (Call of Duty 4: Modern Warfare, 2019). The multiplayer portion of the game features various game modes, and contains a leveling system that allows the player to unlock additional weapons, weapon attachments, and camouflage schemes as they advance.

The player takes on the role of various characters during a single-player campaign. The characters' involvement in the plot occurs simultaneously and overlaps the events in the game. As such, the player's perspective changes from one character to another between missions. Each mission features a series of objectives; the player is led to each objective with the heads-up display, which marks its direction and distance. Some objectives require that the player arrives at a checkpoint, while other objectives require the player to eliminate enemies in a specified location, stand their ground to defend an objective, or plant explosive charges on an enemy installation. After completing the campaign, a special epilogue mission is unlocked for play. The mission itself has no bearing on the campaign plot, and focuses on a SAS (Special Air Service) squad fighting terrorists that have hijacked an airplane and taken a VIP (Very Important Person) hostage.

All in all, this video game not only provides countless hours of entertainment, but also hours of context simulation. It provides a life like virtual environment of real battle situations, in addition to authentic language input through commands and radio communications.

3.2.1.1.4. Test Construction

In order to collect relevant data about the participants' performance before and after the quasi-experimental program treatment, we used a pretest and a posttest. Following Alderson, et al. (1995), "The test may be a means of eliciting linguistics data which is the objective of their study, or it may be intended to provide information on linguistics proficiency for purposes of comparison with some other linguistics variable" (p. 1). Non-parametric tests are used, for they "offer teachers a valuable opportunity for quick, relevant and focused feedback on students' performance" (Cohen e al., 2007, as mentioned in Meddour, 2014, p. 150). Furthermore, these tests fit the requirements of small samples (as in the present case, 13 participants) in very specific situations such as a group of learners following a particular instructional program i.e. treatment.

The pretest was set as a proficiency test designed to test participants' competence in ME. It was based on the researcher's general knowledge of ME and was administered on the second session, right before the start of the quasi-experimental treatment. The posttest was set as an achievement test designed to test the participant's progress in order to check the effectiveness of the treatment on participants' ME levels. It was constructed based on the first two missions (according to the participant's progress within the game) of the game *Call of Duty 4: Modern Warfare*, and was administered right after the last session of the treatment.

In order to have an equal statistical analysis, both the pretest and posttest follow the same the structure; however, they include different content. Furthermore, a variation of exercises (blanks filling, matching words, multiple choice) are used to prevent

monotony in the test and meet different learning styles. The following table below shows the components of the pretest.

Table 3.1: Pretest Components

Exercice I	Choose the correct meaning of the following acronyms : A.W.O.L – M.I.A – W.M.D – M.R.E
Exercice II	Put the following terms in the right category : Nuke – Platoon – Tango – Chopper
Exercice III	Which of the following is NOT a weapon ? Ak-47 – RPS – BM-21 – CRC – RPM – RPG – G36C – W600.
Exercice IV	Match the following expressions with their meanings : Stand down – Cover my six – Squad, on me – Smoke them.
Exercice V	Complete the following conversation with the convenient word : Copy – Fix on – Amush – Dust off – E.T.A – Enemy – Extraction – Target.

Additionally, table 3.2 sums up the components of the posttest.

Table 3.2: Posttest Components

Exercice I	Choose the correct meaning of the following acronyms : L.Z – A.S.A.P – K.I.A – N.E.S.T
Exercice II	Put the following terms in the right category : Infantry – Bird – Bogie – Flashbang
Exercice III	Which of the following is a weapon ? M9 – MP13 – C479 – Mini-Uzi – BM21 – G33 – M203 – L551.
Exercice IV	Match the following expressions with their meanings : Stay Frosty – Wheels Up – Weapons Free – Press on.
Exercice V	Complete the following conversation with the convenient word : Flank – Klicks – Storm – Intel – Fan out – Lock – Bugging out – Cover.

These tests were graded on a scale of twenty points, with an equal distribution of four points for each exercise. Their answers can be found in Appendix L and N.

3.2.1.2. Data Analysis

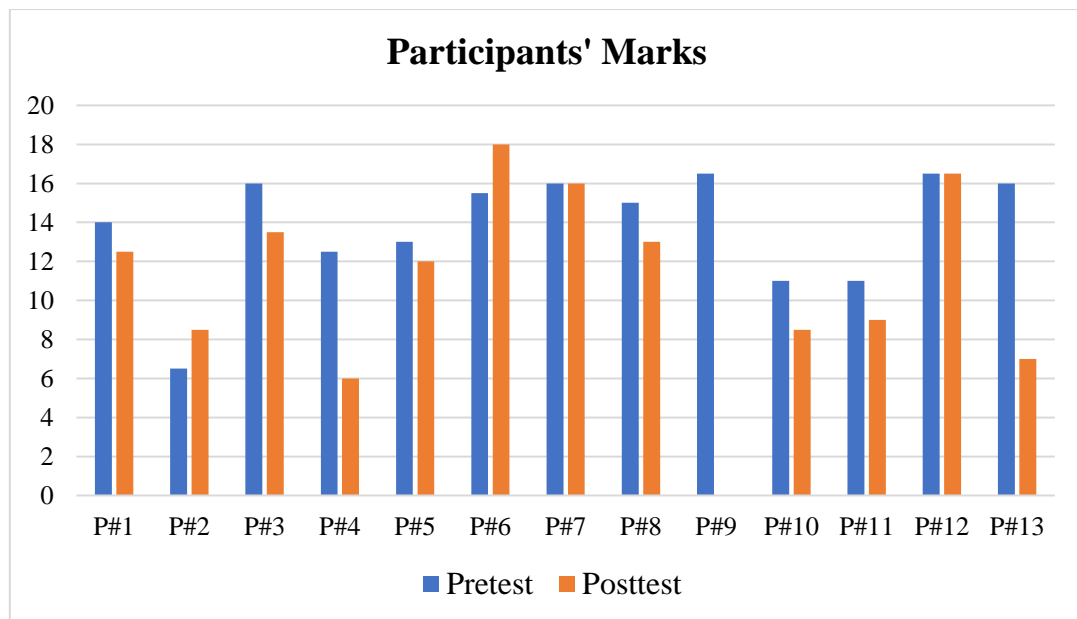
3.2.1.2.1. Pretest and Posttest: Students' Marks

The arranged marks in the table below were obtained in the pretest and posttest. Due to participants' signing of a consent form, the names appearing on table below are not their real names but instead code names. The code name is formulated out of two parts: "P" which stands for the word "Participant"; their designated number, appointed to them according to the appearance of their names in the attendance sheet.

Table 3.3: Pretest and Posttest : Participants' Marks

Participants Pseudo Name	Pretest	Posttest
P#1	14	12.5
P#2	6.5	8.5
P#3	16	13.5
P#4	12.5	06
P#5	13	12
P#6	15.5	18
P#7	16	16
P#8	15	13
P#9	16.5	Missing
P#10	11	8.5
P#11	11	09
P#12	16.5	16.5
P#13	16	07
Sum of Marks $\sum x$	179.5	140.5
Mean of Marks (\bar{X})	13.81	11.71

To represent graphically the marks, the following double bar graph is used.



Graph 2: Pretest, Posttest Marks

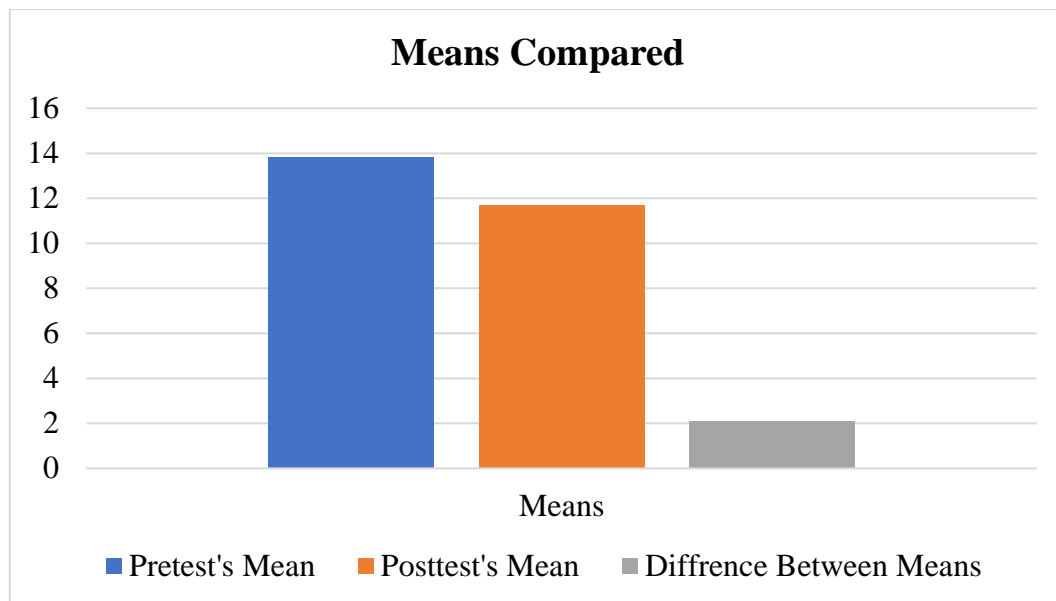
Table 3.3 and graph2 show a notable drop in participants' marks from the pretest to the posttest, which is indicated in the sum of scores (179.5 vs. 140.5) and the difference between the means (13.81 vs. 11.71).

Table 3.4, shown below, portrays how the participants achieved in both tests by statistically comparing the means of marks.

Table 3.4: Comparing Means

Tests	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Between Means
Means	13.81	11.71	2.1

The overall image of the means of marks in the pretest-posttest study is represented in graph 3.



Graph 3: Means Compared

An apparent difference in participants' marks from pretest to posttest is clearly observed based on the results shown in table 3.4 and graph 3. It is expressed by the difference in the mark means (2.1) which initially indicates participants' regression in the test performance. A preliminary deduction to this is that the posttest's content was a bit more complex than that of the pretest. It was not based on general ME knowledge, but instead was specifically based on the first two missions of the treatment i.e. *Call of Duty 4: Modern Warfare*.

