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Contents

Article Titles & authors	Pages
Team of this issue	1
Contents	1-2
Negotiating Academic Identity on a North-American Branch Campus Krystyna U. Golkowska	3 - 12
Teaching Collocations in EFL Classroom Nasrin S. Altuwaresh	13-20
Teaching and Assessing 21st Century Critical Thinking Skills in Morocco: A Case Study Ahmed Chouari & Mohssine Nachit	21 –41
The Effect of Reflection-Supported Process-Based Writing Teaching on Iraqi EFL Students' Writing Performance and Attitude Salam Hamid Abbas	42-62
Evaluation of Methodology: Qualitative Studies about Mobile Technology Implementation in Education Tsoghik Grigoryan	63-79
The Ideology of American English as Standard English in Taiwan Jackie Chang	80 - 96
Choice of Phonetic Variables, /k/ and [č], in Al-Jaroushia Speech Community, Palestine: A Socio-phonological Perspective Abdul-Rahman Qadan & Ekrema Shehab	97- 116
The Strategies of Indonesian Junior High School Students in Learning Listening Skill Alfan Zuhairi & Ika Hidayanti	117 - 124
Challenges to Teaching English Literature at the University of Hail: Instructors' Perspective Elham T. Hussein & Aida H. Al-Emami	125-138
The Impact of Metacognitive Strategy Training on Comprehension Monitoring among Moroccan EFL University Learners Mohammed Msaddek	139- 154
Ontological Metaphor in Economic News Reports: A Pragmatic Approach Fareed Hameed Al-Hindawi & Wafaa S. Al-Saate	155-174
Identifying the Uncanny Phenomena in Educational Practice Roberto Ollivier-Garza	175- 186
Translating Idiomatic Expressions from English into Arabic: Difficulties and Strategies Holi Ibrahim Holi Ali & Sultan Mohammed Sayyiyed Al- Rushaidi	187-201
Acquisition of Modern Standard Arabic by Speakers of Different Arabic Colloquial Varieties: Resumption in Object Relative Clauses Sami Alresaini	202 - 224
The X-Factor Profile Characteristics of English Language Teachers in Non-Native Setting Zarina Othman, Shahizan Shaharuddin & Azizah Ya'acob	225 - 237
The Effect of Study Habits on English Language Achievement Sabah Salman Sabbah	238-257
Small but Multi-functional: Response Tokens in Content Language Integrated Learning Interaction Sabria Salama Jawhar	258 - 276

Contents

An investigation of Semantic Interlingual Errors in the Writing of Libyan English as Foreign Language Learners Abdalmonem S. Rajab, Saadiyah Darus & Ashinida Aladdin	277- 296
Long Term Effect of Phonetic Instruction on the Production of /p/ by EFL Arab Learners: an Exploratory Study Ghazi Algethami	297 -304
Students' Perception on Training in Writing Research Article for Publication Rusma Noortyani	305 - 316
The Efficacy of Using Language Experience Approach in Teaching Reading Fluency to Indonesian EFL Students Masruddin	317- 328
Saudi EFL Students' Attitudes towards Communicating in English while Immersed in Virtual Platforms Shafi S. Alqahtani	329-349
From Scientific English to English for Science: Determining the Perspectives and Crossing the Limits Claire CHAPLIER	350 - 364
EFL_ Indonesian Students' Attitude toward Writing in English Lestari Setyowati & Sony Sukmawan	365- 378
Are Saudi Girls Motivated to Learn English? Salwa Al harthi	379-421
The Religious Crisis and the Spiritual Journey in T.S. Eliot's <i>The Waste Land</i> Leila Bellour	422- 438
Operationalization of Competency-Based Approach: From Competency-Based Education to Integration Pedagogy Slimane BOUKHENTACHE	439-452
Multimodal Writing: The Case of Graffiti Nouf Fahad Alshreif	453-466
Jordanians Families Home Literacy Practices and Their Associated Functions in Malaysia Mustafa T.R. Aloqaili, Radha M.K. Nambiar & Hafizah Latif	467-492
Attitudes towards Arabic Romanization and Student's Major: Evidence from the University of Jordan Hady Hamdan	493-502
Interculturality in ESP Classrooms: A Contributing Strategy to Meet the Job-Market Expectations Fatma ZAGHAR	503-512
Book Review: Writing Business Letters across Languages: A Guide to Writing Clear and Concise Business Letters for Translation Purposes Author: Said M. Shiyab & Sonia Halimi Reviewer: Dr. Nadia Idri	513-515

Negotiating Academic Identity on a North-American Branch Campus

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Abstract

This paper focuses on transnational education (TNE) and student academic identity development. In recent years many North-American universities opened branch campuses abroad. This phenomenon resulted in growing interest in TNE. However, for the most part, the body of research on TNE reflects the perspective of the home institution, which privileges focus on curriculum design and program administration. There is still need for studies from an ecological perspective. Arguably, more attention needs to be given to the lived experience of students negotiating disparate discourses and conflicting cultural value systems, especially in the Middle East. The author presents a case study of a university on a mega-campus in Doha, Qatar to explore students' perceptions of their identity negotiation in a new complex social and symbolic space of a TNE campus. Discussing the findings of an exploratory research project, she asks what pedagogical practices can best help students to function between languages and cultures.

Keywords: gender, identity, sociocultural, symbolic competence, transnational education

Introduction

Recent years have seen not only a significant increase in internalization of education and but also opening of numerous American branch schools abroad. This phenomenon has resulted in an exponential growth of interest in Transnational Education (TNE). However, to quote Knight and McNamara (2015), “To date, the majority of research, discussion, and debate on TNE has been from the sending/home country perspective”(p.5). Looking through this lens privileges focus on program administration and quality control, i.e. issues such as curriculum development and implementation, concerns about standards and assessment, and preoccupation with protecting the reputation of the home institution. What often gets overlooked is the lived experience of TNE students, especially the affective domain of resolving identity issues on an international branch campus.

As argued by Miliszewska & Sztendur (2010), student attitudes, beliefs and experiences require more critical attention. This is true in all educational contexts and perhaps even more so in TNE. So far, the role of affect has been studied extensively in terms of its impact on student motivation and academic success (MacIntyre, 2002; Arnold, J. 2011; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). Likewise, the role of affect has been investigated in foreign language teaching and English language teaching, where researchers emphasize the role of desire in learning a foreign language (Kramsch, 2009) or postulate attending to differences and similarities between emotion scripts in the mother tongue and a foreign language (Dewaele, 2015; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Pawlenko, 2012, 2013). Nevertheless, as of now, little attention has been paid to the affective domain of TNE education. In particular, issues around student identity negotiation on transnational campuses in the Gulf region remain understudied.

Transplanting curricula into disparate sociocultural contexts raises a host of problems. Challenges can arise not only because of varying degrees of students' academic readiness but also because of a misalignment of goals and expectations due to different ideas about the meaning and value of education. Clearly, all freshmen need to learn how to become members of the academic community and, as evidenced by the literature, many find it a struggle. Schools produce cultures and identities (Hymes, 1972; Norton, 2010). There is a direct link between student identity and engagement with the curriculum (Van Lier, 2010) and, undoubtedly, students who perceive their academic identities as being at odds with their sociocultural identities will find it harder to succeed academically. The process of acculturation is even potentially more complex in the case of TNE students, as differences between their anticipated academic self and sociocultural self can be more pronounced and difficult to negotiate. To feel empowered to enter the symbolic exchange process, these students may need explicit guidance on how to operate in and between disparate cultural discourses.

Studying on an international branch campus involves a great deal of culture learning. It requires at least some familiarity with the culture of the country and school that exports its curricula, with the culture of the specific field of study the students choose, and with the culture of the branch institution, in itself an amalgam of the imported and local cultures. It is important to ask how TNE students view this kind of learning and how it can be facilitated and assessed. The literature on study abroad clearly demonstrates that culture learning is not a given and does not happen through symbiosis. On the contrary, for an unprepared student a sojourn abroad can lead to confirming stereotypes or even developing new ones. It has also been shown that students

need a safe space to reflect on their adjustment and benefit from explicit instruction designed to develop intercultural communication skills. The case of TNE students is not different in this regard. Helping students develop this competence is usually seen as the domain of liberal arts education. In off-shore operations, especially in schools with no liberal arts departments, the task of encouraging self-reflection, self-expression and a critical stance towards cultures frequently falls to writing instructors, who function as de facto mediators between languages and cultures. Thus, it is important to ask what pedagogical practices can most effectively introduce students to the discourses dominant in North American education as well as create a safe space in which they can deal with the affective domain of their academic identity development. The present paper considers this question based /in light of a preliminary research project conducted at a TNE institution in the Arabian Gulf.

Case study: a North-American branch campus in Qatar

Context and purpose

Any transnational campus is a new type of social and symbolic space, rich in meanings and rife with potential tensions. It is this entity, into which students carry their personal and socio-cultural narratives, that affords the development of their academic identities. To examine how the physical, social and symbolic space created by the local Qatari sponsor and the North-American branch schools intersects with students' habitat, and what kind of challenges it creates one needs to begin with a brief overview of the goals and history of Education City (EC).

The EC campus constitutes a unique cultural and institutional setting, different not only from typical American campuses but also from international branch schools in other Gulf countries. Like other Arabian Gulf countries, Qatar has been undergoing rapid industrialization and modernization fueled by its oil and gas revenues. This small Gulf kingdom has also been trying to become a regional leader in science and technology, and an important player on the international scene. *Qatar National Vision 2030*, the document that formulates the government's ambitious long term goals, postulates not only economic growth and environmental protection but also major sociocultural changes, "unlocking the human potential of Qatari citizens" (*Qatar National Vision 2030*). Recognizing that this goal is predicated upon development of education, the country's leadership initiated the process of reforming primary and secondary schools and developing undergraduate and graduate level education. Hence the construction of Education City, "a mega-university made up of cherry picked Western HEIs aimed to serve the Arab world" (Asquith, 2006, p.24).

Over the period of just a few years, the 1,000 hectare campus, a brainchild of Qatar Foundation, became home to Virginia Commonwealth University School of the Arts in Qatar (VCUQ), Weill Cornell Medical College in Qatar (WCMC-Q) in 2001, Texas A&M University at Qatar (TAMUQ) in 2003, Carnegie Mellon University in Qatar (CMU-Q) in 2004, Georgetown University School of Foreign Service in Qatar (SFS-Qatar) in 2005, and Northwestern University Qatar in 2008. It was clear from the beginning that in addition to turning Qatar into a vibrant research hub, EC was to play a transformative role in the life of Qatari society. Called "more important than any economic project", and part of Qatar's plan to "reclaim the luster of Arab education after centuries in the dark ages" (Asquith, 2006, p.23) it offered unprecedented educational opportunities to Qatari youth, especially to women. It was also a means of rhetorical persuasion in the narrative of change, branding Doha as the place where tradition meets modernity.

EC presents a rather unique TNE model. The host country gave the North-American universities considerable autonomy and a promise of collaboration. Each school was asked to teach the same curriculum and use the same admission and graduation criteria as on their home campus. At the same time, it was deemed essential that importing foreign education pedagogy not undermine national character and identity. Consequently, the mission has been defined as promoting “constructive dialogue and openness towards other cultures in the context of Arab and Islamic identity” (*Qatar National Vision 2030*). This ideological directive is just as visible in EC logos and the design of the physical landscape as it is evident in its promotional materials and signage. A campus visitor cannot fail to see the key words from the EC discourse - critical thinking, creativity, intellectual inquiry and innovation – repeated verbatim in the signage dominating EC’s linguistic landscape. American style education emphasizes critical inquiry and transferrable skills; at its best, it strives to develop intercultural competence in addition to disciplinary knowledge. Qatar Foundation sponsors activities, initiatives and events that provide platforms for exchange of ideas. To give a few examples, one can mention the CIRS lecture series at Georgetown University, the Doha Debates, modeled on the Oxford Union Debates, the student-led club, Education City ‘Majliss’⁴ or frequent all-campus public lectures, symposia and conferences. Thus, overall, the host’s goals align well with those of western liberal education. By design, Education City is meant to be a model environment for interdisciplinary and intercultural dialogue.

Successful as it is, this bold educational experiment invites a closer scrutiny. As a stage for identity performance the space of EC presents many challenges that need to be explored. It teems with intersecting, potentially conflicting cultural narratives. While it might be tempting to talk about a divide between the North American culture and Qatari heritage and identity, the reality is much more complex. The presence of international students from other countries in the Gulf region and beyond, and of faculty and staff who hail from virtually every part of the world gives the campus its cosmopolitan character but adding to the repertoire of possible identities does not necessarily resolve the issue of othering. In this context, there are many questions that have not been answered yet. How aware are EC students of QF’s goal of creating an intercultural dialogue and to what extent do they identify with it? How do they position themselves in the new symbolic field the campus affords and how do they conceptualize authenticity in their identity performance? Do they see their academic identity as shaped by westernization and globalization? In their opinion, is the issue of their academic and future professional identity development adequately addressed? Answers to such questions can only come from large-scale studies. The present inquiry, with its scope narrowed to one particular school in EC and the learning environment of one course, merely aims to signal some key issues for future exploration.