Participants' considerably poor scoring in the posttest initially confirms the null hypothesis H_0 set for the research, which claims that integrating action video-games, as an instruction tool, into Military English classes may not have significant impact on officer learners' vocabulary learning. They may in reality produce undesirable results in terms of frustrating and boring play sessions that do not make any difference from the traditional classroom practices.

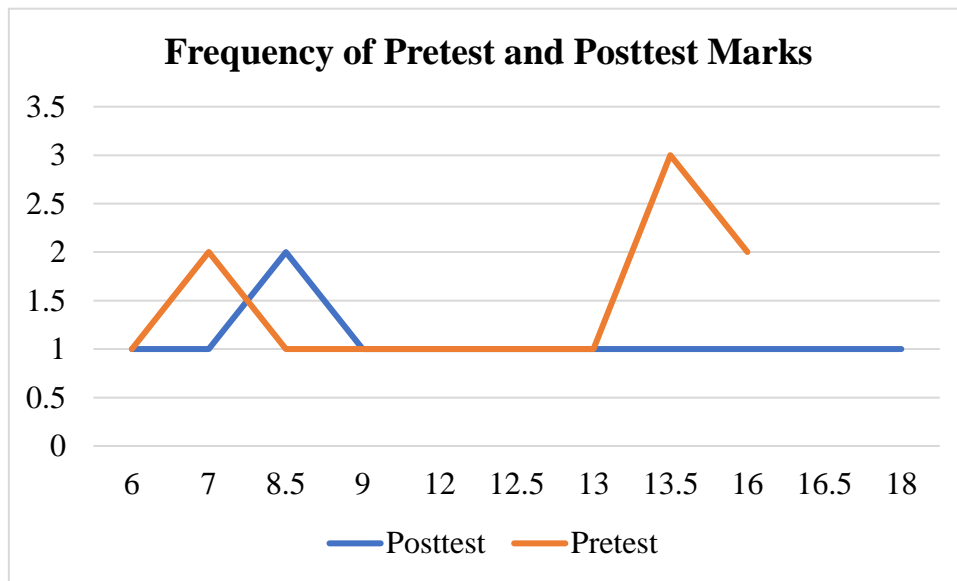
3.2.1.3.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

The researcher relied on descriptive statistics in order to analyze the gathered quantitative data. As Dörnyei (2007) explains, “Descriptive statistics help us summarize finding by describing general tendencies in the data and the overall spread of the scores (i.e. how varied the scores are)” (p.213).

Table 3.5: Frequency Distribution of Mark Values in Tests

Pretest		Posttest	
Mark (x)	Frequency (F)	Mark (x)	Frequency (F)
6.5	1	06	1
11	2	07	1
12.5	1	8.5	2
13	1	9	1
14	1	12	1
15	1	12.5	1
15.5	1	13	1
16	3	13.5	1
16.5	2	16	1
ΣF	13	16.5	1
		18	1
		Missing	1
		ΣF	13

The frequency of mark values is expressed in the following line chart:



Graph 4: Frequency Polygon of Pilot Pretest and Posttest Marks

Both graph 4 and table 3.5 display statistical representations of the scores in both tests, regarding their range, the highest/lowest scores, and the scores above and below the average. To begin with, pretest results display the following:

- The score values in the pretest range from 6.5 to 16.5.
- One score below the average (10), and 12 scores above it.
- The score 16 has the highest score frequency, while other scores have only one frequency.

As for the posttest, we observe that:

- The score values in the posttest range from 06 to 18.5.
- 5 scores below the average (10) and 6 scores above it.
- The scores 8.5 has the highest score frequency, while other scores have only one frequency.

3.2.1.3.3. Pretest: Statistical Considerations

In order to determine the difference between the pretest and posttest results, we need to calculate the measures of both central tendency and of variance. By measures of

central tendency, we mainly refer to the mean, while through the measures of variance we refer to the variance and the standard deviation.

a. The Mean

According to Dörnyei (2007), “*Mean* which is the average of the scores. This the most common descriptive measure because it takes into account all the score,” (p.214). And as Hinton (2004) mentions, “When we talk of an ‘average’ we are usually referring to the mean,” (p.9). Thus, the mean is the sum of all the marks divided by the number of participants. It is symbolized by \bar{X} and its formula is as follows:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{N}$$

\bar{X} : Mean

x : Marks

N : Sample size

Σ : The sum

b. Sample Variance:

The sample variance, S^2 , is used to calculate how varied a sample is. We also use it to calculate the standard deviation. It is mathematically defined as the average of the squared differences from the mean. Its formula is as follows:

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}$$

S^2 : Sample variance

X_i : Mark

\bar{X} : Mean

n : Number of marks

c. The Standard Deviation:

The standard deviation is the square root of the variance, and it is as Dörnyei, (2007) explains, “*Variance* and its square root, the *standard deviation*, which are indicators of the average distance of the scores from the mean” (p.214). Its mathematical formula is as follows:

$$Sd = \sqrt{S^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}}$$

The data needed to calculate the Mean of the pretest is shown in table 3.4.

Table 3.6: Statistical Depiction of Pretest Marks

Mark (x)	Frequency (F)	Mark Frequency (Fx)
6.5	1	6.5
11	2	22
12.5	1	12.5
13	1	13
14	1	14
15	1	15
15.5	1	15
16	3	48
16.5	2	33
	$\Sigma F = 13$	$\Sigma Fx = 179.5$

Mean:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\Sigma Fx}{\Sigma F} = \frac{179.5}{13} = 13.81$$

The data needed to calculate the sample variance squared of the pretest is in table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Pretest's Standard Variation Data

Mark (x)	Mean (\bar{X})	$(X_i - \bar{X})$	$(X_i - \bar{X})^2$
6.5	13.81	-7.31	53.44
11	13.81	-2.81	7.90
12.5	13.81	-1.31	1.72
13	13.81	-0.81	0.66
14	13.81	0.19	0.04
15	13.81	1.19	1.42
15.5	13.81	1.19	2.86
16	13.81	2.19	4.80
16.5	13.81	2.69	7.24

Sample Variance Squared:

$$S^2 = \frac{\Sigma(X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n} = \frac{80.04}{9} = 8.89$$

From the sample variance we are then able to calculate the standard deviation.

Standard Deviation:

$$Sd = \sqrt{S^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}} = \sqrt{8.89} = 2.98$$

3.2.1.3.4. Posttest: Statistical Considerations

The data needed to calculate the Mean of the posttest is shown in table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Statistical Depiction of Posttest Marks

Mark (x)	Frequency (F)	Mark Frequency (Fx)
06	1	06
07	1	07
8.5	2	17
09	1	09
12	1	12
12.5	1	12.5
13	1	13
13.5	1	13.5
16	1	16
16.5	1	16.5
18	1	18
Missing	/	/
	$\sum F = 12$	$\sum Fx = 140.5$

Mean:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{\sum F} = \frac{140.5}{12} = 11.71$$

The data needed to calculate the sample variance squared of the posttest is in table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Posttest's Standard Variation Data

Mark (x)	Mean (\bar{X})	$(X_i - \bar{X})$	$(X_i - \bar{X})^2$
06	11.71	-5.71	32.60
07	11.71	-4.71	22.18
8.5	11.71	-3.21	10.30

09	11.71	-2.71	7.34
12	11.71	0.29	0.08
12.5	11.71	0.79	0.62
13	11.71	1.29	1.66
13.5	11.71	1.79	3.20
16	11.71	4.29	18.40
16.5	11.71	4.79	22.94
18	11.71	6.29	39.56

Sample Variance Squared:

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum(\bar{X}_i - \bar{X})^2}{n} = \frac{158.93}{11} = 14.45$$

From this, we calculate the standard deviation of the posttest.

Standard Deviation:

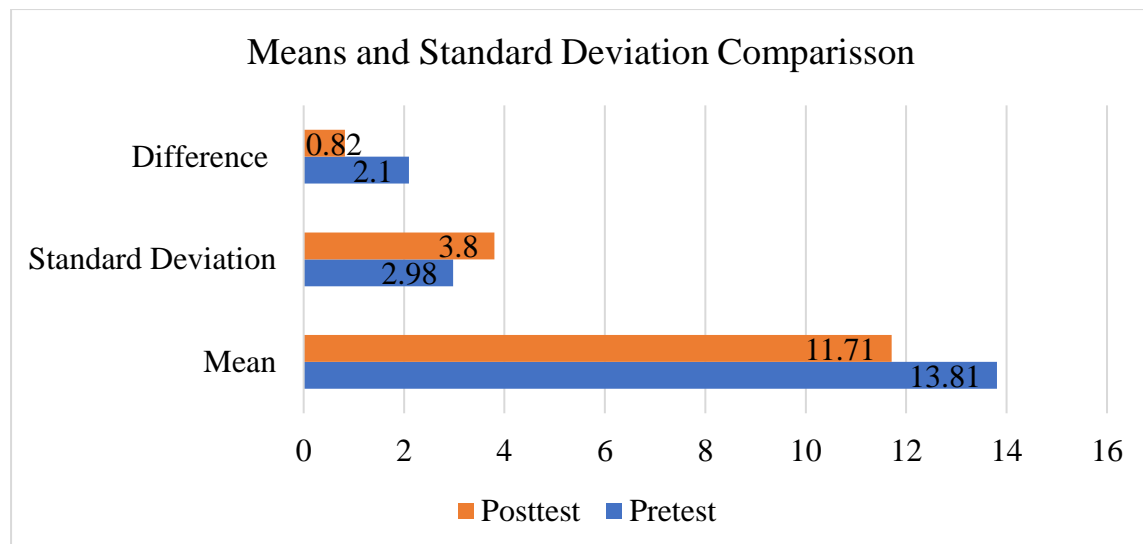
$$Sd = \sqrt{S^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(\bar{X}_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}} = \sqrt{14.45} = 3.8$$

Comparing between the two tests' descriptive statistics shows us the difference between their means and standard deviations as depicted in the table below.