Student profile

To preface the discussion, one needs to stress that while EC universities encounter many similar challenges and opportunities, they obviously differ in their goals, curricula and student profiles. Moreover, although WCM-Q follows the curriculum of WCM in New York City, it is also different from any medical school in the U.S. Candidates for American medical schools apply with an undergraduate degree in hand. WCM-Q, on the other hand, offers a six-year program medical program (for most Qatari students a de facto seven-year program, since they have to complete the Foundation Program to be academically ready). Thus, high school graduates, some as young as 16, enter as undergraduates and progress to the medical program.

This has important consequences. Firstly, there is the issue of student maturity level. Moreover, the need to intensify the pace of preparation for the medical curriculum prevents students from taking electives, cross-registering in liberal arts courses on campus or even participating in non-medicine related extra-curricular activities. Only freshman composition and Medical Ethics bring breadth to the science heavy pre-med curriculum. Not surprisingly, WCM-Q students are very invested in becoming physicians. Combined with relatively low prestige of liberal arts education in the region, this attitude also leads to initial disinterest in anything that is not perceived as medicine related.

To complete the WCM-Q student profile, one needs to touch upon some of the factors commonly mentioned in the literature as impacting college success and development of academic identity: ethnicity, gender and academic preparation

WCM-Q students are predominantly Muslim and of Arab descent. However, in terms of nationality and cultural background, the WCM-Q student body is strikingly diverse. The steadily increasing number of Qataris (currently close to 40 % if one counts the Foundation Program participants) is counterbalanced by a high percentage freshmen born in the US, Canada and Australia. For example, the incoming class of 2022 comprises citizens of 12 countries. This diversity, a source of strength and enrichment, brings together people with very different educational and personal experiences.

Moreover, all of WCM-Q students are bilingual and some speak three or even four languages. They are also well travelled, though few take trips independently, and since Qatari population is very diversified, they are exposed to disparate ethnicities and cultures on daily basis.

Most come from a culture that privileges oral discourse but their literacy levels vary depending on the schools they attended. Before coming to WCM-Q, many were exposed to the monologic style of teaching and learning, known for its emphasis on memorization at the expense of critical thinking. Some are also first generation college students. In some cases, lack of literacy skills and of so-called general knowledge can hamper their progress. Annual surveys of freshmen writing students at WCM-Q confirm that they do not do much reading and writing in high schools, especially in government schools in Qatar, and often do not know how to use and document sources. More importantly, before joining WCM-Q they were exposed to the monologic style of teaching and learning, known for its emphasis on memorization at the expense of critical thinking.

Last but not least, WCM-Q students' academic identity development is also impacted by socio-culturally shaped beliefs regarding gender. Like other schools in Education City, WCM-Q is co-educational, presenting a new type of setting for many Qatari students. Although the government strongly supports education and employment of Qatari females, studying or working in mixed gender environments is still controversial among the more conservative members of the society. For female students, who consistently constitute roughly 50% of the student body at WCM-Q, developing academic identity means dealing with issues related to socio-culturally shaped gender roles. The Qatari society values tribal loyalty and forms a tightly knit community in which the voice of public opinion matters quite a lot. Although Qatari female and male students do not live in the campus dorms, they spend most of the time in the social space that is

in some ways very different from the home environment they return to at the end of the day. Non-Qatari students can also have a sense of conflicting cultural value systems.

As this profile illustrates, what is of interest for American students may be perceived as irrelevant, inappropriate or unrealistic in Qatar. It is important to remember that effective tailoring of imported curricula and pedagogical practices to local needs should include questions about students' subjective realities, i.e. "perceptions, emotions, attitudes and values" (Kramsch, 2009, p.7).

Method

The research questions for the study were formulated based on the data collected from published collections of WCM-Q student essays *Qira'at* and course related work (essays, journal entries, assigned reflection pieces and mini auto-ethnographies) gathered over the period of four years, from 2012 to 2016. Except for the published material, all the collected data was de-identified and subsequently analyzed using the Grounded Theory. The main themes that emerged from the data formed the basis for a brief survey and semi-formal interviews with self-identified students.

To insure maximum participation, a paper questionnaire was distributed directly to students rather than sent electronically. The questionnaire asked the participants to assess the importance of discussing their identity formation and consider which of the factors such as gender, culture, family background, academic preparation, and the social and symbolic space of the campus impact their academic and professional identity development. Altogether, 35 questionnaires were collected.

The qualitative part of the research project involved 20-minute semi-structured interviews with students who volunteered to explain or expand on their answers to the questions in the survey. In total, 15 interviews took place. The participants chose to elaborate on the impact of globalization, English as the language of instruction and as a lingua franca in Qatar, cultural belief regarding gender roles, and the need to negotiate disparate socio-cultural scripts in building an academic and professional identity.

Findings

The first observation issuing from the study was the degree of the participants' interest in exploring their identity. Since in their previous educational experience the topic was insufficiently addressed, if not completely ignored, they welcomed an opportunity to discuss it. At the same time, due to the sensitivity of some issues related to globalization and westernization, they wanted a safe space for reflection and exchange of ideas.

The data showed that WCM-Q students frame their experience in terms of success, achievement, and being members of an elite cohort. They are proud to attend a competitive school and follow a rigorous curriculum. Not surprisingly, they see the education they are getting as a key to social success and a leadership role in shaping the future of their country. This proves especially true in the case of Qatari female students, who emphasize being different from the generation of their mothers and grandmothers due to new opportunities and ambitious future goals.

Like their Western peers, WCM-Q students are technologically savvy, immersed in social media, and familiar with image management strategies. Overall, they are interested in difference and tend to question simple binary categories. However, Qatari students seldom see themselves as bi/multicultural. While enthusiastically embracing the narrative of change they also worry about preserving their ethnic and cultural heritage. Regardless of nationality, the participants defined globalization as Westernization, and 12 % of them associated it with imperialism.

The participants were most eager to talk about gender as a factor in their identity development. Changing gender roles can be problematic for both male and female students. Yet, unquestionably, women's identity performance is much more closely scrutinized. There is no unmarked woman on a transnational campus in the Gulf, where sartorial choices and body language seldom go unnoticed. In addition, WCM-Q female students face the challenge of preparing to enter a non-traditional field. Although medicine is regarded as a prestigious choice for males, more conservative members of the Qatari society view it as a less commendable choice for their daughters or nieces. Accordingly, 85 % of the study participants voiced concerns about being able to successfully balance personal and professional life and 28% mentioned that their career choice might negatively impact their chances of getting married. The interviews clearly proved the significance the participants attached to being able to exercise agency; this was especially important to women, who want to redefine their roles within - not outside - Islamic teaching, by seeking a more modern interpretation of the Quran.

Addressing the topic of EC campus as a model of intercultural and interdisciplinary communication the participants stressed how much they enjoy the "Western" style of teaching defined by them as "class discussions" and less formal interactions with faculty. They also elaborated on the importance of building critical thinking skills. However, while they appreciated the dialogic style of learning and teaching in their classes, they did not see enough dialogue between the institutions located on the same campus, the students from the different EC schools or EC and the community at large.

Discussion

Due to its a small sample, the preliminary research study presented here cannot offer any conclusive answers or solutions. However, it is hoped that it can be used to open a much needed discussion. All learning is situated and educational outcomes are context bound. In this case study, the students' need to negotiate different cultural discourses in daily interactions in and outside of class is undisputable. The participants also proved to be fully aware that in the future, as healthcare practitioners, they will face a similar challenge. Living and learning between languages and cultures is not easy and may exact an emotional toll, especially in the case of younger students. Needless to say, institutional support in the form of counseling, awareness raising activities or intercultural communication workshops can be of great help. But it is also essential that structured, critical reflection on lived experience be incorporated into - and taught across - the curriculum.

To succeed, TNE students need to become critical and self-reflective. Teachers can only serve as mediators in the process of building this habit of mind, but that does not diminish their responsibility for providing students with the tools needed to build symbolic competence.

Originally defined by Kramsch & Whiteside (2008), the concept of symbolic competence has recently been reformulated by Vinall as “the potential to become aware of and critically reflect on and act on the crossing of multiple borders between linguistic codes and cultural meanings, the self and others, various timescales and historical contexts, and power structures” (2016, p.3). This is exactly the type of competence and disposition WCM-Q need and that most TNE students would benefit from. At present, the most obvious place for teaching symbolic competence can be found in the liberal arts courses, especially in freshmen writing classes. After all, as Cumming observes, “Writing is where language, culture and identity intersect” (2013). Hence, writing instructors who work with international students may want to supplement the traditional focus on teaching rhetorical patterns with assignments developing symbolic competence.

The entry points into perspectives fostering symbolic competence in a writing class can be found in activities that highlight reframing and repositioning; this would allow students to develop what “a multilingual imagination, defined as “the capacity to envision alternative ways of remembering an event, of telling a story, of participating in a discussion, of empathizing with others, of imagining their future and ours, and ultimately of defining and measuring success and failure” (Kramsch, 2009, p. 201). Emphasis on building symbolic competence aligns with the principles of liberal arts education and fits in well with the institutional goals of promoting critical thinking and intercultural dialogue. Last but not least, it prepares students for becoming global citizens.

Conclusion

This paper aims to open discussion on developing identity on a TNE campus rather than to offer definitive answers or specific conclusions. It would be a mistake to overlook the affective domain of student academic identity. While more research is needed to find effective pedagogical practices that develop and assess symbolic competence it seems reasonable to propose that helping students explore the interplay between their sociocultural identity and academic identity hones their critical thinking skills and eases the process of acculturation.

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Teaching Collocations in EFL Classroom

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Abstract

The last two decades have witnessed a growing interest in vocabulary items consisting of more than a single word in the field of English language teaching (ELT) (Nation & Meara, 2002, p. 36; Schmitt, 2000, p. 96). Researchers in the area came to notice that language is produced by native speakers as '*chunks*' rather than single words (Schmitt, 2000, p. 42; Read, 2000, p.20). This entails that if language instructors wish English as a foreign language (EFL) learners to attain native-like proficiency, they should be trained on the use of chunks of language and equipped with a large number of them. Such multiple-word items, Schmitt (2000) explains, constitute a rather high percentage of the English language and are drawing more attention. Thus, these chunks of language are worth spending time on in any language course. The purpose of the following paper is two-fold: on the one hand, the researcher intends to get ELT instructors aware of the concept of collocations and its significance, for those who are not already aware of this aspect of language. On the other hand, the researcher aims at suggesting ways to help learners develop collocational knowledge.

Keywords: collocations, formulaic language, language chunks, multiple-word items, vocabulary

Introduction

So what do researchers mean by **chunks** of language? The word speaks for itself, for the word 'chunks' entails that there is a number of words somehow related and function as single units of the language. Moon (1997) says that there is no set of terms or categories that can be labelled as chunks. Yet, Moon further explains that these multi-word items have some degree of "institutionalization, fixedness, and non-compositionality" which distinguishes them from "other kinds of strings" (p. 44). Thornbury (2002) believes that for teaching purposes, idioms, collocations and phrasal verbs are among the most essential chunks of language.

Not having a good repertoire of such language chunks may result in lack of fluency. Students usually tend to take notes of single words and direct their efforts towards studying such words by heart. They also tend to communicate on a word-by-word basis, which consequently hinders their fluency. As language teachers, helping students make maximum use of this 'phenomenon' of language, as well as the time and effort spent on teaching collocations will be rewarding once done properly.

Therefore, in this paper, the researcher attempts first to shed light on what is meant by collocations, then argue for the importance of teaching collocations in any language course. Finally, some suggestions for teaching collocations will be given. The teaching techniques mentioned here can be used in any language skills course, not only a vocabulary course.

1. Language Chunks: Definition

Chunks of language have been defined and labeled by researchers in remarkably various ways. Wray (2000) coins the term *formulaic language*, which according to her is used "to encompass the wide range of phenomena variously labeled" (p. 465). She in fact identifies around 50 terms used in the literature to describe "aspects of formulaicity". On the other hand, Cowie (2009) distinguishes between *set phrases* and *set sentences*, which are obviously both chunks of language, while Nation (2001) uses the term *collocation* to describe both. Nation and Meara (2002) describe such "language units" as *multi-word units*. They further identify other labels used to describe more or less the same concept, including *pre-formulated language*, *formulas*, and *lexical phrases* (p.36).

This disagreement among researchers regarding terminology extends further to what belongs under this category of language. In fact, there is no agreement on what exactly formulaic language is, although most linguists accept its presence in language (Wray, 2008). Nation (2001) also comments on this particular issue by saying that "a major problem in the study of collocations is determining in a consistent way what should be classified as a collocation" (p.317).

Many researchers consider collocations and idioms two ends of the same continuum, with collocations on one end, pure idioms on the other end, and figurative idioms in between (Cowie, 2009, p. 52; Wray, 2008, p. 10). Wray (2008) describes the two ends as "the contentious and the uncontentious," with pure idioms existing on the latter end and collocations on the former (p. 10). Hence, the discrepancy among researchers arises in the area of what constitutes collocations,

in particular, though many consider idioms to be part of collocations. Schmitt (2000) defines idioms as “multiword lexemes that have frozen collocation” (p. 78). Carter (1998) also defines them as “fixed collocations” (p. 66). Nesselhauf (2003) also states that “the line between collocations and idioms . . . is not rigid” (p. 227). All of this suggests that many researchers treat idioms as one type of collocation which has a rather rigid structure.