Table 3.10: Comparing Means and Standard Deviations

Tests	Pretest	Posttest	The Difference
Means	13.81	11.71	2.1
Standard Deviation	2.98	3.8	0.82

A graphic representation is provided in order to draw a clear illustration of the differences mentioned above.



Graph 5: Means and Standard Deviation Comparison

3.2.1.3.5. Paired Sample T-test Calculation

In our study, the paired sample t-tests is the most appropriate. As Dörnyei (2007) explains,

Paired-sample t-tests (also known as ‘matched t-tests’, ‘matched-pairs t-tests’ or ‘pairs t-test’) are for research design where we want to compare two sets of scores (i.e. two variables) obtained from the same group(for example), the learners’ course grades in history and English) or when the same participants are measured more than once (for example, test scores before and after a course) That is, this procedure examines different results obtained from the same group (p. 215).

Alpha Decision level

"The language researcher should once again set the alpha decision level in advance. The level may be at $\alpha .05$ or at the more conservative $\alpha .01$, if the decisions must be more sure" (Brown, 1995, p.159 mentioned in Meddour, 2014, 174).

In our current study, we decided to set alpha at $\alpha <.05$, which means that only a 05% chance of error can be tolerated. The test is directional (tailed) because there is a sound

logic and a theoretical reason to expect one mean to be higher than the other (Action video game-based treatment). Therefore, one tailed test predicts that the group will score more highly in the posttest than the pretest; consequently, it is chosen because "it is stronger than the two tailed test as it makes assumptions about the population and the direction of the outcome" (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007, p.504, mentioned in Meddour, 2014, p.175).

Test Results

Based on the above significance of $\alpha < 0.05$, we use IBM SPSS statistical software to calculate our paired sample t-test with a significance level of $\alpha < 0.05$. The results are as follows:

Table 3.11: Paired Samples T-Test Results

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest Results - Posttest Results	1.87500	3.23423	.93364	-.17993	3.92993	2.008	11	.070

Based on the table above, all the necessary information for testing our hypothesis have been collected in the following:

Hypotheses Testing: $H_0 : \bar{X}_{pre} = \bar{X}_{post}$

$$H_1 : \bar{X}_{pre} < \bar{X}_{post}$$

The null hypothesis H_0 means that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the group in the pretest and posttest. Meanwhile, the alternative hypothesis H_1 suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between the means in the pretest and posttest.

Alpha level:	$\alpha .05$, one tailed (directional) decision.
Observed statistics:	$t_{\text{obs}} = 2$
Critical statistics:	$t_{\text{crit}} = 2.2$ (According to Fisher and Yates statistical tables in Appendix M).
Degree of freedom:	$df = 11$

At this point, all the data needed to decide the statistical significance of the present treatment have been deduced; now, all that is left are inferences.

3.2.1.3.5.1. Statistical Significance

Since the observed statistics is lesser than the critical value ($2 < 2.2$), the alternate hypothesis H_1 is not supported at $P < 0.05$. Rationally, having rejected the alternate hypothesis, the null hypothesis H_0 is automatically accepted. This means that there is only a 05% probability that the observed mean difference: $\bar{X}_{\text{pre}} > \bar{X}_{\text{post}}$ ($13.81 > 11.71$) occurred by chance, or a 95% plausibility that it was due to other factors than chance factors. The alternate hypothesis is rejected which means that we are 95% sure that the relationship between the dependent variable “ D ” (the posttest scores) and the independent variable “ ID ” (action video-games treatment) did not occur by chance. Ergo, we are sufficiently confident and in a fit position to advocate for the null hypothesis H_0 that states that the integration of action video-games into ME classes as an instruction tool will not have a significant impact on officer learners’ vocabulary learning.

3.2.1.3.5.2. Effect Size

The statistical significance of the test results is proved; therefore, the researcher needs to attain what is called "the Effect Size" of the treatment next. Commonly referred to as ‘Eta Squared’ the effect size “is a measure of the degree to which a phenomenon is present or the degree to which a null hypothesis is not supported.” Wood (1995, p. 393, as mentioned in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p.293). It is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Eta Squared} = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (N1 - 1)} = \frac{2^2}{2.2^2} = \frac{4}{4.84} = 0.86$$

Based on Muijs (2004, as mentioned in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007) effect size guidance, the value 0.86 shows that there is a moderate effect of the input (action video game) on the output (officer's final scores of the post-test). Therefore, the effect size statistically reveals the considerable difference between the scores of the pretest and the posttest.

All in all, participants were exposed to an action video game in order to improve their level in ME. However, the lack of progress and regression in participants' posttest scores has statistically proven that action video-games are a disadvantage when being used as an ME teaching tool.

3.2.2. Students' Evaluation of Game Effectiveness

Students' evaluation of the game's effectiveness represents a significant source of data for the researcher to determine the success or the failure of the study. This section will provide the aim and rationale of the focus group, and its interpretation and analysis.

3.2.2.1. The Focus Group

For the purpose of the quasi-experimental study, it was felt that a feedback from the participants was needed in order to gain useful information concerning their perceptions, attitudes, and reactions towards their experience with the provided game. Thus, a data collection method using a focus group was proposed based on Dörnyei (2007, p.144),

The focus group format is based on the collective experience of group brainstorming, that is, participants thinking together, inspiring and challenging each other, and reacting to the emerging issues and points. This within group interaction can yield high-quality data as it can create a synergistic environment that results in a deep and insightful discussion.

Additionally, due to wanting the participants to feel comfortable enough to honestly express their thoughts, they were grouped together with their teammates in order to create a fruitful discussion and draw more information.

3.2.2.1.1. Structure and Content

The focus group is in the form of a semi-structured focus group that included both open- and closed-ended questions. The researcher referred to an interview guide i.e. a list of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, shown in Appendix P. The list of these questions included items that started with ‘Wh-questions’ such as ‘how’ and ‘why’ in addition to introductory phrases, such as do you?? Despite asking direct questions, the researcher served more as a moderator rather than an interviewer. She was keen on being flexible and following up on any interesting developments.

3.2.2.1.2. Respondents to the Focus Group

The participants of the quasi-experiment formed the focus group. Due to the absence of one participant, the focus group was comprised of 12 participants.

3.2.2.1.3. Data Collection Procedures for the Focus Group

The focus group was held on the last day of the experiment (May 2nd, 2019), right after the posttest. The researcher explained to the participants what was expected of them, and that their opinions were to be honest and sincere. The researcher audio-recorded the focus group discussion in addition to marking a few notes from time to time. After finishing the focus group, the researcher proceeded to transcribe the audio-texts in order to analyze them (see Appendix Q).

3.2.2.1.4. Analysis and Interpretation of the Focused Group Discussion

This part of the research presents findings from the focused group discussion in the quasi-experimental study.

When first asked if they enjoyed the experiment the majority of participants reported that they did, and that they found the game to be very realistic. Although the first impression showed that they were excited, their answers later on showed that they endured a few struggles.

P. 3 mentioned that:

Maybe in other circumstances it would be more helpful

When the researcher asked him to elaborate what kind of circumstances, he added that a different time would have been preferred.

He also suggested using another game to which P. 4 responded:

Not a different game... uhh—not the solo game... with group it's better... if we play against teammates.

While P. 5 also supported the idea of using a different game:

Maybe the game wasn't interesting... maybe if it exists another game in which we can play. Like adventure games and you can found words, fruits... I don't know...

Additionally, P. 6 mentioned that it was all a matter of preparation saying that:

You have to prepare, for example, classroom with laptops and settle the play. And explain to the players the subject of the topic, and then give time to the students to prepare themselves.

When asked about the difficulties faced with the game, different responses were given, such as the means and materials but also how to control the game i.e. how to play the game.

P. 13 explained that:

This kind of games it's uhh— it's a little difficult, it's so high level. Because when you are playing this kind of games you need to focus on the events, on how to shoot enemies, not to catch some words.

When it was suggested that only one of them plays and the rest watched, they all agreed and said it was better.

P. 2: *When you watch, you can focus more than when you are playing this game.*

P. 6: *You can focus on the words, the meaning.*

A general agreement among these interviewees indicated that age played an important role in this experiment.

P. 4 states that: *We didn't used to play video-games when we were young...*

And P. 11 says: *They didn't play video-games when they were young so they can't learn it at an old age.*

To which P. 3 adds:

You have to start playing them at a young age... then even if you are old you will always enjoy playing them.

Furthermore, some participants mentioned that they did not like the game, because it was in the same field as their work. They would rather use a more entertaining one. Like they said:

Yes, I like to play games in order to entertain myself, to break the routine... I'm spending all the week in military. I'd like to have something different when I have a free time. Not even in my free time using military games...., but it's good to learn new vocab.

Because I live in military life. In my free time I will choose another game, and it would be interesting for me. Maybe I will improve my English.

Whereas P. 3 contradicted them:

I think uhh— the opposites about military life and military games. I think that by this game we will break the routine.

Surprisingly, there was one particular participant that mentioned disliking the game due to Arabs being represented as terrorists in it.

Moreover, when asked if the allotted time was enough, they collectively replied that it was not.

P.11 says: *For me one month is too short a period.*

And P.6 mentions:

For me even a year is not enough. You have to prepare logistics. Classroom with laptops [08:04 unclear] and settle down all the games, and then make a session to prepare the students so you can start your game. But with this method even a year is not enough.