Researchers have adopted a number of criteria in order to decide whether a string of words is regarded as a collocation or not. One is that the words frequently co-occur together and the other is that there is some degree of semantic opaqueness or as Cowie puts it, ‘an element of figurativeness’ (Nation, 2001, p. 317; Cowie, 2009). This element of figurativeness draws the line between collocations and idioms. All components of an idiom, researchers explain, have some degree of figurativeness or restriction, while in a collocation there is only one item that has a figurative sense (Cowie, 2009, p. 51; Nesselhauf, 2003, p. 226). Schmitt (2000) also states that besides words co-occurring together, “there must also be an element of exclusiveness” (p. 77). He gives the example of *blonde*, which is restricted to nouns like *lady*, *woman*, *hair*, as opposed to *nice*, which can occur with any noun associated with pleasantness. Therefore, the former example is said to collocate strongly, while the latter forms weak collocates (Schmitt, 2000).

The assumption that words in a collocation occur frequently together led researchers to suggest that they are stored, and therefore called upon, as a single unit in the mind. Evidence from corpus analysis and psycholinguistics as well support this belief (Schmitt, 2000, p. 79; Wray, 2008, p. 196; Nunan, 1999, p. 103; Carter, 1998, p.66). By analyzing large amounts of corpora, researchers gained “new insights into how words are distributed in a language” (Kennedy, 2003, p. 468). It is basically corpus analysis that, according to Nation and Meara (2002), “brought extended lexical patterning into the light” (p. 36). Furthermore, language produced by aphasics, old people who have started to lose memory, as well as other types of individuals suffering from communication disorders, proves that the mind stores words as strings rather than single items (Schmitt, 2000, p. 79; Wray, 2008, p. 196). There is also “social evidence” which emerges from studying the language of children acquiring their mother tongue and the language of adults while interacting with one another (Cowie, 1988, p. 13).

The major turning-point in this particular area took place in the early 1990s when Sinclair first introduced the *idiom principle*, which he says is illustrated by collocation (1991, p.115). He defines the idiom principle by saying that “a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analyzable into segments” (p.110). “The widespread and pervasive nature of the idiom principle,” Nation (2001) states, “is used as a justification for the study of groups of words” (p. 324).

To sum up, the researcher would rather adopt the definition proposed by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992). They state that collocations are “strings of words that seem to have a certain mutual expectancy, or a greater-than-chance likelihood that they will co-occur in any text” (p.21). The reason for choosing this particular definition is that it seems broad enough to occupy all types of chunks of language, and it, nevertheless, limits such strings of words to “mutual expectancy.”

2. Why Teach Collocations

There are many strong arguments for the focus on teaching collocations in the language classroom. One is that collocational knowledge accounts for native-like proficiency, which most language learners strive for. Collocations are in fact, as Pawley and Syder (1983) describe them, “the normal building blocks of fluent spoken discourse” (p. 208). These “*building blocks*,” once learners are equipped with, lead to “native-like selection” (Pawley & Syder, 1983), reduce the stress and time of processing language each time the learner uses it (Lewis, 2002, p. 121; Read, 2000, p. 233; Thornbury, 2002, p. 114) and help learners achieve fluency in speaking and writing (Schmitt, 2000, p. 42; Nattinger, 1988, p. 77; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, p. 32).

Focus on teaching grammar might help learners gain accuracy and produce grammatically correct sentences, yet they may not always “sound native-like” (Nation, 2001, p. 323). “Gaining full command of a new language,” Wray (2000) emphasizes “requires the learner to become sensitive to the native speakers' preferences” (p.463). It is definitely such preferences language instructors are after when focusing on collocations, as they help learners sound natural when using the language.

The use of collocations, researchers state, helps reduce processing time, and hence leads to speed when communicating. This point, in particular, has been claimed by Nation (2001) to be the main advantage of chunking (p.320). Nattinger (1988) has further described collocations as “pre-packaged building blocks” (p.75). This analogy the author presents throws light on two essential characteristics of collocations; one is that they are packed up, stored in the mind as single units and ready for the language user to draw on whenever needed. They are also building blocks which gives a sense that they provide the language user with a solid base to stand on when using the language, hence they enhance his/her confidence and fluency.

With the use of collocations, Nattinger (1988) explains, “students will not have to go about reconstructing the language each time they want to say something” (p. 75). Being stored in the mind as single items allows for “more efficient retrieval.” Furthermore, collocations, being large units of discourse, enable the interlocutors to “direct their attention to the larger structure of the discourse” (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, p. 32). Learners need collocations and idiomatic expressions mainly for communication, and, as Wray (2005) explains, lack of them “can impede communication” (p. 58). These building blocks can also be said to bridge the gap between grammar and vocabulary. Scrivener (2005) argues that collocations and chunks “occupy an intermediate zone between vocabulary and grammar” (p.227).

McCarthy (1990) defines collocation as “a marriage contract between words,” symbolizing the strong relationship words hold between each other, and stressing the fact that it definitely is “an important organizing principle in the vocabulary of any language” (p.12). Hence, it is not enough to know the meaning, part of speech, usage and spelling of a word. To use it properly, one should also be familiar with what Firth calls “the company it keeps” (cited in Kennedy, 2003, p. 468). This means that to gain good command of the language, learners must look into collocational knowledge, which is in fact “one important aspect of vocabulary knowledge” (Nation, 2001, p.328).

Another important fact is that language is full of collocations and, as Cowie (2009) clarifies, “much of the language we use . . . is ready-made” (p. 49). Researchers agree that collocational knowledge is part of the native-speakers’ competence (McCarthy, 1990; Nesselhauf, 2003). This accounts for what Carter (1998) calls “collocational mismatches,” which, according to him, “are frequent in the language production of second language learners” (pp.73-74). This problem L2 learners face might be due to the element of unpredictability, whether grammatical or lexical, which is characteristic of collocations. According to Nation (2001), it is this element of unpredictability that “provides some of the justification for giving collocations special attention in a vocabulary course” (p.325). This also might be the reason why collocations are difficult to learn by non-native speakers.

Having such a high status in the language, language instructors can no longer afford to neglect this essential part of language learning. The teaching of chunks, as Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) state “promotes motivation” (p.114), which is reason enough to focus on them in the language classroom.

3. Teaching Collocations

Two challenges a language instructor has to address is the vast number of collocations existing in the language and the fact that there is no best way to teach collocations (Schmitt, 2000, p. 88). “Collocation,” Schmitt says, “is an advanced type of vocabulary knowledge that is difficult to know how to teach” (p.89). Hence, one basic question to ask, having known that the language is full of collocations, is which ones are language instructors supposed to focus on (Nesselhauf, 2003, p. 223; Schmitt, 2000, p. 81). Researchers have proposed some criteria against which language instructors should base their selection. This includes: “frequency” (Nation, 2001, p. 325; Moon, 1997, p. 61), “congruence and restriction” (Nesselhauf, 2003, p. 238). Schmitt (2000) also emphasizes the importance of congruence by suggesting the necessity of addressing “only the collocations with no direct translation equivalents” (p. 81).

One fact to be considered in this respect is that native speakers tend to internalize chunks of language without even being aware of it, simply by frequent exposure to words that collocate together. On the contrary, L2 learners, even at advanced levels, have a lot of difficulty using and mastering collocations (Nesselhauf, 2003, p. 237; Wray, 2000, p. 468). Wray (2005) believes that the main reason for this is insufficient exposure to the language (p.57). However, foreign language learners must be made aware of this phenomenon. In fact “consciousness-raising” along with “frequent exposure” are considered by many researchers to be the main steps in teaching collocations (Lewis, 2002, p. 121; Thornbury, 2002, p. 116).

According to Nesselhauf (2003), the problems L2 learners usually have are with the production of collocations rather than comprehension (p.224). However, Nation (2001) believes that when teaching learners receptive skills, i.e. listening and reading, the teacher must focus on “the predictability of the meaning” of collocations. This entails the focus on two particular aspects “semantic opaqueness and uniqueness of meaning” (p.325). These aspects, according to Nation, are what cause the learning burden and should be taken into consideration in listening and reading courses. However, when dealing with productive skills, the focus should depend on

“the predictability of form”. This means that the focus in speaking and writing classes should shift to “the co-occurrence of its members” (p.328).

In vocabulary courses, the language instructor can provide basic training on the use of concordances as an aid to teaching collocations. Then, once a vocabulary lesson is delivered, the instructor could choose a group of words from those presented in the lesson and provide concordances on them. The students' task is to study the concordances and come up with the most frequent collocations for each node. There is also the use of WORDLES which might be useful in this respect. WORDLES are word clouds made from authentic texts. They “encourage focus on collocation and chunking” and are also “fun and visually attractive” as opposed to concordances (Harrison, 2009).

Students might be asked to jot down the collocations in their notebooks and also memorize them. Nation (2001) clarifies that “the memorization of unanalyzed chunks is an important strategy” (p. 336). This leads to another technique suggested by Lewis (2002), which is the use of “lexical notebooks”. He states that “the concept of a lexical notebook needs to replace the traditional vocabulary book” (p. 49). In these notebooks, students are advised to include “words, strong collocations, and fully fixed expressions with L1 equivalents” (Lewis, 2002, p. 76). Students should also be encouraged to keep a collocation dictionary, or even an ordinary one that highlights collocation, and refer to it whenever needed.

In regards to similarities between L1 and L2, Bahns suggests that “we limit instruction to nontransferable collocates” (cited in Schmitt, 2000, p. 89). It is the ones that have no equivalents in the learners' mother tongue that will cause learners problems. Hence, they are among the group of collocations language instructors should focus on. Nation (2001) states that “where collocations are similar between the first and second language, the learning burden will be lighter” (p. 56). This entails that such collocations might even be internalized by L2 learners unconsciously, though I believe drawing their attention to the similarity might help more in making the collocation part of their active knowledge.

Kennedy (2003) also suggests encouraging autonomous learning of collocations, particularly through reading (p.484). Many researchers suggest the use of grids for teaching collocations (Schmitt, 2000, p. 88, Nation, 2001, p. 336). Lewis' two books *Teaching Collocation* and *Implementing the Lexical Approach* are full of practical ways of teaching collocation. One way suggested by Woolard (2000) is keeping, as a language instructor, a record of mis-collocations which can be used in class at appropriate times (p. 30). Nation (2001) also suggests some activities like matching collocates and finding collocates, in which the students either use the dictionary or draw on their own knowledge of both L1 and L2 (p. 106).

Conclusion

To conclude, the significance and abundance of collocations and chunks in the English language is a phenomenon worthy of notice. Thus, language teachers wishing for their learners to achieve native-like proficiency should invest class time in teaching collocations and ensuring their students are well-exposed to them. The paper aimed at getting language instructors aware of

this phenomenon of language and presenting a variety of ways to assist learners acquire collocational knowledge.

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Teaching and Assessing 21st Century Critical Thinking Skills in Morocco: A Case Study

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Abstract

To meet the demands of the twenty-first century, most educational institutions across the world made critical thinking one of their primary goals. Very recently, some Moroccan universities, such as University of Moulay Ismail in Meknes, have also included critical thinking as a major course. Therefore, the purpose of this qualitative study is to examine the pedagogies Moroccan teachers use, the challenges they face, and their conception of how to effectively teach and assess critical thinking in the Moroccan context. A case study approach is used to collect data based on documents and a semi-structured interview. The results indicate that there are at least three main challenges that CT teachers face in Morocco: (1) lack of training, (2) students' background, and (3) education politics. The findings also reveal that good teaching practices are possible if some measures are taken, namely educational reform.

Key words: Assessment, critical thinking skills, dispositions, effective teaching

Introduction

The need for logical thinkers, good decision makers, creative thinkers/innovators, and effective problem solvers in the twenty-first century has made of critical thinking an essential skill for educators, employers and policy makers in most countries of the world (Bell, Stevenson, Neary, 2009; Halpern, 2003; Inch & Warnick, 2011; Paul, 2005). For Trilling and Fadel (2009), there are three crucial skills that can lead to “unlocking a lifetime of learning and creative work” in the twenty-first century:

- Critical thinking and problem solving (expert thinking)
- Communication and collaboration (complex communicating)
- Creativity and innovation (applied imagination and invention) (p. 49).

Trilling and Fadel (2009) put critical thinking in the first place because they know that it has become a must and one of the foremost requirements of the twenty-first century education and job market.

In higher education, most universities and colleges nowadays consider this skill one of the “core learning outcomes” of their students. Liu, Frankel, and Roohr (2014), for instance, reason that:

Critical thinking is one of the most frequently discussed higher order skills, believed to play a central role in logical thinking, decision making, and problem solving [...]. Despite contention, critical thinking has received heightened attention from educators and policy makers in higher education and has been included as one of the core learning outcomes of college students by many institutions. (p.1)

Also, in a very recent survey conducted by the Association of American Colleges and Universities, “95% of the chief academic officers from 433 institutions rated critical thinking as one of the most important intellectual skills for their students” (Liu, Frankel, & Roohr, 2014, p.1). Obviously, these facts show that critical thinking has become valuable today more than ever before inside educational institutions and within society at large. It can undoubtedly make students more rational and better citizens.

Statement of the Problem

In its attempt to redress the shortcomings of the 2003-2004 reform, the Ministry of Higher Education in Morocco launched a second reform in 2013. Thanks to this reform, Moroccan university teachers were given more freedom to suggest and offer their own **courses** in semesters 5 and 6. At University of Moulay Ismail, for example, the Faculty of Arts and Humanities in Meknes offered critical thinking as a course during the Academic year 2014-2015. However, research in the field of critical thinking has shown that teaching and assessing this course pose several extra difficulties. Different studies have shown that teaching critical thinking is not only “hard” (Willingham, 2008), but also challenging due to several factors such as the course objectives, course contents, number of students, logistics, etc.

Purposes of the Study

This study has three main objectives. The first purpose is to explore how Moroccan university teachers conceptualize teaching and assessing critical thinking. The second objective

is to identify the main challenges of teaching and assessing critical thinking in Moroccan higher education. The third objective is to examine how Moroccan university teachers perceive effective critical thinking teaching and to suggest a set of good practices and skills for teachers within the Arab world in general and in Morocco in particular.

Research Questions

RQ1: How do Moroccan teachers conceptualize and teach/assess critical thinking in Moroccan higher education?

RQ2: What are the challenges that teachers face in teaching and assessing critical thinking to Moroccan university students?

RQ3: How do Moroccan teachers perceive effective teaching and assessing critical thinking in Moroccan higher education?

Literature Review

In dealing with the issue of teaching and assessing critical thinking in the twenty-first century, researchers are often faced with the hard task of dealing with a set of questions that have been raised by a great number of scholars. The literature shows that the most frequently asked questions are the following: (1) what is critical thinking? (2) What is the difference between critical thinking and critical thinking skills? (3) Is critical thinking teachable? (4) Why is critical thinking hard to teach? (5) If critical thinking is teachable, what critical thinking skills do students need to develop? (6) How can we test critical thinking? (7) And what twenty-first critical thinking skills should we teach and assess? (Emerson, 2013). However, since the major aim of this study is to explore how critical thinking skills are taught and assessed in the twenty-first century, the focus of this review of the literature is on answering some of these questions more than others.

Critical Thinking Defined

Extant literature reveals that although several scholars from different disciplines have defined critical thinking differently, it is still hard to find an agreed upon definition of the term. The lack of an accurate definition of critical thinking is also reflected in the literature on teaching and assessing critical thinking in different areas and disciplines (Ennis, 1993; Facione, 1990; Paul, 1989). Consequently, many scholars today refer to critical thinking as a “contentious skill” characterized by controversy not only about how to define it, but also about how to assess its effects on students’ life inside and outside educational institutions. It is no wonder, then, that Liu, Frankel, and Roohr (2014) uphold that

It [critical thinking] is also a highly contentious skill in that researchers debate about its definition; its amenability to assessment; its degree of generality or specificity; and the evidence of its practical impact on people’s academic achievements, career advancements, and personal life choices. (p.1)

To understand why so much controversy revolves around critical thinking, it is deemed necessary to answer the following question: How has critical thinking been defined by some prominent critical thinking scholars?

One of the most popular definitions of critical thinking is that of Ennis (1985). For Ennis, “Critical thinking is reasonable reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do” (1985, p. 44). Although Ennis (1985) defines critical thinking as “reasonable reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do”, he himself acknowledged later on in 1993 that his definition was not accurate enough and needed to be refined: “As it stands, however, this definition is also as vague as Bloom's taxonomy” (Ennis, 1993, p. 180).

In 2003, Halpern suggested a more detailed definition including several aspects of critical thinking such as problem-solving, inference-making, using the context, and dealing with tasks that need thinking, and so on:

the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. It is used to describe thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal directed—the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions, when the thinker is using skills that are thoughtful and effective for the particular context and type of thinking task. (p. 6)

Very recently, Hunter (2014) has given a “deeper value” to critical thinking by tying it not only to truth, but also to citizens’ freedom, decision-making, and “personal autonomy”:

critical thinking has a deeper value than just its ties to truth. Critical thinking is also closely tied to one variety of freedom. By thinking critically, one can make up one’s own mind and making up one’s own mind is essential if we are to be the master of our own lives. Critical thinking ...is essential to personal autonomy. (p.2)

Critical Thinking Dispositions

To explore the role of dispositions in teaching and assessing critical thinking, several scholars have advanced several tentative definitions of critical thinking dispositions (Facione, 2000). Ennis (1996), for instance, thinks that “a disposition is a tendency to do something, given certain conditions. The brittleness of glass is a standard example of a disposition: a tendency to break into a number of pieces when struck” (p. 166). For Perkins, Jay and Tishman (1993), a disposition has three main components: (1) “inclination”, (2) “sensitivity”, and (3) “ability”.

In order to make critical thinking dispositions more practical in the classroom, some scholars have developed different lists and typologies of critical thinking dispositions (Facione, 2000). One of the most important contributions on dispositions is that of Ennis (1996). He writes a detailed review of the existing lists of critical thinking dispositions and suggests his own list of dispositions based on six criteria: (1) “simplicity”, (2) “comprehensiveness”, (3) “value”, (4) “comprehensibility”, (5) “conformity of its language to our everyday meanings”, and (6) “the fitting of subordinates (if any) under superordinates” (Ennis, 1996, p. 170). Ennis’s list is composed of 3 broad dispositions. The first disposition (Ennis, 1996, p. 171) is related to caring about the truth of beliefs and making justified decisions (“Care that their beliefs be true, and that their decisions be justified; that is, *care to ‘get it right’ to the extent possible*, or at least care to do the best they can”). This disposition is divided into 4 sub-dispositions:

A. *Seek alternatives* (hypotheses, explanations, conclusions, plans, sources), and *be open* to them;

- B. *Endorse a position to the extent that, but only to the extent that, it is justified by the information that is available;*
- C. *Be well-informed;* and
- D. *Seriously consider points of view other than their own.*(p. 171)

The second disposition (p. 171) concerns the representation of a stand in an honest and clear way (“*Represent a position honestly and clearly*”). This disposition, too, requires the use of other subdispositions:

- A. *Be clear about the intended meaning of what is said, written, or other communicated, seeking as much precision as the situation requires;*
- B. *Determine, and maintain focus on, the conclusion or question;*
- C. *Seek and offer reasons;*
- D. *Take into account the total situation;* and
- E. *Be reflectively aware of their own basic beliefs.*(p.171)

The third disposition relates to caring about dignity and people’s worth (“*Care about the dignity and worth of every person*”). This disposition includes three other subdispositions:

- A. *Discover and listen to others' view and reasons;*
- B. *Take into account others' feelings and level of understanding, avoiding intimidating or confusing others with their critical thinking prowess; and*
- C. *Be concerned about others' welfare* (Ennis, 1996, p. 171).

In a nutshell, the development of different typologies of critical thinking dispositions has made teaching, testing, and conducting research on critical thinking in the twenty-first century more practical in comparison to the past.

Teaching Critical Thinking Approaches

In the twentieth century, critical thinking gained much interest and became a rich field of research for scholars from different disciplines. The most important findings came from the fields of philosophy, psychology, and education. These findings strongly influence and guide the approaches and methods used in teaching critical thinking in the twenty-first century (Emerson, 2013; Van Gelder, 2005).

Teaching critical thinking today is guided by four major approaches (Abrami, et al., 2008; Emerson, 2013). First, some teachers use the “mixed approach” which perceives critical thinking as a separate “unit within a course of other content”. Second, some teachers use the “immersion approach” where critical thinking is “a by-product of instruction”. Third, other teachers adopt the “general approach” which relies on explicit teaching of critical thinking. Lastly, some other teachers prefer to use the “infusion approach”: in this approach critical thinking skills are “embedded in the course content” in an explicit way (Emerson, 2013, pp. 8-9). In spite of the richness of the approaches used in teaching critical thinking, it has been subject to continuous criticism from both practitioners and researchers alike (Ennis, 1987; Ennis, 1993; Sternberg, 1985; Sternberg, 1987; Willingham, 2008). A telling example of this criticism is that of Court (1991). In an article entitled “Teaching Critical Thinking: What do we Know?”, Court

gives an accurate analysis of the existing approaches of teaching critical thinking. The central question in Court's article is on what teachers need to "foster the development of critical thinkers". She starts by dividing the approaches to teaching critical thinking into five types: (1) the process/skills approach, (2) the problem-solving approach, (3) the logic approach, (4) the information-processing approach, and (5) the multi-aspect approach. Then, she directs a harsh criticism to the ineffectiveness of the existing critical thinking teaching approaches. For her, although these approaches have some usefulness in teaching critical thinking, they all suffer from some weaknesses because "[n]one is perfect" and "[m]ost are incomplete in that they disregard the important role of values in making judgements" (p. 117). To produce good critical thinkers, Court (1991) maintains that there is a need for a new vision. But, what are the components of this new vision? Court maintains that for this vision to be effective, the following measures should be taken into consideration: (1) "we need to employ the many useful approaches we have for teaching critical thinking", (2) "we must work to redesign schools so that they are less authoritarian", and (3) we should make schools "less examination driven" (p. 117).

Teaching and Assessing Critical Thinking in the New Millennium

Research on teaching and assessing critical thinking in the new millennium has been characterized by two main features: (1) an ongoing criticism of the approaches used in teaching critical thinking in higher education, and (2) a better awareness of the need for developing new critical thinking assessment constructs (Hooks, 2010; Liu, Frankel, & Roohr, 2014).

Teaching Critical Thinking in the New Millennium: A Continuous Debate

Although teaching critical thinking is not a new concern in the field of education, there is still a large controversy on how to teach it (more particularly at university) even in those countries with a long experience in the field, such as the United States and Canada (Willingham, 2008; Moore, 2004).

The debate over critical thinking teaching approaches became more visible in the United States of America in the last decade of the twenty-first century when some prominent scholars of critical thinking started to criticize the teaching practices of critical thinking (Court, 1999; Ennis, 1993). The debate is still going on today between two different movements; it is commonly known as the "generic vs. discipline-specific debate" (Moore, 2007). The generalist movement, on the one hand, is championed by Robert Ennis and has two main characteristics. First, it sees critical thinking as "stand-alone" subject that aims to equip learners with a "set of critical thinking dispositions and abilities" (Moore, 2007, p. 5). These dispositions and abilities are used to enable students "to decide what to believe and to do" (Moore, 2007, p. 5). It also sees the test as a series of subtests dealing with different aspects of critical thinking. The second movement, on the other hand, is led by McPeck, who considers critical thinking a specific discipline. As a specifist, McPeck (1990) argues that "if we improve the quality of understanding through the disciplines (which may have little to do with 'logic' directly), you will then get a concomitant improvement in the thinking capacity" (p. 21).

Another important element in this debate is about the transferability of critical thinking skills and abilities (Abrami et al, 2008; Kuhn, 2001). For some scholars, the transfer of critical thinking skills and abilities from one context into another is not plausible. Halpern (2014) thinks

that students generally fail to apply the critical thinking skills they learnt in the classroom in similar contexts in real-life situations due to several factors such as the absence of clear “cues”.

Assessing Critical Thinking in the 21st Century: The Need for New Constructs

The lack of a general consensus on a specific definition of critical thinking is reflected on how critical thinking is assessed even at the level university (Court, 1991; Ennis, 1993). Teaching critical thinking at university requires setting the objectives of the course that can be tested/assessed. These objectives both determine the pedagogies used by the instructor in performing the lectures/lessons and play the role of guidelines in critical thinking assessment. However, research has shown that most of the time the tests given rarely foster critical thinking or meet the objectives of the course (Bensley, Crowe, Bernhardt, Buckner, & Allman, 2010; Paul & Edler, 2006).

In the United States of America, universities and colleges usually make use of the existing tests to assess their students' critical levels. The most popular critical thinking assessments are presented in Table 1:

Table1. Most popular assessments of critical thinking (Adapted from Liu, Frankel, & Roohr, 2014, pp. 5-7)

Test	Format	Forms and Items	Length
California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI)	Selected-response (Likert Scale- extent to which students agree or disagree)	75 items (seven scales: 9–12 items per scale)	30 min
California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTS)	Multiple-choice (MC)	34 items (vignette based)	45 min
California Measure of Mental Motivation (CM3)	Selected-response (4-point Likert scale: strongly disagree to strongly agree)	72 items	20 min
Collegiate Assessment of Academic Proficiency (CAAP) Critical Thinking	MC	32 items (includes four passages representative of issues commonly encountered in a postsecondary curriculum)	40 min
Collegiate Learning Assessment + (CLA+)	Performance task (PT) and MC	26 items (one PT; 25 MC)	90 min (60 min for PT; 30 min for MC)
Cornell Critical Thinking	MC	Level X: 71 items	50 min (can also

Test (CCTT)			beadministereduntimed)
Ennis–Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test	Essay	Nine-paragraphessay/letter	40 mn
ETS ProficiencyProfile (EPP) Critical Thinking	MC	27 items (standardform)	About 40 min (full test is 2 h)
Halpern CriticalThinking Assessment(HCTA)	Forced choice (MC, ranking, or rating of alternatives) and open-ended	25 scenarios ofeveryday events (five per subcategory) S1: Both open-ended and forced choice items S2: All forced choice items	60–80 min, but test is untimed(Form S1)20min, but test isuntimed(Form S2)
Watson–GlaserCritical ThinkingAppraisal tool(WGCTA)	MC	80 items	Standard:40–60min(Forms A and B) if timed

In spite of their immense popularity in the United States, these assessments (California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) and Halpern Critical Thinking Assessment (HCTA), etc.) have started to lose their effectiveness. In the twenty-first century, several scholars have studied these tests in depth and found that they have several weaknesses and deficiencies at different levels (e.g., Liu, Frankel, &Roohr, 2014).