Whereas P.3 states that: *With a good laptop and circumstances, one hour would be enough.*

When suggested that all lessons be removed and they only play games, all the participants rejected the idea. They instead suggest other ways to improve the lessons:

P. 6: *Maybe before going to this kind of games make some courses of the military vocab. For example, Campaign method to rehearse our steps to this kind of game.*

P. 1: *Maybe it helps if we use some extra way. For example, we have the game as it is and time to time it's better to have some uhh— words game, puzzle or ...*

P. 1: *Yes, in order to gather a lot. When you play uhh— Call of Duty, you have background. Which make you deal with the situation easily.*

P. 6: *For example, once a week or twice a week we can play it. But first you have to learn some vocab.*

P. 7: *We need books, we need to write.*

P. 11: *We need background.*

All in all, what can be retained from this focus group is that the majority of participants faced a few difficulties. The first difficulty was on how to control the game. Some participants did not know how to use the computer controls while others said they preferred a game controller. The second difficulty is the age factor. A majority of participants mentioned that this game was not suitable for their age. Last but not least, the time limitation. While some participants enjoyed the experience, they reported that the allotted time was not sufficient enough for them to gain any vocabulary.

3.2.3. Discussion of the Results

The findings of this part of the study, obtained through a paired sample t-test and a focus group, have revealed a moderate impact of the used treatment i.e. the action video game *Call of Duty 4: Modern Warfare* on Military English vocabulary learning.

First, the difference in means (2.1) has shown a considerable poor scoring from the pretest to the posttest. This shows that when introducing an i+1 level of ME input through a video game, the participants' level did not increase. It, instead, decreased slightly. Thus, the implementation of action video-games as an instruction tool did not improve officer learner's ME vocabulary.

Second, the statistical significance of the results has rejected the alternate hypothesis H_1 and automatically accepted the null hypothesis H_0 . The null hypothesis states that the integration of action video-games into ME classes as an instruction tool will not have a significant impact on officer learners' vocabulary learning. We cannot conclude with a high degree of certainty that this is due to the inefficiency of video-games as an instructional tool, because there may be other explanations for why the posttest scores are lower, such as certain internal factors as well as external ones.

There are various internal factors that were obtained from the focus group. First, many participants remarked the limited amount of time allotted to this study. The quasi-experiment was conducted in the period of one month only. This short period provided a limited amount of input that might not have been effective. Moreover, the age factor. Age played a major role in participant's involvement in the quasi-experiment. Participants of a young age (20s) had no difficulties operating the game. Whereas, those of an older age (40s) faced certain difficulties. They had problems relating to the notion of playing a video

game and were unable to manipulate the game controls. In fact, they were more focused on how to play rather than actually playing the game.

As for the external factors, they can be deduced from the researchers' observation during the quasi-experiment. First, many of the participants come from a reserved background where video-games are not given much importance. Thus, their somewhat negative perception towards video-games might have had an impact on their motivation towards learning from them. Furthermore, the lack of instruction from the researcher might have had a negative impact on the participants as well. They were often asking questions and very confused.

All in all, the found results have helped the researcher answer the initial research questions. Moreover, they gave the researcher a reflection of the challenges and limitations she faced during this study. Last but not least, these limitations have given a clear image on how to improve the study which might be helpful for future researchers.

3.2.4. Limitations of the Quasi- Experimental Study

The researcher faced some limitations while conducting this quasi-experimental study. First, while conducting the quasi-experiment, participants had to be divided into pairs due to the limited number of computers. Additionally, some participants requested certain materials which were unavailable (gaming consoles and headphones). Moreover, the provided time by the administration was insufficient (only three hours a week). Last but not least, during the focus group, the researcher was unable to fully control the group and regain order at certain times. Moreover, the low quality of the focus group's audio recording has led to some unclear statements in the transcription.

Conclusion

This chapter provided an analysis and interpretation of the different research methods in both the preliminary and quasi-experimental study. The collected data for the preliminary study was by means of an officers' questionnaire, a teacher's questionnaire and teacher interviews. As for the quasi-experimental study, it was by means of a quasi-experiment and a focus group. First, the data from the preliminary study's questionnaires was coded and then analyzed. Their results were then interpreted both statistically and descriptively in the form of tables and graphs to show how statistics distinguish from one to another. After that, the teachers' interviews were transcribed and then descriptively analyzed and interpreted in order to provide a general idea about the data. The results from this study set the path for the data collection of the quasi-experimental study. In this second study, the data collected from the pretest and posttest was first coded and then statistically analyzed using IBM SPSS software. The resulting statistics were then interpreted descriptively. After that, the focus group concerning officers' experiment experience was transcribed and analyzed as well. To conclude, the chapter provides answers to the research questions and confirms the research null hypothesis H_0 ; integrating action video-games, as an instruction tool, into Military English classes may not have significant impact on officer learners' vocabulary learning.

Suggestions and Recommendations

Video-games are a multifunctional fast-developing industry that is mainly being used for entertainment. What the majority do not notice is that video-games offer a lifelike representation of real-life situations. These situations often include authentic language input that could be used effectively within the field of ESP. Even though the results of this study were somehow negative, we encourage the conduction of more in-depth research

within this domain. For that, we attempt to put forwards a few recommendations that might set a solid ground for better future research.

First, in order to implement video-games into ESP courses, teachers should use them as an aiding tool and not as an instructional tool. Video-games are diverse and can be used in different ways; however, we recommend that teachers use them as a form of exercise after presenting their lessons. This way, learners are given a break from traditional learning, and are able to review their lessons in an entertaining way that might help them remember the content of the course better.

Second, some video-games require a certain level of computer skills. In order to benefit fully from video-games as a language learning tool, we recommend that learners should first improve their computer skills. Because, a lack of computer skills has led to a lack of attention to game content and thus a lack of learning. Ergo, if learners improved their computer skills, they would focus more on learning rather than playing.

Last but not least, future researchers wanting to reconduct this quasi-experiment should provide the participants with full set of ICT materials based on their preferences. Moreover, for convenient results, this study should preferably be conducted over a longer time period (more than a month). Furthermore, if possible, a custom game should be developed based on the objectives of the study and the participants needs.

All in all, the suggested recommendations, if properly considered, will certainly take ESP instruction to another level in which technology, pedagogy and subject content are intricately interwoven in both real and virtual settings aiming at helping learners achieve their learning targets.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The current study has investigated the practicality of action video-games as an alternative instructional tool for traditional Military English teaching. Accordingly, it aimed at exploring the difficulties faced with video-games as teaching tools. Also, the study aimed at investigating learners' perspectives towards playing video-games. Moreover, this study was conducted to confirm or reject the hypothesis stating that the inclusion of action video-games within ME classes as an instructional tool leads to a positive implicit learning of the used jargon and terminology. For these reasons, this study was conducted as a quasi-experimental study within a military institute of foreign languages.

First of all, it is essential to review the related literature which was presented in the first two chapters. The first chapter provided a brief overview of the use of video-games in language learning and teaching. It introduced the different fields of CALL and DGBL as technology-based methods for language learning. Additionally, it compared between them and tackled their various benefits and limitations. Furthermore, it introduced and defined video-games as an entertainment industry with its own culture, as well as a tool used in language learning and teaching. Meanwhile, the second chapter dealt with ESP as a learner centered discipline. It provided different definitions, a brief historical overview and its characteristics. Also, it presented Military Language, specifically Military English, as a unique language, and defined its characteristics. In addition to a review of its related literature.

Furthermore, the field work of the research was conducted in two phases. The first phase was a preliminary study. This study was conducted for the purpose of gathering insightful information about the teaching/learning environment at IMLET. It consisted of an officers' questionnaire, a teachers' questionnaire, and teacher's interviews. The results from these data collection tools showed that officers at IMLET are motivated learners, with heterogenous military branches, who study ME for five consecutive hours daily. Moreover,

the teachers at IMLET claim to design their own courses, yet they follow a specific military teaching program which is *Campaign for Military English*. This program includes various authentic materials which IMLET teachers use via teaching aids i.e. audio-visuals. The results from this preliminary study provided concrete evidence for the researcher's initial speculations. Also, they helped the researcher define the characteristics of the treatment for the quasi-experiment. Last but not least, this study faced a few limitations that hindered the work of the researcher, such as the limited allotted time and the small number of the sample relating to ME teachers.

The second phase was quasi-experimental. It was conducted for the purpose of testing action video-games as an instructional tool for ME learning. It consisted of a quasi-experiment and a focus group. The statistical tests and results from the quasi-experiment revealed a considerable regression in participants' performance. Thus, it rejected the alternate hypothesis and confirmed the null hypothesis which stated that the integration of action video-games into ME classes does not have a significant impact on officer learners' vocabulary learning. These results were strengthened by the participants' feedback during the focus group. Participants reported that they faced certain difficulties during the treatment, such as being unable to properly play the game due to the controls, as well as the game being unsuitable for their age. Finally, this second phase of the research also faced a few limitations with the lack of materials as the major one.

Finally, the present study has mainly investigated the effectiveness of action video-games as a modern instructional tool with authentic language input that can be employed within ESP teaching. In the case of this study, using action video-games for Military English teaching has been confirmed to be ineffective due to internal and external factors that were mentioned in the discussion of the results.

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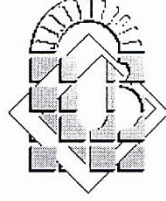
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Appendix A
Request for Research

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
وزارة التعليم العالي و البحث العلمي

Université Mohamed Khider
-Biskra -
Faculté des lettres et Langues
Département des langues étrangères
Filière d'anglais



جامعة محمد خيضر - بسكرة -
كلية الآداب و اللغات
قسم الآداب و اللغات الأجنبية
شعبة الانجليزية
رقم : 358 / ش. / 2018

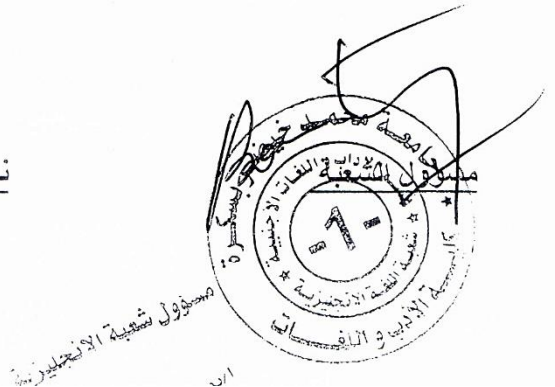
إلى السيد: مدير المعهد العسكري للغات الأجنبية والترجمة
بالروبية ولاية الجزائر

الموضوع : طلب تصريح لإجراء تربص

يشرفني أن ألتمس من سيادتكم تمكين الطالب (ة) : عكرمي فاتن صاحبة رقم التسجيل : 03/9007183 من إجراء تربص مع الطلبة والأساتذة في معهدكم .
أحيطكم علما سيدي أن هذه الطالبة تدرس لغة إنجليزية في السنة الثانية ماستر بجامعة محمد خيضر ببسكرة وهي بحاجة إلى هذا التربص من أجل أتمام مذكرة تخرجها .
وفي إنتظار قبول هذا الطلب ، تقبلو منا سيدي فائق الإحترام وخالص الشكر و الإمتنان.

بسكرة في : 2018/10/22

نائب العميد المكلف بما بعد التدرج والبحث العلمي
والعلاقات الخارجية



Appendix B

Granted Permission to Conduct Research

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة الدفاع الوطني

أركان الجيش الوطني الشعبي

الناحية العسكرية الأولى

الشهيد أحمد بوقارة

المعهد العسكري للغات الأجنبية
و الترجمة

الروبية، في: 05 نوفمبر 2018

الرقم: 2018/192/ك د و/أ-ج و ش/م ع ل أ ت/ن.ع 1

السيد نائب

العميد المكلف بما بعد التدرج و البحث العلمي

و العلاقات الخارجية/ بجامعة بسكرة

الموضوع: قبول الطالبة عكرمي فاتن

يشرفني أن أعلمكم بقبول الطالبة عكرمي فاتن الحاملة لرقم التسجيل 03/9007183، لإجراء التربص مع المتربصين والأساتذة على مستوى المعهد العسكري للغات الأجنبية والترجمة. للإشارة فإن الموضوع الذي تم اختياره للبحث و المتمثل في " ألعاب الفيديو الحربية" يعتبر ذو أهمية كبرى في تلقين المتربصين بالمصطلحات العسكرية.

مدير المعهد العسكري
للغات الأجنبية و الترجمة



إمضاء: العقيد صنادلة محمد توفيق

Appendix C
Officer's Questionnaire

Dear Officer,

The following questionnaire is a part of a preliminary study for a master's thesis. It aims at gathering precise information about your attitudes towards the current methods and techniques used in teaching Military English. If you would be so kind as to fill it in, we would be much grateful and thank you.

** Please tick the appropriate box(es) and fill the blank spaces.*

I. Background Information

- 1) Age: 20-25 25-30 Over 30
- 2) To which Military branch do you belong to?
Army Air Force Navy Other
- 3) What is your Military rank?
Lieutenant Captain Major Lieutenant-Colonel Colonel
- 4) How long have you been studying Military English? _____ months.
- 5) How long have you studied General English? _____ months.
- 6) Have you ever been stationed to an English-speaking country? Yes No
 - If yes, for how long?

II. Experiences and Satisfaction

- 1) Are you interested in learning Military English? Yes No
- 2) How useful is Military English in your field?
 - a- Not useful
 - b- Fairly useful
 - c- Useful
 - d- Very useful
- 3) Which best four words describe your current Military English class?

- 4) According to the next scale, rate the level of the current classroom experiences.

1	2	3	4	5
Deficient	Acceptable	Good	Very Good	Excellent

Classroom Experiences	1	2	3	4	5
Overall score of classroom activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Level of enjoyment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Level of satisfaction towards instructor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Level of satisfaction towards quality of teaching aids	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Level of satisfaction towards quality of teaching methods	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5) What are some of the troubles you have in the classroom?

- a- Confusion
- b- Distractions
- c- Difficult topics
- d- Lack of motivation
- e- Other

- Please mention them,

6) How often do you feel bored in class?

- a- Usually
- b- Often
- c- Sometimes
- d- Rarely
- e- Never

- Please mention some of the reasons for your boredom.

III. Current Used Methodology

1) How often do you use a textbook?

- a- Usually
- b- Often
- c- Sometimes
- d- Rarely
- e- Never

2) How often does your teacher use teaching aids?

- a- Usually
- b- Often
- c- Sometimes
- d- Rarely
- e- Never

3) Which is your preferred teaching aid?

- a- Audio aids (taped records, language laboratory)
 - b- Visual aids (board, pictures)
 - c- Audio- visuals (video tapes, computer)
 - d- Others
- Please mention them,
-

4) How often are you given memorization tasks?

- a- Usually
- b- Often
- c- Sometimes
- d- Rarely
- e- Never

5) Are you given vocabulary exercises, such as matching words or filling blanks?

Yes No

6) Do you believe that the current Military English lessons can be improved?

Yes No

- If yes, please suggest a way or two to improve them.

Thank you for your time and patience.
Faten AKERMI

Appendix D
Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Teacher,

The following questionnaire is a part of a preliminary study for a master's thesis. It aims at gathering precise information about the current teaching methods and techniques used in teaching Military English. If you would be so kind as to fill it in, we would be much grateful and thank you.

** Please tick the appropriate box(es) and fill in the blank spaces.*

III. Background Information

7) Status: Civilian Military

8) What is your educational qualification?

a- License; B.A

b- Magister; M.A

c- Doctorate; Ph.D.

9) How long have you been teaching Military English at this institute?

10) Have you ever taught EFL at a university? Yes No

- If yes, which courses did you teach?

IV. Methodology

7) How would you rate your level in Military English?

a- Acceptable

b- Good

c- Very good

a. Excellent

8) Are you familiar with the domain of ESP?

Yes No

9) Have you ever conducted a Needs Analysis with your students?

Yes No

10) What is your preferred teaching method?

- a- The direct method
- b- Audio lingual method
- c- The silent way
- d- Communicative language teaching
- e- Task-based language learning
- f- Other

11) Do you stay updated with the latest developments in language teaching?

Yes No

12) Do you use authentic materials in teaching?

Yes No

13) How do you plan and design your lessons?

- a- Based on students' needs
- b- Based on a textbook/ syllabus

14) What are some of the exercises you use in class?

- a- Matching words
- b- Fill in the blanks
- c- Synonyms and antonyms
- d- Word formation
- e- Dialogue completion
- f- Other

- If other, please mention them below.

15) Which of the following activities do you use in class?

- a- Presentations
- b- Pair work
- c- Group work
- d- Debates
- e- Discussions
- f- Written practice
- g- Role play

h- Games

i- Other

- If other, please mention them below.

16) What are some of the difficulties you face in class?

17) How often do you follow a textbook?

a- Very often

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

d- Never

18) How often do you use provided teaching aids?

a- Very often

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

d- Never

19) What are some of the difficulties your students face with Military English?

20) What is your opinion about video-games as a teaching aid?

21) Would you be willing to incorporate them into your classroom?

Yes

No

- If no, please mention why.

Thank you for your time and patience.

Faten AKERMI

Appendix E
Teachers' Interview Guideline

1. How did you become a Military English teacher?
2. What was your background before coming here?
3. What is your approach towards teaching Military English?
4. When you first started teaching, did you design your courses or did you rely on the textbook?
5. Are you familiar with ESP?
6. Have you ever conducted a needs analysis with your students?
7. What are some of the activities you use in class?
8. Do your students have many difficulties with this Module?
9. Do you use audio visual materials?
10. Do you bring authentic materials?
11. What kind of exercises do you use for vocabulary?
12. Do you expect the students to memorize much of the terminology?
13. Do you use exercise from the textbook?
14. Do students show expression of boredom from time to time?

Appendix F
First Teachers' Interview

Interviewer: Researcher (**R**)

Interviewee: Mrs. Delili (**T. 1**)

Date of interview: November 7th, 2018.

Location of interview: IMLET

[Begin Transcript 00:01]

R: Ok, it's working. Okay hi.

T. 1: Hi.

R: So, uhh—let's start with you introducing yourself.

T. 1: Okay, no problem. Um— Mrs,Delili. I'm a teacher of English. Uhh—I graduated from Bouzareah's University like 18? 17? Years ago. 2002, 16! Years ago. I worked as a supply teacher at many different places. Middle schools, primary schools, as a teacher of French, teacher of English. And then I worked with many private schools as a side teacher. That's all, I guess.

R: And which educational level do you have?

T. 1: I have um— a Bachelor's degree in English. I did more civilization and literature than linguistics and didactics. That's the Anglo-Saxon studies, what you now with the new system call it, Anglo-Saxon studies.

R: Have you always wanted to be here? Like how did you get here? How did you become a Military English teacher?

T. 1: Uhh—I'd say fate. Because basically I didn't want to be a teacher. Me I'm scientific. I was a scientific student. I had my Baccalaureate in science and life. And then I was just like that sent to do French, then I didn't. Then I did English instead and I loved it. Talking about the classes. At the time I had many, let's say, foreign teachers, some English teachers, ok. The atmosphere of the university absorbed me, I loved it. And after when I graduated, ok, I was sent to teach French. I loved being with kids, that's

when I discovered that I can teach. But I never did things the conventional way, I had problems. I had problems with colleagues, I had problems with the staff from the ministry, because I couldn't be conventional. I couldn't follow the rules, because I didn't feel that I was helping the kids when I follow the rules. And then here I was working as a supply teacher and there was a teacher who just resigned, and they were in need. They were very in need of a teacher and then...

R: Its fate. Ok let's start with the first question which is about your teaching methodology. Which techniques, strategies, tools do you use when teaching Military English?

T. 1: About ME now I'm not teaching that anymore; I did that last year the last time. So, when I do that. The first thing, I have a good method. First of all, I work with Campaign. The Campaign is a good method, ok, it's a European one, it has three levels. So, I work with all the skills with communication. First of all, I give time for my students to talk in order to know what I have to do with them, you do understand? Because they...

R: A needs analysis?