Scholars such as Condon and Kelly-Riley (2004) and Ennis (1993) argue that the weaknesses of these tests lie in the types of questions they use/ask. For Ennis (1993), tests using “multiple choice”, “rating alternatives”, and “selected response” do not accurately reflect students’ critical thinking levels. Other scholars think that tests, like the *Ennis-Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test*, are not efficient enough because they rely only on essay tests to assess students’ critical thinking abilities (Liu, Frankel, &Roohr, 2014).

Similarly, other scholars uphold that standardized tests have other risks. One of these risks is that the results of the students are sometimes “misleading”. Different analyses have shown that getting good grades in these standardized tests can never guarantee that the students have really become effective critical thinkers(Hatcher, 2011).Another misleading element is that effectiveness in teaching critical thinking depends, to a great extent, on the teacher’s personal competence in critical thinking(Court, 1991; Ennis, 1996).

For Liu, Frankel, and Roohr (2014),all the critical thinking assessments on Table 1 suffer from deficiencies at the level of “reliability or “validity”. These authors argue that there are common problems with these standardized assessments like “insufficient evidence of distinct dimensionality, unreliable subscores, noncomparable test forms, and unclear evidence of differential validity across groups of test takers” (Liu, Frankel, &Roohr, 2014, p. 8).

To solve some of thesetest deficiencies, Liu, Frankel, and Roohr (2014) propose their own framework for “next-generation critical thinking assessment”. The authors explain that:

This framework consists of five dimensions, including two *analytical* dimensions (i.e., evaluating evidence and its use; analyzing arguments); two *synthetic* dimensions, which assess students' abilities to understand implications and consequences and to produce their own arguments; and one dimension relevant to all of the analytical and synthetic dimensions — understanding causation and explanation. (Liu, Frankel, & Roohr, 2014, p. 14)

In their framework, Liu, Frankel, and Roohr (2014) present how they conceive the “foci of assessment” and some “possible tasks types”. Some of their ideas are summarized in Table 2:

Table 2: Framework for next-generation critical thinking assessment (Liu, Frankel, & Roohr, 2014, pp. 15-17)

Foci of Assessment	Possible Tasks Types
• Evaluate evidence in larger context • Evaluate relevance and expertise of sources • Recognize the possibilities of bias in evidence offered • Evaluate relevance of evidence and how well it supports the conclusion stated or implied in the argument • Analyze argument structure • Evaluate argument structure • Draw or recognize conclusions from evidence provided • Extrapolate implications • Develop valid arguments • Develop sound argument • Evaluate causal claims, including distinguishing causation from correlation and considering possible alternative causes or explanations • Generate or evaluate explanations	○ Categorize information ○ Identify features ○ Recognize evidence/conclusion relationships ○ Recognize inconsistency ○ Revise argument ○ Supply critical questions ○ Multistep argument evaluation or creation ○ Detailed argument analysis ○ Compare arguments ○ Draw conclusion/extrapolate ○ Information ○ Construct argument

The framework in Table 2 seems to be promising as it gives both teachers and researchers an idea about assessing critical thinking in the future. However, Liu, Frankel, and Roohr (2014) strike a warning note in the conclusion of their report; they think that designing assessment for the next generation is both difficult and complex because it:

requires the collaboration between domain experts, assessment developers, measurement experts, institutions, and faculty members. Coordinated efforts are required throughout the process of assessment development, including defining the construct, designing the assessment, pilot testing and field testing to evaluate the psychometric quality of the assessment items and establish scales, setting standards to determine the proficiency levels, and researching validity. (p. 19)

To sum up, the literature on teaching and assessing critical thinking is largely based on research and experiences in Western countries. A quick search for the literature on this issue

shows that there is a dearth of information in other contexts and cultures. The very few studies conducted in countries like Iran (Fahim&Bagheri, 2012), Turkey, China, and Morocco remain insufficient and cannot give enough insights about teaching and assessing critical thinking in places like Asia or the Arab world. In other words, there is a huge need for more research in this domain.

Research Design and Methodology

Research Design

This qualitative study explores how teachers perceive teaching/assessing critical thinking and the challenges they face in Moroccan higher education. To be more specific, this study uses a case study approach to collect data about the issue of teaching and assessing critical thinking in Morocco (Paton, 2002).

The focus was just on one case for different reasons. First, the selected teacher in this study was the first to teach critical thinking at the Faculty of Arts and Humanities, University of Moulay Ismail. Second, the teacher has a long experience in teaching Moroccan university students and has been teaching critical thinking for two years. Third, in a study (Chouari, 2016) conducted during the academic year 2014-2015 on students' perceptions on learning critical thinking, there was a general consensus among the interviewees that the course had been successful thanks to their teacher's competence.

Data Collection

Since qualitative studies are inductive in nature, gathering data focused on speaking directly to a teacher of critical thinking in one of the Moroccan universities to have direct access to his teaching and assessment practices. The data for this study were collected from three primary sources: (1) the course description from the "filiere" (Department of English, School of Arts and Humanities, University of Moulay Ismail) accredited by the Moroccan Ministry of Higher Education in 2014, (2) the contents of the course used by the selected teacher (collected during March and April, 2016), (3) the tests administered by the selected teacher during the academic years 2014-2015 and 2015-2016, and (4) the semi-structured interview conducted with the teacher by the end of June, 2016.

Instrument

To collect data, a semi-structured interview was used (Creswell, 2003; Gillham, 2005). This type of instrument made it possible for the researcher to understand how the participant conceives and perceives the phenomenon under study.

The interview questions were divided in three categories. First, the interview started with some "warm-up questions" that have a general or neutral aspect such as "can you introduce yourself?" And "how long have you been teaching?". Then other questions and probes on teaching and assessing critical thinking were used. These included questions about defining critical thinking, lesson planning, objectives of the course, challenges faced by the teacher in the Moroccan context, designing critical thinking tests, and so on. The last category of questions focused on the interviewee's final remarks and a possible "follow-up".

The Participant

Given that this study is based on a case study, it is deemed necessary to give some general information about the participant. The main pieces of information on the participant are summarized in Table 2:

Table 3: Participant's fact file

Gender	Male
Degree	PhD: University of La Sorbonne (France)
Specialty	English Studies
Teaching Experience	University teacher since 1993
Experience in teaching critical Thinking	2 years
Current place of work	Faculty of Arts and Humanities, University of Moulay Ismail, Meknes, Morocco
Fields of Interest	Media studies, Visual Arts, Critical Thinking, and Literature

Documentation

This study used documentation as a primary source because documents are considered an important source of information in qualitative studies (Glesne, 2006). Therefore, the data were collected from the professor's documents (course syllabus, class assignments, and copies of exams of 2014-2015 and 2015-2016) and the course description accredited by the Ministry of Higher Education in Morocco.

Data Analysis

Data are analyzed based on qualitative content analysis. After collecting the data during March and April, 2016, they were transcribed (interview data) and coded based on predetermined themes and emerging ones (Paton, 2002).

Findings

The findings of this study are based on data collected from the documents and the semi-structured interview conducted with the participant (a case study). The findings are, therefore, organized according to the three research questions developed at the beginning of this study.

Findings for Research Question 1

RQ1: How do Moroccan teachers conceptualize and teach/assess critical thinking in Moroccan higher education?

The main objective behind this question is to understand if there is compatibility between how the respondent defines critical thinking and his goals behind teaching the course since research indicates that the goals of teaching critical thinking should go hand in hand with how critical thinking is defined by the teacher. To find out if this connection is made in the Moroccan context, three questions were directed to the respondent: (1) Briefly, how do you define critical thinking? (2) What are the goals that you take into consideration for teaching this course? (3) Do you follow the objectives given in the course description of the "Filiere"?

Indeed, the answers to the above questions reveal the presence of some problems both at the theoretical and the practical levels. First, the respondent defined critical thinking as follows: "generally speaking, critical thinking is the ability to rationally analyze texts either when

receiving or producing them. Some skills are required to achieve this goal and these are the technical body of a critical thinking course". Then, when asked about the goals behind teaching critical thinking, the respondents' answer seems to focus mostly on making students active generators of meaning, rather than passive recipients:

My ultimate goal is to prepare the students to be producers of meaning rather than passive consumers of ready-made answers and formulas. When students master the philosophy of critical thinking, they become intelligent, active and productive citizens.

Third, the respondent explicitly admits that he does not follow the objectives of the "filier", for the following reason: "I design the class myself, but I coordinate with other colleagues who teach the same class". The respondent's response shows that he is both creative and innovative as he does not follow formal instructions in a blind way; it also reveals that he is flexible and open enough to work in teams and share with other colleagues. Some of these traits are clearly displayed in the comparison between the course contents accredited by the Ministry and the contents of the teacher's lectures in Table 3 below:

Table 4: Contents of course description and respondents' lectures

Course description (Accredited by the Ministry)	Contents of respondent's Lectures
❖ Understand the importance of critical thinking in their academic and professional life. ❖ Identify the difference between an argument, a pseudo-argument, and a non-argument. ❖ Recognize underlying assumptions and implicit arguments. ❖ Understand the difference between inductive and deductive reasoning. ❖ Identify logical fallacies in an argument. ❖ Find and evaluate sources of evidence. ❖ Understand features of critical, analytical writing. ❖ Use MLA/APA styles for in-text citations. ❖ Use MLA/APA style to format reference lists. ❖ Identify a topic worthy of academic research. ❖ Find, evaluate, and make notes from a variety of academic sources. ❖ Write a critical, analytical research paper. Deliver an oral presentation based on library research.	➤ General introduction ➤ Gains and barriers ➤ Basics: ○ Claims, evidence and , and reasoning ➤ Claims: ○ Factual claims, ○ Value claims, ○ Policy claims ○ Practice ➤ Evidence ○ Types of evidence: ○ Fact evidence; ○ Report and description, statistics, artifacts. ○ Opinion as to fact evidence ➤ Reasoning ○ Six forms: Quasilogical, analogy, generalization, cause, coexistence, dissociation. ➤ Understanding fallacies ○ Types of fallacies: Audience-based fallacies, language-based fallacies, grounding fallacies, and reasoning-based fallacies. ➤ Critical thinking and culture ○ The multicultural argument ○ Cultural argument development

	○ Culture and values ○ Ethics and culture

Findings for Research Question 2

RQ 2: What are the challenges that teachers face in teaching and assessing critical thinking to Moroccan university students?

Teaching and assessing critical thinking in Arab/Muslim countries, such as Morocco, is not an easy task. As the findings show, this course poses a variety of challenges due to the prevailing culture and the educational system adopted by the country.

In teaching critical thinking in Morocco, these two factors present serious barriers since they fundamentally contradict the essence of critical thinking itself. In the classroom, teachers are faced with both students' resistance as they are required to question everything by using "Socratic questions", analysis, logic, and reasoning. In dealing with different issues such as religion and taboos, students often become reluctant or unwilling to venture in areas where religion, culture, and matters of belief(s) are put under scrutiny. The second important challenge that teachers face is that of the educational system in the country – a system that is essentially based on memorization and rote learning. In other words, students are not trained to see themselves as active learners and generally lack the motivation to take risks or make mistakes since an early age (Tibi, 2001). These barriers/challenges are well-summarized by the respondent in the following:

The Islamic mindset is shaped by religion and absolute beliefs. Critical thinking interrogates all assumptions and validates only rational arguments and evidence. Moroccan students all come from an educational system that favors memorization and therefore are not prepared to understand a class where rote learning is obsolete.

At the level of testing, both designing and administering tests present daunting challenges to the instructor. The respondent thinks that there are four important obstacles to testing critical thinking in Morocco: "Big classes, cultural barriers, time pressure, and the newness of this class in Moroccan university". For the respondent, teaching and testing a class composed of 170 or 180 undergraduate students is a grueling task. What is more, in addition to the cultural background of the students and the time pressure, students find it hard to cope with questions that require them to use critical thinking skills that need long training to become habits of the mind.

To meet the objectives of the course, the instructor often designs questions that need high order thinking skills. The findings show that the instructor is aware of these difficulties, but he thinks that "the end justifies the means":

I never use definition questions. I rather test the critical abilities of the students. The question could be a given situation they should analyze, a magazine cover or advertisement they should consider critically, a popular dictum or tradition they interrogate, etc.

The testing strategies the instructor uses in assessing his students are compatible with what he said in the above quotation. The following set of questions taken from the exam of the fall semester of 2015-2016 are clear evidence of what the teacher said during the interview about the types of questions he uses in designing critical thinking tests:

Question 1: In one paragraph, provide a definition of Critical Thinking. Your answers should be personal. Plagiarized answers will be sanctioned.

Question 2: Write an argumentation according to the narrative pattern to explain how traditional schooling is boring.

Question 3: Read this letter and write a short analysis of its claim, evidence, reasoning and sphere.

Cocaine Is Even Deadlier Than We Thought
 LOUIS L. CREGLER and HERBERT MARK

To the Editor:

In his July 3 letter about recreational cocaine use, Dr. Carl C. Pfeiffer notes that some of the toxic effects of cocaine on the heart have long been known to those versed in pharmacology. We wish to point out that cardiologists and neurologists are seeing additional complications not previously known. Indeed, little information on the cardiovascular effects of cocaine appeared until recently.

As Dr. Pfeiffer says, cocaine sensitizes the heart to the normal stimulant effects of the body's adrenaline. This ordinarily makes the heart beat much faster and increases blood pressure significantly. Cocaine abuse has also been associated with strokes, heart attacks (acute myocardial infarctions), and sudden deaths. Individuals with weak blood vessels (aneurysms or arteriovenous malformations) in the head are at greatest risk of having a stroke. With the sudden surge in blood pressure, a blood vessel can burst. Cocaine can also cause blood vessels supplying the heart muscle itself to undergo vasoconstriction (coronary spasm), and this can produce a heart attack.

Deaths have been reported after administration of cocaine by all routes. Most such deaths are attributed to cocaine intoxication, leading to generalized convulsions, respiratory failure, and cardiac arrhythmias, minutes to hours after administration. Much of this information is so new that it has not found its way into the medical literature or standard textbooks.

Cocaine abuse continues to escalate in American society. It is estimated that 30 million Americans have used it, and some 5 million use it regularly. As cocaine has become less expensive, its availability and purity are increasing. It has evolved from a minor problem into a major threat to public health. And as use has increased, greater numbers of emergency-room visits, cocaine-related heart problems, and sudden deaths have been reported. With so many people using cocaine, it is not unexpected that more strokes, heart attacks, and sudden cardiac deaths will be taking place.

Louis L. Cregler, M.D.
 Herbert Mark, M.D.

Question 4: Read the information provided in this ad and explain the main goal of the arguer. Then explain if this argument would be effective in the Moroccan context.



Figure 1: (see Rottenberg, 1994, p. 244)

Findings for Research Question 3

RQ3: How do Moroccan teachers perceive effective teaching and assessing critical thinking in Moroccan higher education?

As stated above, teaching critical thinking in Morocco is a daunting task, but the findings of this study indicate that effective teaching is also possible. The documents and the responses of the instructor demonstrate that good teaching can take place in Moroccan higher university when, and if, some measures are taken at different levels.

First and foremost, at the classroom level, effective teaching requires innovative, creative, flexible, and risk-taking teachers (Halpern, 2003). To be an effective critical thinking teacher in Moroccan higher education, you need to adapt and adopt different materials (including online references and activities), and to create situations that can make students reflective thinkers and that relate the course contents to their own lives. This process is explained by the respondent as follows:

Most books are written by American scholars. There are no textbooks designed for Moroccan students. Therefore, I use these books and try to contextualize them. For example, the cases we study in class or the exercises are taken from Moroccan media, society, culture, etc.

To possess a spirit of collaboration in dealing with other colleagues is also an important element to effectively teach critical thinking in Morocco. The respondent acknowledges that “a

class requires a lot of research and preparation. I have to read all the available books on a given issue, compare them, select which is more useful and sometimes combine several references to design one class". He further admits that he does not always work alone: "I design the class myself, but I coordinate with other colleagues who teach the same class".

The last crucial measure for effective critical thinking teaching is that of reform of the politics of education in Moroccan higher education. Without implementing radical reform in the politics of education in Morocco, personal efforts at the level of the classroom would remain ineffective. This view is strongly emphasized by the respondent when he articulates the importance of this type of reform in the context of higher education in Morocco:

I personally believe that the issue is more complex than personal effort; it is a systemic and structural question related to the politics of education at large. Serious reforms should be applied to curricula to favor rationality, modern thoughts, diversity, among others.

Discussion

The findings of this study have a lot of things in common with several studies in the literature (e.g., Fahim&Bagheri, 2012; Van Gelder, 2005). However, the findings also demonstrate that teaching/assessing critical thinking in Morocco has its own specificities and challenges due to the context and the culture where it takes place. Additionally, the finding make is clear that good/effective teaching is also possible if several requirements are met.

The documents provided by the participant (contents of the course, course description and objectives, and exam samples) show that Moroccan higher education teachers use specific pedagogies in teaching/assessing critical. First, most of the teaching is done in a "direct"/"explicit" way since critical thinking is taught as a "stand alone" course. Second, the teacher uses the lecture as the main strategy of teaching. As a result, teaching is most of the time done in a frontal way with the teacher acting either as a "controller" or "knowledge-provider" (Chouari, 2016). The instructor explains that the lecture strategy is used due to two major factors: (1) the large class-size, as the number of students sometimes exceeds 180 in each group, and (2) the difficulty of the course as Moroccan students did not have the opportunity to study critical thinking before coming to the university. Third, the instructor is aware of the importance of using ICTs (laptop, Data show, videos, etc.) in teaching. It seems obvious that new technologies are part of the success he enjoys in teaching this course as they ensure better student involvement and motivation. Finally, the main assessment strategy used by the instructor is one final exam given at the end of the term (2 hours long). In other words, there is total absence of quizzes, continuous assessment, or papers in the assessment of the students. To remedy to this shortcoming, the teacher resorts to an analytic approach of grading, taking into consideration three essential elements: students' "language, their consistency, and logical reasoning".

The findings also reveal that teachers of critical thinking in Moroccan higher education face extra challenges in addition to those common ones, such as the large size of the class and mixed ability students. The teacher, for example, raises the issues of students' mindsets, perspectives, and education politics as structural obstacle that impede students' learning in the critical thinking classroom. In fact, all these issues are interrelated and sometimes become harder to overcome in a limited time and in a classroom with huge numbers of students. This challenge is well-understood by Halpern (1998) when she explains that:

Beliefs that have been constructed over many years and the habits of mind that have developed along with them will take multiple learning experiences, distributed over time and settings, before they will be successfully replaced with new ways of thinking and knowing about the world. Students need to be told that to expect a thoughtful consideration of evidence and arguments will require expenditure of mental effort so that they do not expect quick and easy answers. (pp. 454-455)

Another important challenge that emerged in this study is the lack of training in teaching critical thinking in Morocco. The teacher admits that he has never received any theoretical or practical training. He explains that he learnt about critical thinking through his academic experience and personal efforts. Yet, studies conducted in countries like the United States show that unlike other courses, teaching critical thinking requires much guidance and help from experts in the field to ensure better professional development (Ennis 1993; Sternberg, 1987). The last challenge is that of using Information and Communications Technologies in teaching critical thinking in Morocco. The instructor makes ample use of ICT; however, the way he uses these technologies remain limited. For example, some studies make a strong link between better student achievement and effective use of technology inside and outside the classroom (Landis, Swain, Friehe, & Coufal, 2007). Other scholars uphold that effective ICT integration in teaching needs intense training to foster professional development (Archambault & Barnett, 2010; Figg & Jaipal, 2012; Koehler & Mishra, 2008; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Mouza, 2003). Lastly, although the findings make it clear that effective and good teaching of critical thinking are possible in Moroccan higher education, there is today an urgent need for educational reform based on critical thinking. The respondent in this study highlights that educational reform is now an “imperative” to have students with higher-order thinking skills. This point is also highlighted in a study by Abdullah (2010), who thinks that critical thinking “needs to be emphasized across the curriculum” (p. 662) in the Islamic world.

Applying this reform would undoubtedly help students develop sophisticated critical thinking skills required to live and work in the twenty-first century. Equipping students with these skills is one of the best means of protecting students from falling easy prey to radical/extremist discourse which relies on several tools of false logic such as logical fallacies and emotional arguments. Critical thinking skills can also help students become more flexible, more open to diversity and cultural differences, more aware of some dangers of globalization, and effective global citizens. That is, when educational reform is based on critical thinking, it has the potential of effecting change within society, making it more rational, and preparing students (the leading generation of Arab/Moroccan countries in the future) to gain “intellectual autonomy” (Kaplan, 1991) and compete in a world where “there is an increased demand for a new type of worker – this new job category has been dubbed ‘the knowledge worker’ or the ‘symbol analyst’” (Halpern, 1998, p.450).

Conclusion

Although the findings indicate that there are several factors that pose considerable challenges to teaching and assessing critical thinking in Morocco, effective and good teaching is possible. Unlike in other countries, teachers in Morocco receive no special training for teaching critical thinking. As a result, the pedagogies and the materials used in teaching and assessing this course depend heavily on the teacher’s own approach, efforts, and

creativity. Other obstacles, like class size, students' background, absence of adequate sources, lack of time, make teaching the course a heavy burden even for veteran teachers. Additionally, the teachers face the difficulty of designing valid and reliable tests due to several factors like the absence of tests, time constraints, and exam requirements. However, it can also be concluded that effective teaching can be attained if teachers adopt some effective practices through collaborative work, "active learning" and "student-centered" approaches.

Implications for Teaching

The findings of this study gave rise to the following recommendations for both practicing teachers and researchers:

Firstly, as far as teaching is concerned, critical thinking skills and dispositions can be learnt when teachers have an operational definition of critical thinking and enough information of critical thinking approaches (Court, 1991; Emerson, 2013). One of the most effective approaches is the "mixed approaches", in which critical thinking is taught in a direct and explicit way. Yet, it should also be noted here that Moroccan students tend to be more collectivistic (Hall, 1959) as they belong to a culture that favors "high-context" communication (Hall, 1976; Ting-Toomey, 2001).

Secondly, teachers should receive adequate professional development training in how to teach and assess critical thinking. In other words, pre-service and in-service training should be a must for the critical thinking teacher (Hooks, 2010).

At the level of assessment, testing should be used as a means of learning critical thinking skills. Adopting tests that have been developed in the west can be detrimental and misleading as they do not take into consideration the specificities of other cultures and contexts. In designing tests, designers should take into consideration the different facets of critical thinking (Ennis, 1996; Liu, Frankel, & Roohr, 2014) and the cultural and educational backgrounds of the students. Above all, teachers should adopt a grading system that is more analytic -- rather than impressionistic.

Lastly, at the level of researcher, further research should be carried in other Arab countries to develop more understanding of the best practices that teachers can adopt/adapt in the local classroom. It must also be noted that more research is needed in the assessment area to design adequate tests that can foster critical thinking skills and dispositions in these contexts.

Limitations of the Study

The results of this study are not without some limitations. Since it is first a case study, the results cannot be generalized. For example, using a mixed method can unravel the intricacies of teaching and assessing critical thinking in a better way. Besides, including other Moroccan faculties in one study can lead to more insights on the challenges and the best practices of teaching and assessing critical thinking in the Moroccan context.

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The Effect of Reflection-Supported Process-Based Writing Teaching on Iraqi EFL Students' Writing Performance and Attitude

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Abstract

The study aims at finding out the effect of process-based writing teaching supported by students' reflection on their performance in, and attitude toward writing. It hypothesizes that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean score of the experimental group taught writing according to the reflection-supported process-based approach and the control group taught writing according to the process-based approach in the writing performance test and writing attitude scale. To achieve the aims of the study, two second year sections in the Department of English of the College of Education/ Ibn Rushd for Human Sciences are randomly assigned as the experimental and control groups with 43 and 45 students respectively. The experiment in this study lasts for 15 weeks during which both groups are taught writing according to the process approach and given one writing assignment per week. Only the experimental group students are required to reflect on their writing performance in every writing assignment by using a reflection sheet prepared for this purpose. At the end of the experiment, the two instruments of the study, i.e., a writing performance test and attitude toward writing scale are administered on both groups. The statistical manipulation of the results achieved shows that supporting the process orientation to writing teaching with a phase of students reflection on their writing performance is effective in developing their writing performance and helping them formulate positive attitude toward writing. In the light of the results and conclusions achieved, a set of recommendations is put forward.

Keywords: attitude toward writing, reflection on learning, writing as a process, writing performance

Introduction***The Problem***

Writing is one of the basic factors of any language. It is a difficult productive process in which thoughts, attitudes, and feelings are supposed to be carefully translated into written communication. Writing is the area in which English as a foreign language (EFL) students can practice and/or reflect their mastery of different language components such as grammar, lexis, cohesion, etc. The importance of having a good mastery over the writing skills by EFL students is not restricted only to the courses of compositions or essay writing, but to all other language related courses which require students to have sufficient writing skills to pass these courses successfully (Muslim, 2014: 105). Accordingly, the multi-dimensional nature of writing should be reflected in the instructional practices of writing throughout its three main phases; prewriting, writing, and post writing (Hodges, 2015:146).

On the other hand, attitudes, in general, are viewed as driving forces that direct students to act and perform in certain ways and levels. The attitude toward writing, in particular, is argued to have a significant effect on students' writing skills as it may promote or debilitate their writing performance. On this basis, writing teachers are induced to continuously update their knowledge of their students' attitudes with special reference to the attitude toward writing (Jabeen & Kazim, 2011: 607).

However, it is stated that EFL students may gain further insight from their writing practices through deeper reflection on these practices and through further consideration of different viewpoints and attitude of other people (teacher and classmates) and theoretical background (Moon, 1999: 99).

Unfortunately, Iraqi EFL students in different educational settings, including under and post graduate levels, are noticed by the researcher and reported by different studies to have poor writing skills and face difficulties in managing writing tasks (Solaman 1999; Hamza 2009; Ali 2012; Reishan 2013; Muslim 2014; Keong & Mussa 2015). The difficulties they face are not restricted to the accuracy of structures they use but also include organization, vocabulary, mechanics, and spelling.