T. 1: Yeah. Because if they do not, I cannot know and understanding what they need from me. And then, ok, I start working, ok, sometimes with pictures, sometimes with games that I create in class, and I ask them to talk to each other and that's it. It's always centered around communication. I do grammar with communication. I do some activities which they have to talk about their... for instance for present simple they do a routine without saying that is present simple. I ask them to repeat, I ask the other to do like his friend. I use translation when I'm working with A1 level and they are beginner, I use translation. And I don't use translation when I'm working with A2 level. I just use translation when I'm working with the beginners. I use mimics, I think that I'm like an actor. Like an actor, you see acting in class? You feel sometimes dazzled, sometimes shocked, that's it. I'm acting in class in order to be ... and I play the student. I make them feel that I'm part of the group and we play together.

R: Do you use textbooks or the board?

T. 1: I use textbooks and the board sometimes, because sometimes they ask me to write a word that they do not know. It is necessary, sometimes, ok, you have to write an example of a friend. Somebody says something and the others cannot understand. They wanna know what their friend has said so we write the example of their friend on their

board, and then just circle and tell them that is the word. And then I ask others to use it, like in that way. So, I use it but not all the time. It's not like, today, I write the date, the unit, the rule map, tell them today we will talk about... And then we forget the board and then when we are communicating, I go to write some words that they not have understood. That's it.

R: How about the students? How do you feel their reaction is in class? Are they interested? Are they bored?

T. 1: Uhh—it depends. But for my class, ok, they are interested. They say they like me, I do not know, but this is what they say. Because there is always a feedback here. In the institute there is a feedback, so they always say, we like Mrs, Delili's class, it's fun.

R: It's fun?

T. 1: It's fun because I tell a lot of joke and I have a good sense of humor. This is natural, apart from the teacher that I am, as a person I have a good sense of humor that I try to use it a lot in class. So, I know how to tell a joke and when to tell it, and how to make the others laughing in order not to feel embarrassed. Because you know working with military sometimes, they come from conservative social backgrounds, and they have difficulty talking about their hobbies, and talking about their daughters, and sisters, and marriage, and love, and relationships. And we have a European program, so you need to play the game to make them feel comfortable to help share in the class. But the feedback they always say we like...

R: They like you. I'll ask them if they still like you. [Laughter]

T. 1: I didn't teach this year.

R: You did not teach this year?

T. 1: So, this year they started in September, they do not know me.

R: Uhh—what else? So, have you ever given them memorization tasks?

T. 1: Uhh—never and I'm against homework. I have problem with my boss because of that. I'm against homework and I have problem with the boss and the administration (la D.E) because of that, because I'm the one who's against homework. I tell them the five hours that we spend together every day is enough. And I say these are officers, [door noise] they are family men, they have reasonability. And because as five hours of

communication, this is the core of the cursus. This is why we are here, to communicate in class, to talk English in class and to memorize in class.

R: Are the five hours consecutive or they're separated?

T. 1: Consecutive. From 8 to 1 and we have a break of ten minutes after 1h 30.

R: That's a lot.

T. 1: That's a lot and this is why you have to change. To change from speaking to video display, to discuss a video. And I noticed one thing that the trainees remember better what we do in a video and remember better what we do to tease one another. So, I tell your friend is stingy, so they remember that and they call one another like this...

R: This is how they learn, the fun way.

T. 1: You say do you invite me? They say he invited us on French fries because he is stingy, and then we try to give adjectives. I ask them how do you see the first impression because they meet here. And then we start having an idea, it's like you build an English word for this. Ok so that's stingy the other one is bossy, he likes to be bossy, ok others... and they remember better And I'm against homework and I don't think that can help, because I guess homework stops at eighteen.

R: Yes, they are old enough now.

T. 1: These classes are not done for homework; they are done for communication. And I have a problem to convince him, because he always blames me for that. I say I'm against homework but you know, because military they like recorded stuff. They like that, they feel secure when they have a journal and they write. I say I can't, I'm against that. If I was working with a kid? Maybe. But I am working with mature people, with family men so I'm against homework.

R: Ok, next question is ESP. What's your knowledge of ESP? If u know it at all.

T. 1: Yes, uhh—it's English for Specific Purposes. And I did that along my... I did English for computers, I did English for pilots and controllers, I did Campaign Military English, I did English for electronic students also (electricity and that) so I taught that. I did for medical students. I did it before having a job I used to gather foreign students, Palestinians and Jordanians, who come to study medicine here in Algeria, I gave them classes.

R: You taught them specific English or General English?

T. 1: Specific, because this is what they needed in order to join medical school. So, I did that along my career but not in a regular way.

R: And that's it, I guess. Thank you very much.

T. 1: Thank you.

[End Transcript 11:22]

Appendix G
Second Teachers' Interview

Interviewer: Researcher (**R**)

Interviewee: Ben Faiza Mohamed (**T. 2**)

Date of interview: November 8th, 2018.

Location of interview: IMLET

[Begin Transcript 00:01]

R: Here we go. First of all, hello, how are you? Ok, so I'm going to need you to introduce yourself. I mean tell me your name, your degree of education...

T. 2: I am Ben Faiza Mohamed, uhh—I studied translation at the University, I have a license (B.A), What else?

R: How did you get here? How did you become a teacher in this Institute?

T. 2: Ok, I joined this institute in 2016, just new. I've been two years here, ok. So, I had an exam, I had a test and I joined.

R: And how about your classroom? How do you manage your classroom? I mean how do you present your lessons? Which techniques do you use?

T. 2: Ok, I'm gonna be, I think I'm a little different than the others [giggle], because I like interactive method. I like interactive method, yeah. So, my method is based on speaking first, because uhh — I think that if we want to evaluate someone, we evaluate him from his speaking. Uhh— how I present my course? The first thing I make warm up, to warm up. Always, I start my course by warming up students uhh— for example I, we talk what happen now in the world and current events, for example. Yeah, I give them just news, just brief news.

R: Politics, they like that.

T. 2: Not just politics, but I uhh— I try to touch every domain. [Exemplifies] So, what happened yesterday? Okay. Did you hear...?

R: Get them involved, okay and then?

T. 2: Or I touch a familiar topic. So, familiar with the unit, for example, and I go on.

R: You start the lesson. What do you use? I mean do you follow a textbook? Do you use the board a lot?

T. 2: Ok, for me I use the board, I use the TV, I use the projector, aaaand what? Yeah, I try to use all the materials.

R: How about the students? What is their reaction in class?

T. 2: Uhh—okay, their reactions. I can say that they are always good.

R: They're good? They're not bored? Or do they refuse to participate?

T. 2: No.

R: They don't?

T. 2: No never.

R: They're interested?

T. 2: Yeah, I get them interested. [Laughter]

R: Now about ESP, have you ever heard of ESP?

T. 2: Ok, English for Special Purposes?

R: Yes! What do you know about it? Have you studied it? Or anything?

T. 2: No

R: You haven't studied it. Ok, you just know the name?

T. 2: I just know the name here.

R: Here? You learned it here?

T. 2: Yeah.

R: Ok, so you don't know any of the techniques to teach ESP?

T. 2: Uhh—no, but here I try to know everything.

R: How about a needs analysis?

T. 2: A needs analysis? [Silence] I have no idea about this.

R: You have no idea what a needs analysis is?

T. 2: Maybe I know it but I don't know the word. Please explain me.

R: I'll explain, uhh—a needs analysis is when you're going to teach ESP. Before you start teaching, you ask the students what are your needs? Tell me what you need me to teach you? Why are you here?

T. 2: Uhh—yeah.

R: Do you do that?

T. 2: Of course, yeah.

R: Good, and that's it. This is all I want to know.

T.2: That's all?

R: That's all. This is very simple, thank you so much. Thank you.

[End Transcript 04:41

Appendix H
Consent Form

I _____, agree to participate in the research project: The Use of Action Video-Games for Military English Vocabulary Learning. Conducted by Akermi Faten who has discussed and explained the research project with me.

I have had the opportunity to ask questions about this research and I have received satisfactory answers. I understand the general purposes and methods of this research.

I consent to participate in the research project, and the following have been explained to me:

- ✓ The research may not be of direct benefit to me.
- ✓ My participation is completely voluntary.
- ✓ What I am expected and required to do.
- ✓ Whom I should contact for any complaints with the research or the conduct of the research.
- ✓ I am able to withdraw at any time or refuse to answer any question without any consequences of any kind.
- ✓ I am able to request a copy of the research findings and reports.
- ✓ All personal information I provide for this study will be treated confidentially.

In addition, I consent to:

- ✓ Audio-visual recording of any part of or all research activities.
- ✓ Publication of results from this study on the condition that my identity will not be revealed.

.....
Signature of research *Participant*

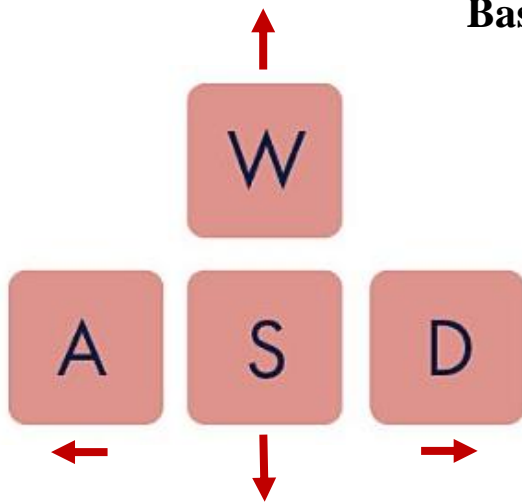
.....
Date

.....
Signature of *Researcher*

.....
Date

Appendix J Basic Controls

A Beginner's Guide to Playing Video-Games with a Computer: Basic Controls



- Use the W key to move **FORWARD**.
- Use the S key to move **BACKWARD**.
- Use the A key to move **LEFT**.
- Use the D key to move **RIGHT**.

- Use your mouse to **LOOK** around.
- Use left click to **SHOOT**.
- Use right click to **AIM**.



- Use the F key to **PICK** weapons and equipment.



- Use the C key to **CROUCH**.