The present study is intended to experiment engaging Iraqi EFL students in practicing reflection on their writing performance throughout the different stages of the writing process as a technique that may help them promote their writing skills and help them develop a more positive attitude toward writing.

Aims

The study aims at finding out;

1. the effect of reflection-supported process –based writing teaching on Iraqi EFL students' writing performance.
2. the effect of reflection-supported process –based writing teaching on Iraqi EFL students' attitude toward writing.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are to be tested:

1. There is no statistically significant difference between the mean score of the experimental group taught writing according to the reflection-supported process- based approach and the control group taught writing according to the process-based approach in the writing performance test.
2. There is no statistically significant difference between the mean score of the experimental group taught writing according to the reflection-supported process based approach and the control group taught writing according to the process-based approach in the attitude toward writing scale.

Limits

The study is limited to Iraqi EFL second year students at the departments of English in the University of Baghdad (College of Education/Ibn Rushd for Human Sciences, College of Education for Women, College of Arts, and College of Languages) during the academic year 2015/2016.

Value

Due to the fact that Iraqi EFL students have poor writing skills, finding effective techniques that may help them develop their writing skills is of great significance for both students and writing teachers. The value of the present study stems from the idea that it is intended to experiment a writing teaching technique that may help students develop both their writing performance and attitude toward writing. Moreover, related literature is not conclusive regarding the effect of students reflection on their performance and attitudes. Accordingly, the present study is intended to contribute to the literature in this respect.

Theoretical Background

Process approach to writing

In addition to being a linguistic challenge for EFL students, writing well represents a real cognitive challenge in which students need to employ their memory, feelings, attitudes, and different thinking skills (Cresswell, 2000: 238). The conventional product-orientation to writing teaching focuses on students' final version of a written text regardless of their individual differences. In contrast, the process approach views writing as an individual endeavor in which individual students may employ different strategies and methods to accomplish their writing assignments. Here, students are expected to go through different fluid and overlapping stages and students' individual differences are likely to affect how students deal with , or perform in these stages (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1983: 135).

The process-oriented writing teaching is a holistic approach that stresses the actual process of writing in all its stages of planning, drafting, and revising rather than focusing on the separate conventional components of writing such as grammar, spelling, and vocabulary items (Hillocks, 1987:79). Students are engaged in the writing tasks through a cyclic strategy in which several stages are involved rather than the traditional single-shot one in which they are asked to submit a complete and final written response (Kroll, 2001: 221). Moreover, in the traditional product approach to writing, students are evaluated on the basis of producing neat grammatically accurate written text. While in the process orientation to teaching, students are evaluated according to their performance in the different stages of the writing process (Pennington & Cheung, 1995: 19).

Badger and White (2000: 154) believe that the main difference between the product and process approaches to writing is related to the priority of emphasis. They argue that while the conventional product approach emphasizes students' linguistic knowledge illustrated in the written text produced by students, the priority in the process approach is to focus on the linguistic and writing skills such as planning, drafting, revising, and editing.

Stages of Writing Process

Tompkins (2004:13) argues that there are five stages in the writing process (see Figure 1). These stages are successive, yet a stage can be skipped but returned to later. The five stages are;

planning : the phase of outlining and data collection.

drafting : writing the first version of the written text. It is an attempt to put what has been planned for on paper regardless of language accuracy.

revising: Students here revise their written drafts. The drafts may be expanded with new ideas or constructed by removing unrelated or unnecessary ideas or parts.

editing: The accuracy of grammar, spelling, vocabulary items, and writing mechanics are checked.

publishing: The last stage in the writing process which involves sharing the written text with the teacher and/or colleagues.



Figure 1: Tompkins Process Writing Model

Attitude toward Writing

Attitudes are affective factors that lead individuals to form their personal views of different concepts, issues, and events. Attitudes have undeniable force in leading individuals to respond or act in a particular way to different aspects of the surroundings (Jabeen & Kazim, 2011: 607).

The term attitude can be defined as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Eagly & Chaiken, 2007:598). McLeod (1991: 98) argues that attitudes are "psychological states acquired over a period of time as a result of our experiences" and that these attitudes are likely to affect the way we act in certain situations. However, due to the fact that attitudes may affect individuals on behavioral, affective, and/or cognitive levels, an attitude can be associated with positive or negative emotions, and individuals may behave and think in a certain way as a result of this attitude (McLeod, 1991:99).

Writing attitude is reported to have a significant effect on promoting or debilitating writing performance, yet, only a little attention is given to studying the correlation between attitude and writing in the EFL educational context (Bottomley, 1998: 286). On the other hand, "the increase in writing activities has presented teachers with the challenge of determining their students'

attitudes toward writing"(Graham et al, 2007: 525). In this respect, it is reported that there is a lack in the sufficient and reliable data collection tools available for writing teachers and researchers that are suitable for EFL students in the different educational contexts (Kear et al, 2000: 10).

Factors Affecting Writing Attitude

The way writing teachers manage their classes and teach and conduct writing activities is one of the most influential factors in formulating students' attitude toward writing. The management, teaching and evaluation techniques are considered highly influential in this respect(Wolcott & Buhr, 1987: 3). Furthermore, Several studies find that students' positive or negative attitude toward writing is, to a certain extent, related also to their own performance in writing i.e., students with satisfactory writing performance may develop a more positive attitude toward writing and vice versa, while some other studies report students' linguistic competency in general as a significant influential factor in this respect (Daly & Miller, 1975: 240). Moreover, the related literature indicates that the attitude toward writing may be determined or affected by a variety of variables such as sex, topic of writing, teacher's evaluation and feedback, writing self-efficacy, motivation to write, writing achievement .. etc.(Krawczyk, 2005: 16-17).

The related literature also reports a positive relationship between positive attitude toward writing and satisfactory mastery of writing skills (Krawczyk, 2005: 1), and a correlation between high levels of writing apprehension and negative attitude toward writing and vice versa (Rose, 1980: 398). However, Brown et al (2011: 15) prove that students writing attitudes are not fixed and that they can be changed or modified by teachers' employment of effective teaching procedures in which different aspects of students' life, needs, and interests are involved.

Reflection in Education

It is a well-known fact that teaching, however efficient the teacher is, does not guarantee students' learning. Students' will to learn and to engage in the learning activities is a primary factor that is likely to make the difference (Kakavouli & Metaxas, 2012: 2). In the traditional teacher-centered setting of teaching, students remain passive as they are not supposed to examine their own emotional and attitudinal responses to the material being taught. This is likely to lead to students' inability to apply the newly learned items in authentic everyday life situations (Kohonen, 2002: 13). On the contrary, recent orientations in EFL stress the idea of students contributing to their own language learning through active involvement. This can be promoted by training and encouraging students reflect on their learning experiences (Johnson, 2004: 122).

In spite of the widespread interest in practicing and promoting students reflection on their learning, there is no well agreed upon definition for this term. However, most of the suggested definitions agree on the idea that students reflection involves careful reviewing and evaluation of an experience or learning activity they have gone through(Bolton, 2014:6). Students reflection refers to the opportunity given to students to demonstrate how they gain experience and skills from a learning activity by self-analyzing their performance throughout the activity. In this sense, reflection is likely to help students be aware of their personal development (Williams et al, 2012: 87). Unfortunately, although reflection plays a significant role in learning, little research has been done on the effect of reflection type or amount on the outcomes achieved by students (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999:181).

The work of John Dewey provides the underling philosophical background of the potentials of employing reflection in the learning process as it is supposed to link theory and practice. It is placed by different learning objectives taxonomies in the highest level of educational objectives as part of evaluation and criticism. Such taxonomies, as those of Bloom (1956), and Biggs and Collis (1982), refer to students reflection as an indication of the highest level of learning (Greenwood, 1998: 1049). Thus, reflection is viewed as an activity in which higher thinking metacognitive skills are used as a conscious response to certain situations and experiences including, but not restricted to, the teaching /learning situations. In the field of education, it can be practiced anytime and anywhere by both teachers and students in which they express their thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and practices related to different factors and elements in a variety of educational contexts. In this respect, it may involve students and/or teachers' conscious evaluation of the processes of teaching and learning to find out why, and how well, certain steps, techniques, activities, and practices are employed or done (Boud, 1985: 19).

Reflection on writing involves students' ability of self-assessment and being aware of their individual differences and affective factors related to writing. This means that students, when reflecting on their writing, are supposed to identify their needs and points of strength and weakness. Reflection enables students also to set personal goals for themselves to be achieved (Capar, 2014: 473) and to scaffold, i.e., to connect a current experience or activity with previously learned ones. Here, students should be aware that this ability involves employing what they have learned in previous situations to new settings beyond those situations of their previous learning (Costa & Kallick, 2008: 222). Moreover, reflection may not be limited to what students have done, rather, it also covers how they will continue to develop. However, reflection on practice in different settings of education is reported to be beneficial in promoting students' learning. For Gibbs (1988:41), it is not enough for students to be engaged in an experience to learn. He sees that "without reflecting upon this experience it may quickly be forgotten, or its learning potential lost".

A variety of outcomes can be expected from practicing reflection by students, the most important of which is that it leads to learning as it helps students transform the different experiences and learning activities into genuine learning (Moon,1999: 99). Reflective practices are also likely to help students think about, analyze, contextualize, make sense of, and ultimately evaluate a certain learning experience or activity so as to make decision about the real value of this experience (Harris, 1997: 18). Finally, reflection practices may guide students and direct their attention to view experiences from different perspectives and provide them with means by which they can evaluate their skills and potentials in addition to the experience itself (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999: 181).

Levels of Reflection

Kember et al (2008:373) propose the following four-level identification of students reflection:

- Habitual action: In which students perform something or do a task without thinking of what they are doing and why by following a set of instructions in a manual or given by the teacher.
- Understanding: Students in this level may attempt to understand how and why they do a task, but still without reflection.
- Reflection: Students here have an accurate understanding and attempt to reflect on the experience or learning activity according to that understanding.

- Critical Reflection: It is the highest level in students reflection as it involves a change or transformation of perspective which comes as a result of their understanding and reflection upon the experience.

Gibbs Reflection Model

One of the popular models of reflection is that of Gibbs (1988). It is a cyclic strategy and involves six phases of reflection (see Figure 2). These phases as stated in Gibbs (1988: 47) are:

1. Description: It is supposed to be the smallest section of reflection in which reflectors briefly describe the experience they are going through.
2. Feelings: In this phase, the reflectors are supposed to explore the thoughts and feelings they are having during the task or experience.
3. Evaluation: Here reflectors should specify what was good and what did not go so well during the task or experience.
4. Analysis: In this phase, the reflectors break down the experience or task and consider each part separately.
5. Conclusion: Here, reflectors' judgment about their performance during the task or experience should be stated. It also covers what areas in the performance needed to be promoted.
6. Action Plan: Based on their responses in the previous phases, the reflectors state what they would do differently if they were asked to go through the same experience or task again.



Figure 2: Gibbs Reflective Model

Reflection in EFL Writing Classes

Students' reflection practices are called for on the basis that they help students be really involved in the learning situation and learn from the experiences they go through (Arikan, 2006: 2). There are a variety of teaching strategies that can be used in teaching EFL writing such as the paragraph pattern, free writing, guided writing, grammar, syntax-organization strategies etc, all of which approach the teaching of writing as a product, rather than process (Raimes, 1983: 7). The modern orientation in approaching FL teaching views writing as a process in which students' awareness of the phases and subskills of writing is indispensable. Practicing reflection in writing is in harmony with this view, as it enables students to consider and reflect on the stages of the writing process, how well the written performance is, and what changes and developments need to be done. Engaging students in reflecting on their performance in the different stages of writing repeatedly may be an effective learning and training practice as it enables them to be aware of the nature of, and skills required for each stage of prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing.

Moreover, it enables them to consider the relation between the purpose and form of writing, develop their awareness of different types of written texts, and evaluate the accuracy and suitability of the language structures and vocabulary items they use (Yan, 2005: 20).

It is more difficult for students to reflect on their writing than to reflect on any other language skill or activity. That is why most students fail to practice reflection in writing. Accordingly, writing teachers should be a source of help in this respect and gradually teach and train students to reflect on their writing performance. This may effectively enable students to better plan, draft, revise, and organize their written performance in future. (Capar, 2014: 471).

Methodology

The Experimental Design

The non-randomized pretest/posttest control group design is adopted in this study. In this design two or more matched –on-the relevant- variables groups are involved. One of these groups is assigned as a control group and the other(s) is assigned as experimental. Only the experimental group(s) is to be exposed to the independent variable. At the end of the experiment, all groups involved in the study are post-tested and the achieved scores are compared to judge the effect of the independent variable (Brown & Rodgers, 2002: 211). (See table1).

Population and Sample

The population in this study covers Iraqi EFL second year students at the departments of English in the Iraqi universities. While the sample is restricted to 88 second year students in the Department of English – College of Education/Ibn Rushd for Human Sciences of the University of Baghdad during the academic year 2015-2016. The sample is divided into a control group with 45 participants and an experimental group with 43 participants. (See table 1).