- Use the space bar to **JUMP**.

Space Bar

Appendix K

Pretest

Full name:

Pretest

- I. Choose the correct meaning of the following acronyms. (Circle the correct answer)
(4 points)

1. **A.W.O.L.:**

- a. Absent Without Official Leave.
- b. Away With Order of Leave.
- c. Away When Ordered to Leave.

2. **M.I.A.:**

- a. Misfits in Action.
- b. Mutual Information Approach.
- c. Missing In Action.

3. **W.M.D.:**

- a. Weapons of Mass Destruction.
- b. Weapons of Mass Deception.
- c. Wearable Medical Device.

4. **M.R.E.:**

- a. Mission Rehearsal Exercise.
- b. Message Reference File.
- c. Meal, Ready-To-Eat.

- II. Put the following terms in the right category. (4 points)

Nuke – Platoon – Tango – Chopper

Vehicle: Tank – Humvee – Aircraft carrier –

Weapon: Missile – Grenade – Rifle –

Enemy: FAM (Fighting Aged Male) – Raghead – Slope –

Soldiers: Squad – Army – Troop –

Please turn overleaf.

III. Which of the following is NOT a weapon? (Tick the correct answer.) (4 points)

- | | | | |
|-------|--------------------------|------|--------------------------|
| AK-47 | <input type="checkbox"/> | RPM | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| RPS | <input type="checkbox"/> | RPG | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| BM-21 | <input type="checkbox"/> | G36C | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| CRC | <input type="checkbox"/> | W600 | <input type="checkbox"/> |

IV. Match the following expressions with their meanings. (Draw an arrow from a to A)
(4 points)

- | | |
|------------------|--|
| 1. Stand down. | A. Open fire on enemy. |
| 2. Cover my six. | B. Retreat from your state of readiness. |
| 3. Squad, on me. | C. Protect me from behind. |
| 4. Smoke them. | D. Follow my lead. |

V. Complete the following conversation with the convenient word. (4 points)

Copy – fix on – ambush – dust off – E.T.A – Enemy – extraction – target

Bravo six: “Mayday! Mayday! This is Bravo Six! We’ve been hit! I repeat we’ve been hit! Two miles south-east away from Requesting immediate, over.”

Baseplate: “Sea Knight this is Baseplate. We need to evac an advanced team pinned down one mile north-west from your current location, over.”

Sea Knight: “Roger that Baseplate. We’re on our way.”

Baseplate: “Bravo Six, this is Baseplate. Sea Knight has a you, are they clear to land? over.”

Bravo six: “Negative! personnel are fast approaching. Possible area, over.”

Baseplate: “Roger that Bravo Six. Relocating point to one mile north from your current location, over.”

Sea Knight: “ that, : 3 minutes.”

Bravo six: “Roger that Baseplate, Bravo Six out.”

Best of luck.

Appendix L
Pretest Answers

Activity I:

- | | | | |
|--------------------|---|------------------|---|
| 1. A.W.O.L: | a | 3. W.M.D: | a |
| 2. M.I.A: | c | 4. M.R.E: | c |

Activity II:

- | | | | |
|-----------------|---------|------------------|---------|
| Vehicle: | Chopper | Enemy: | Tango |
| Weapon: | Nuke | Soldiers: | Platoon |

Activity III:

RPS - RPM - CRC - W600

Activity IV:

- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Stand down.
readiness. | B. Retreat from your state of |
| 2. Cover my six. | C. Protect me from behind. |
| 3. Squad on me. | D. Follow my lead. |
| 4. Smoke them. | A. Open fire on enemy. |

Activity V:

Blank 1: Target.	Blank 5: Ambush.
Blank 2: Dust off.	Blank 6: Extraction.
Blank 3: Fix on.	Blank 7: Copy.
Blank 4: Enemy.	Blank 8: E.T.A.

Appendix M

Posttest

Posttest

Full name:

- I. Choose the correct meaning of the following acronyms. (Circle the correct answer)
(4 points)

5. **L.Z:**

- a. Loading Zone.
- b. Learning Zone.
- c. Landing Zone.

6. **A.S.A.P:**

- a. As Slow As Possible.
- b. As Soon As Possible.
- c. As Secure As possible.

7. **K.I.A:**

- a. Killed In Arms.
- b. Killed In Attack.
- c. Killed In Action.

8. **N.E.S.T:**

- a. Nuclear Emergency Support Team.
- b. Navy Exercise Support Terminal.
- c. Novell Embedded System Technology.

- II. Put the following terms in the right category. (4 points)

Infantry – Bird – Bogie – Flashbang

Vehicle: 5-ton – Freighter – Fast Mover –

Weapon: Side Arm – Missile – Rifle –

Enemy: Gook – Combatant – Tango –

Soldiers: Company – Platoon – Fireteam –

Please turn overleaf.

III. Which of the following is a weapon? (Tick the correct answer.) (4 points)

- | | | | |
|------------|--------------------------|------|--------------------------|
| M9 | <input type="checkbox"/> | BM21 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| MP13 | <input type="checkbox"/> | G33 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| C479 | <input type="checkbox"/> | M203 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Mini - Uzi | <input type="checkbox"/> | L551 | <input type="checkbox"/> |

IV. Match the following expressions with their meanings. (Draw an arrow from a to A)
(4 points)

- | | |
|------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Stay frosty. | A. Move forward. |
| 2. Wheels up. | B. Scheduled time of flight. |
| 3. Weapons free. | C. Be cautious and alert. |
| 4. Press on. | D. Fire at any target. |

V. Complete the following conversation with the convenient term. (4 points)

Flank – Klicks – Storm – Intel – Fan out – Lock – Bugging out – Cover.

Captain Price: “Alright Donovan, what’s our status on the situation?”

Lieutenant Donovan: “Our tells us our target is located 5 south from our current location. We need to engage enemy immediately if we want to retrieve the package. Alpha team will’em from the north while bravo team’s them on their east.”

Captain Price: “Alright. Boys! You heard the man lets and load!”

Lieutenant Donovan: “Alpha this is Bravo. We’re in position, over.”

Captain Price: “Roger that Bravo. We’re moving in, over.”

Captain price*Whispers to soldiers*: “.....”

Weapons shot

Captain Price: “TAKE!!!”

Captain Price: “WE WALKED STRAIGHT INTO AN AMBUSH! DO NOT ENGAGE! I REPETA DO NOT ENGAGE!”

Lieutenant Donovan: “Roger that Alpha. Not engaging enemy. We’re, over and out.”

Best of luck.

Appendix N
Posttest Answers

Activity I:

- 1. **L.Z:** c
- 2. **A.S.A.P:** b

- 3. **K.I.A:** c
- 4. **N.E.S.T:** a

Activity II:

- Vehicle:** Bird
- Weapon:** Flashbang

- Enemy:** Bogie
- Soldiers:** Infantry

Activity III:

Mini-Uzi - M9 - BM21 - M203

Activity IV:

- 1. Stay frosty.
- 2. Wheels up.
- 3. Weapons free.
- 4. Press on.

- C. Be cautious and alert.
- B. Scheduled time of flight.
- D. Fire at any target.
- A. Move forward.

Activity V:

- Blank 1: Intel.
- Blank 2: Klicks.
- Blank 3: Storm.
- Blank 4: Flank.

- Blank 5: Lock.
- Blank 6: Fan out.
- Blank 7: Cover.
- Blank 8: Bugging out.

Appendix O

Fisher and Yates Statistical Table

TABLE A.4 Distribution of *t*

df	PROBABILITY					
	.20	.10	.05	.02	.01	.001
1	3.078	6.314	12.706	31.821	63.657	636.619
2	1.886	2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925	31.598
3	1.638	2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841	12.941
4	1.533	2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604	8.610
5	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032	6.859
6	1.440	1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707	5.959
7	1.415	1.895	2.365	2.998	3.499	5.405
8	1.397	1.860	2.306	2.896	3.355	5.041
9	1.383	1.833	2.262	2.821	3.250	4.781
10	1.372	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169	4.587
11	1.363	1.796	2.201	2.718	3.106	4.437
12	1.356	1.782	2.179	2.681	3.055	4.318
13	1.350	1.771	2.160	2.650	3.012	4.221
14	1.345	1.761	2.145	2.624	2.977	4.140
15	1.341	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947	4.073
16	1.337	1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921	4.015
17	1.333	1.740	2.110	2.567	2.898	3.965
18	1.330	1.734	2.101	2.552	2.878	3.922
19	1.328	1.729	2.093	2.539	2.861	3.883
20	1.325	1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845	3.850
21	1.323	1.721	2.080	2.518	2.831	3.819
22	1.321	1.717	2.074	2.508	2.819	3.792
23	1.319	1.714	2.069	2.500	2.807	3.767
24	1.318	1.711	2.064	2.492	2.797	3.745
25	1.316	1.708	2.060	2.485	2.787	3.725
26	1.315	1.706	2.056	2.479	2.779	3.707
27	1.314	1.703	2.052	2.473	2.771	3.690
28	1.313	1.701	2.048	2.467	2.763	3.674
29	1.311	1.699	2.045	2.462	2.756	3.659
30	1.310	1.697	2.042	2.457	2.750	3.646
40	1.303	1.684	2.021	2.423	2.704	3.551
60	1.296	1.671	2.000	2.390	2.660	3.460
120	1.289	1.658	1.980	2.358	2.617	3.373
∞	1.282	1.645	1.960	2.326	2.576	3.291

Source: R. A. Fisher and F. Yates, *Statistical Tables for Biological, Agricultural, and Medical Research*, published by Longman Group Ltd., London (previously published by Oliver and Boyd, Edinburgh), and by permission of the authors and publishers.

Appendix P
Focus Group Discussion Guideline

1. Did you enjoy the experience?
2. What were some of the difficulties you face during?
3. Do you think that age played an important role in this experiment?
4. Was the provided time sufficient enough?
5. Do you have any comments on how to improve this quasi-experiment?

Appendix Q

Focus Group Discussion

Interviewer: Researcher (**R**)

Group members: Quasi-Experiment Participants (**P.#**)

Date of group discussion: May 2nd, 2018.

Location of group discussion: IMLET

[Start Transcript 00:01]

R: Okay, uhh—it's recording. Right so, good morning everyone [collective greetings in return]. And first of all, thank you for going through this uhh quasi-experiment. Uhh—thank you for giving me some of your time. Aaand, uhh—today is the last session, and right now we are going to conduct a focused group discussion. So basically, I'll just ask you questions and you Yes?

P. 1: Can you put your phone in the middle?

R: Why not? Okay, to record better?

P. 2: You can use the chair.

R: Just put it. [00:42 unclear] [laughter] It's okay, it's okay, because I will write it after that, they won't hear you.

R: Okay so, first of all did you enjoy the experiment?

[Collective agreements]

P. 3: Yes, it was so exciting. Can you hear me? [Laughter]

R: Be honest, [laughter] be honest, seriously, honestly?

P. 3: Maybe in other circumstances it would be more helpful.

R: In other circumstances, okay, what kind of circumstances?

- P. 3:** I don't know. You always, it's always Thursday. We are always tired on Thursday...the weekend. And ... uhh—[laughter]... you are writing... [laughter].
- R:** It's an interview. I have to take notes.
- P. 3:** We thought that we are talked honestly. [Laughter]
[Collective laughter]
- R:** Okay, okay. I stopped, I stopped.
- P. 3:** Will I have to sign at the end? [Laughter]
- R:** I stopped. Okay, in other circumstances?
- P. 3:** In other circumstances, yes. Maybe a different game would be...
- P. 4:** Not a different game... uhh—not the solo game... with group it's better... if we play against teammates.
[Collective agreement]
- P. 5:** Maybe the game wasn't interesting... maybe if it exists another game in which we can play. Like adventure games and you can found words, fruits... I don't know...you know this game?
- R:** I know this game.
- P. 5:** I used to play this game in French, in English I think that the result will be the same in French.
- R:** Okay, good. It's your opinion.
- P. 6:** Maybe to succeed in such uhh—such operation, it's a matter of logistics. You have to prepare, for example, classroom with laptops and settle the play. And explain to the players the subject of the topic, and then give time to the students to prepare themselves.
- R:** To prepare themselves for the game?
- P. 6:** Yes, for the game and try to prepare the class with laptops with [30:19 unclear] and settle the play in place, then choose the hour, for example the middle of the week.

- R:** Different time. So, like you said it's a matter of circumstances.
- P. 6:** And then choose the level of the students.
- P. 7:** I like the idea of the game, especially I learned a lot of military terms. Not in this class, but from playing video-games.
- R:** Okay, good. And movies, you said you watch movies.
[Collective agreement]
- R:** You told me you watch movies, I remember that. Another question, what are some of the difficulties you faced?
- P. 8:** Means and material.
- P. 9:** Time.
- P. 4:** Control.
- R:** Means, time, control. Okay, how to control the game. Okay, do you think age played a role in this?
[Collective agreements, one disagreement]
- P. 10:** Because for me it's boring, I am not a fan for videos game [04:39 unclear].
- P. 4:** We didn't used to play video-games when we were young... yes, that's it.
- R:** So, it's not for your generation?
- P.4:** Yes, I'm sorry to say it but yes [laughter].
- P. 6:** The game, the choice of the game itself.
- P. 11:** They didn't play video-games when they were young so they can't learn it at an old age.
- P. 12:** For me I dislike this game, especially this game ... you know why.
- R:** Because of the use of...uhh.
- P.12:** Yes, we talked before about this. Because they showed that the Arabian people are terrorists.
- R:** Yes, because of the use of terrorists in it you don't like the game.

- P. 11:** For me, I'd like to play video-games but not that kind of games.
- R:** Not the work-related?
- P. 11:** Yes, I like to play games in order to entertain myself, to break the routine... I'm spending all the week in military. I'd like to have something different when I have a free time. Not even in my free time using military games...., but it's good to learn new vocab.
- P. 3:** You have to start playing them at a young age... then even if you are old you will always enjoy playing them.
- P. 13:** This kind of games it's uhh— it's a little difficult, it's so high level. Because when you are playing this kind of games you need to focus on the events, on how to shoot enemies, not to catch some words.
- R:** So, you're focusing more on how to play?
- [Collective agreement]
- P. 13:** Yes, on how to play not on to catch some vocab... it's not for beginners.
- P. 9:** No, but you can learn some words. Just when you [Others interfere mentioning that when you hear again and again you understand]. Like you told us the first session, the way how you how we...
- R:** You acquire a language.
- P. 9:** Yes, two types.
- R:** Yes, learning and acquiring.
- P. 9:** Uhh— yes, this is it.
- P. 6:** You have to have many skills play, learning and listening.
- P. 1:** Concentrate.
- P. 6:** Concentrate on many things ... it's difficult.
- R:** How about if you did not play the game? Only one of you played and the rest of you watched, would that have made a difference?
- [Collective agreement]

- P. 8:** It's a good idea.
- P. 2:** When you watch, you can focus more than when you are playing this game.
- P. 6:** You can focus on the words, the meaning.
- P. 12:** I think it's better than to play.
- R:** How about the time duration? Do you think it was enough? or we needed a lot more time?
- [Collective agreement on more time]
- P. 11:** For me one month is too short a period.
- P. 6:** For me even a year is not enough. You have to prepare logistics. Classroom with laptops [08:04 unclear] and settle down all the games, and then make a session to prepare the students so you can start your game. But with this method even a year is not enough.
- P. 3:** With a good laptop and circumstances, one hour would be enough.
- P. 5:** But it depends on the ... you speak about military games or games in general?
- R:** I am speaking about military games.
- P. 5:** Ahh—no, no. We are not obliged to... Here you make things show so, how to say it? Limited! Because all of us don't like military games. Maybe I like games but not military.
- R:** Why?
- P. 5:** Because I live in military life. In my free time I will choose another game, and it would be interesting for me. Maybe I will improve my English.
- P. 6:** I have an idea.
- R:** Okay, yes?
- P. 6:** Maybe before going to this kind of games make some courses of the military vocab. For example, Campaign method to rehearse our steps to this kind of game.
- R:** So, this would be, the game will be a kind of exercise?

[Collective agreement]

P. 6: Finally, we turn to this game.

P. 1: Maybe it helps if we use some extra way. For example, we have the game as it is and time to time it's better to have some uhh— words game, puzzle or ...

R: So, a variation of games not just one game?

P. 1: Yes, in order to gather a lot. When you play uhh— Call of Duty, you have background. Which make you deal with the situation easily.

P. 7: If you can find another game it would be better than Call of Duty. Because of Call of Duty there are a lot of events uhh—playing fall, down, uhh...

R: It's realistic, we can't simplify it.

P. 7: Yes, you can't simplify it. If you find another game it would be...

P. 3: I think uhh— the opposites about military life and military games. I think that by this game we will break the routine.

R: How about in the case where we removed all lessons, all books, all uhh— everything. And we only gave you the game, would you be willing to do that? would you accept that?

[Collective disagreement]

P. 6: For example, the Campaign method we can do it and after you play.

R: So, you would like to have the game as exercise.

P. 6: For example, once a week or twice a week we can play it. But first you have to learn some vocab.

P. 7: We need books, we need to write.

P. 11: We need background.

R: How about the context of the game? did you find it realistic or was it fake?

[Collective agreement on realistic]

P. 2: Yes, it was realistic.

P. 8: Especially Call of Duty.

P. 6: Logistics are not uhh—logistics in this classroom it wasn't available to play such...

R: Circumstances (Correction for logistics).

P. 2: I'm a fan of this game so I won't be objective too much. [Laughter]

[Collective laughter]

R: Okay, I think that was it. These are all the questions that I have. Thank you so much for participating.

[Collective thanks in return]

[End Transcript 12:07]

Résumé

Les jeux vidéo incluent des matériaux authentiques et offrent une simulation de situations réelles. Ces jeux pourraient être appliqués dans les cours d'Anglais Spécifiques. Actuellement, à L'IMELT ces cours se déroulent dans un environnement d'étude traditionnel. Par spéculation, les apprenants de cet institut pourraient être ennuyés et démotivés. Pour cette raison, cette étude a pour but d'étudier l'utilité des jeux vidéo comme outil pédagogique alternatif pour l'enseignement de l'anglais militaire (AM). Elle cherche à explorer les difficultés rencontrées avec ces jeux en tant qu'outil d'apprentissage. Elle vise également à étudier le point de vue des apprenants sur ces jeux. L'hypothèse suggérée pour approfondir cette étude montre que l'inclusion de jeux vidéo dans les cours d'AM conduit à un apprentissage implicite positif du vocabulaire utilisé. En outre, l'étude cherche à rassembler des données qualitatives et quantitatives, c'est pourquoi une approche de méthodes mixtes a été adoptée. Cette étude a été réalisée en deux phases. La première phase est une étude préliminaire visant à recueillir des informations pertinentes sur l'environnement d'enseignement/apprentissage à IMLET. Deux outils de collecte de données ont été utilisés : un questionnaire pour les officiers et les enseignants d'AM, aussi des entretiens avec des professeurs d'AM. Le résultat majeur de cette phase est que les classes d'AM sont hétérogènes en termes de branches militaires. Ainsi, le jeu vidéo utilisé dans la deuxième phase devait être polyvalent. La deuxième phase est une étude quasi-expérimentale menée afin de tester les jeux vidéo en tant qu'outil pédagogique pour l'apprentissage d'AM. Les résultats de cette expérience ont révélé une régression des performances des participants. Ainsi, l'hypothèse susmentionnée a été rejetée. Cette phase comprenait également un groupe de discussion qui appuyait les résultats quasi-expérimentaux. Cela a confirmé que les apprenants rencontraient des difficultés lorsqu'ils utilisaient les jeux vidéo comme outils d'apprentissage.