Table1: The experimental design and sample of the study

Groups	No.	Pre-testing	Independent Variable	Post-testing
Control	45	Writing Performance	Process-based writing teaching	Writing Performance
Experimental	43	+ Attitude to Writing + Intelligence	Process-based writing teaching supported by students reflection	+ Attitude to Writing

Equalization

To ensure that the two groups are compared on equal terms except for the independent variable, the equalization of the two groups involved in this study is checked. This equalization checking involves a writing pre-test scores, intelligence, and the attitude toward writing. The data collection instruments in the equalization checking are a writing performance pre-test,

Raven's progressive matrices intelligence test (RPM), and an attitude toward writing scale prepared by the researcher.

The data achieved through the three instruments are statistically manipulated by using t-test for two independent samples. T-test results indicate no statistically significant difference between the two groups as the computed values of the writing pre-test, intelligence test, and attitude scale are found 0.94, 1.037, and 0.62 respectively at 0.05 level of significance and 86 degree of freedom. The computed values are lower than the critical t-value and this indicates that there are no statistically significant differences between the two groups involved in the study in writing performance, intelligence, and attitude toward writing. (See table 2).

Table 2: Checking the equalization of the experimental and control groups in the writing pre-test, intelligence test, and attitude toward writing

Variable	Groups	No.	M	SD	t- value		Sig.
					computed	critical	
Writing	Experimental	43	10.22	1.65	0.94	2.0	No
Pre-test	Control	45	9.88	1.78			
Intelligence test	Experimental	43	31.52	3.56	1.037		No
	Control	45	30.68	4.22			
Attitude toward Writing	Experimental	43	68.96	6.30	0.62		No
	Control	45	67.44	2.25			

Instruments of the Study

The Writing Post-test

To evaluate participants' writing performance, a writing test is administered in which participants are asked to write a composition of at least three paragraphs with about 225 words on one of three topics that are selected by participants themselves. Participants' written compositions are scores analytically according to a rubric adopted from O'Malley & Pierce (1996: 145). In which the compositions are assessed on the basis of five components; composing, style, sentence formation, usage, and mechanics with a rating scale 1-4 for each component. According to the rubric, the highest score that can be achieved in the test is 20 and the lowest one is 5. (Appendix A).

The Attitude toward Writing Scale

The scale is prepared by the researcher based on four different scales of attitude toward writing proposed by Wollcot & Buhr 1987, DeMent 2008, Erkan & Saban 2011, and Scott 2012. These four attitude scales are, generally speaking, appropriate to the topic of the present study, yet, they include some items that do not suite either the purpose or the sample of this study. The

scale used in this study is prepared by selecting and/or adjusting the most appropriate items in the four scales mentioned above.

The final version of the scale includes 30 items to be responded to according to a rating of five Likert points (strongly agree, agree, somewhat agree, disagree, and strongly disagree). These points are given the grades 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. (Appendix B).

Face Validity

The attitude toward writing scale is exposed to a jury of 10 experts in the fields of educational psychology and educational evaluation and measurement. The members of the jury show their agreement on the scale items as being suitable and valid. They also suggest adjusting the statement of three items in the scale and their recommended adjustments are done by the researcher.

The writing scoring rubric is also exposed to a jury of 8 experts in the field of EFL teaching all of whom agree on the suitability of this rubric to the present study aims and the sample involved.

Pilot Administration of the Instruments

To conduct pilot administrations of the attitude scale and the writing performance test, 30 students are randomly selected from the Department of English in the College of Education/Ibn Rushd for Human Sciences. This administration is done to evaluate the clarity of the scale items and compute the reliability of the scale and test scoring rubric. It is also intended to estimate the time to be allotted to participants to take the test. As a result, no ambiguity in the scale items is complained of and the time required for taking the test is 35 minutes.

Construct validity of the attitude scale

Items of the attitude scale are statistically analyzed as a procedure to check the construct validity of the scale. This analysis involves computing the discrimination power and item-total correlations of the scale items which are considered as reliable indicators for ensuring construct validity.

Statistical Analysis

The attitude scale is administered to a statistical analysis sample of 100 individuals selected randomly from the second year students in the Department of English in the College of Arts and the scores of the individuals are calculated.

Discrimination Power

The scores of the individuals in the statistical analysis sample are sequenced from the highest score to the lowest one. According to this sequential arrangement, scores are divided into two groups, an upper group and a lower one, with 50 scores in each. T-test for two independent samples is used to check the difference between the mean scores of each item in the upper and lower groups. The computed t-values are found to range between 2.73 - 8.93. These values are higher than the critical t- value 1.98 at 0.05 level of significance and under the degree of freedom 98. Accordingly, the items of the attitude scale are considered acceptable in this regard. (See table 3).

Table 3: Ranges of t-values of items in attitude toward writing scale

Scale	Range of Computed t-values	Critical t-value	Level of significance	Degree of Freedom
Attitude toward writing scale	2.73 – 8.93	1.98	0.05	98

Item-total correlation

Pearson correlation formula is utilized to find out the correlation between the score of each item and the total score of the scale. As illustrated in table 4, the results show acceptable correlation coefficients for all items except for one item which is, accordingly, excluded from the scale. The correlation coefficients of the items in the final version of the scale range between 0.321- 0.671 , all of which are higher than the tabulated value of Pearson correlation 0.196 at the level of significance 0.05 and degree of freedom 98. All the items, then, are acceptable in this regard.

Table 4: Ranges of Pearson correlation coefficients of items in writing attitude scale

Scale	Range of Computed t-values	Critical t-value	Level of significance	Degree of Freedom
Attitude toward writing scale	0.321-0.671	0.196	0.05	98

Reliability

To check the reliability of the attitude scale and the scoring rubric of the writing performance test, they are re-administered on the pilot sample after three weeks of the first administration.

With respect to the attitude scale, The correlation between the two sets of scores achieved from the two administrations are statistically manipulated by utilizing Pearson correlation and Alpha Chronbach formulas which yield 0.82 and 0.79 correlation coefficients respectively. Both computed coefficients are acceptable according to Best (1981: 153).

Concerning the writing performance test scoring rubric, the reliability is checked by using two methods. The intrascorer method in which the researcher himself score the test papers of the sample in the two administration, and the interscorer method in which another university EFL instructor is asked to score the sample test papers of the second administration. Person correlation coefficient is used in both methods to find out the correlation between the two sets of scores and yields 0.92 and 0.89 coefficients respectively. Both correlations are fortunately acceptable and high.

The Experiment

The experiment is inaugurated in the second semester of the academic year 2015/2016 and lasted for 15 weeks. During the experiment, both groups, the experimental and control, are

assigned two writing lesson periods per week and given the same number and topics of writing assignments.

Tompkins Model (2004) to process writing is used in teaching and training participants in both groups. According to this model, the writing process involves the five stages of planning, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing. However, only participants in the experimental group are asked and encouraged to regularly reflect on every written performance they submit by using a reflection sheet prepared by the researcher for this purpose (Appendix C). The reflection sheet is prepared in accordance with Gibbs six-phase reflection model. It includes six phases representing those of Gibbs model. The format along with a summary of Gibbs model are exposed to a jury of experts in the field of TEFL. The 10 jury members mostly agree upon the suitability of the format items to the sample and purpose of the study. They mostly agree also on the correspondence between the format items and Gibbs reflection model.

Employing Gibbs model in the reflection of the experimental group is intended to encourage and help participants systematically consider the phases of the writing process and reflect on how well they perform in each phase and what they should do to improve this performance. At the end of the experiment, the writing performance post-test and attitude toward writing scale are administered on participants in both groups.

The attitude scale and writing performance test are administered to the sample of the study in one session at the end of the experiment.

Results, Conclusions, and Recommendations

To achieve the aims of the study, The mean scores of the two groups on the writing test and attitude scale are computed and t-test for independent samples are used to find if the differences between the means are statistically significant or not. The results are discussed below according to the hypotheses of the study.

Results Related to the first hypothesis

As illustrated in table 5, the mean scores of the experimental and control groups in the writing performance test are 15.86 and 11.55 with standard deviations 2.76 and 2.98 respectively. Computed t-test value is found 7.065 which is higher than the critical value 2.0.

Table 5: T- value of students' scores in the writing post test

Variable	Groups	No.	M	SD	t- value		Sig.
					computed	critical	
Writing posttest	Experimental	43	15.86	2.76	7.065	2.0	Yes
	Control	45	11.55	2.98			

These results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in the writing performance and this difference is in favor of the experimental group as its mean score is higher than that of the control group. The first null hypothesis is, accordingly, rejected and the alternative one is accepted.

To determine the effect size value of the independent variable on students' writing performance, Eta-squared (η^2) is used and yields a value 00.8 which indicates that the effect size of this variable is medium.

Results Related to the hypothesis

The mean scores of the experimental and control groups in the writing attitude scale are 99.33 and 75.43 with standard deviations 5.49 and 6.28 respectively. The t-test computed value 7.065 is higher than the critical value 2.0 as illustrated in table 6.

Table 6: T- value of students' scores in the attitude toward writing scale

Variable	Groups	No.	M	SD	t- value		Sig.
					computed	critical	
Writing Attitude	Experimental	43	99.33	5.49	2.05	2.0	Yes
	Control	45	75.43	6.28			

The results achieved indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in the writing attitude and this difference is in favor of the experimental group as its mean score is higher than that of the control group. The second null hypothesis is also rejected and the alternative one is accepted.

To determine the size value of the effect of the independent variable on students' writing attitude, Eta-squared (η^2) is used and results a value 00.2. This indicates that this variable has a weak effect size.

Conclusions

1. Supporting process-based writing teaching with students' reflection practices is effective in helping students improve their writing performance and develop positive attitudes toward writing.
2. Reflection-supported process-based writing teaching has a stronger effect in students improving students' writing performance than in helping them develop positive attitudes toward writing.
3. In writing as a process, students are noticed to use different language structures and a variety of vocabulary items and idioms. This may be related to the idea that their writing performance is not to be directly evaluated by the teacher, rather, they have the chance to review, edit, and improve their writing texts before being evaluated.
4. Students are mostly accurate in their reflection on their writing and in identifying what improvements need to be done.
5. Students get better and better in their writing performance throughout the course of the experiment in which they continuously practice reflection.
6. Students are willing to engage in reflection on their writing and they show interest and enthusiasm in the practice.
7. A positive change in students' attitude toward writing and self-efficacy as writers is noticed at the end of the experiment.

Recommendations

In the light of the results and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are set foreword:

1. EFL writing teachers are called for using process based teaching supported by reflection practices on the part of students to improve their writing skills and maintain a positive writing attitude.
2. EFL writing teachers should be aware of the significance of writing attitude in students' performance and work hard to investigate their students' attitude toward the different aspects of language learning especially writing.
3. EFL students need to know about their level and competency in writing and to know also about the points of weakness and strength so as to be able to work on.
4. More time should be devoted to practicing process-based writing activities in the EFL classroom.
5. EFL teachers ought to keep a balance in focusing on fluency and accuracy of their students' writing performance.
6. EFL teachers should work hard to help their students develop a positive attitude toward writing.
7. Writing practices should be viewed by EFL teachers and students as opportunities where students can also practice the use of accurate language structures, tenses, and vocabulary items.
8. The culture of reflection should be promoted and encouraged in the different Iraqi educational settings.
9. Regular efficient reflective practices should be scheduled in all EFL courses with particular reference to writing.
10. Planning is noticed to be mostly neglected by students; accordingly the phase of planning in writing should be highlighted to students.
11. Sufficient time should be devoted to students' practice of writing process in the EFL programs, as this practice, which is found to promote students' writing skills, is, to a certain extent, time-consuming.
12. Teachers should be trained on how to help students in different stages of the writing process , with special reference to revising , which is noticed to be more challenging to students than the other stages.

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APPENDIX A

Analytical Scoring Scheme for Composition Writing

SCORE	Composing	Style	Sentence Formation	Usage	Mechanics
4 marks	Focuses on central ideas with an organized and elaborated text	Purposefully chosen vocabulary , sentence variety , information ,and voice to affect reader	Standard word order ,no enjambment (run – on sentences) Completeness (no sentence fragments and standard modifiers , and coordinators , and effective transitions	Standard inflections(e.g., plurals, possessive ,-ed, - ing with verbs, and – ly with adverbs), subject- verb agreement (we were vs . we was), standard word meaning	Effective use of capitalization , punctuation, spelling ,and formatting (paragraphs noted by indenting)
3 marks	Central idea , but not as evenly elaborated and some digressions	Vocabulary less precise and information chosen less purposeful	Mostly standard word order , some enjambment or sentence fragments	Mostly standard inflections , agreement ,and word meaning	Mostly effective use of mechanics, errors do not detract from meaning
2 marks	Not a focused idea or more than one idea , sketchy elaboration ,and many digressions	Vocabulary basic and not purposefully selected ;tone flat or inconsistent	Some non – standard word order, enjambment , and word omission (e.g.; verbs)	Some errors with inflections, agreement, and word meaning	Some errors with spelling and punctuation that detract from meaning
1 mark	No clear idea , little or no elaboration ,and many digression	Not controlled, tone flat , sentences halted or	Frequent non – standard word order , enjambment, and word omissions	Shifts from one tense to another; errors in conventions (them/those,	Misspell even simple words; little formatting evident.

		choppy		good /well, double negatives, etc.)	

APPENDIX B
Attitude toward Writing Scale

No	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewh at agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I see writing as an enjoyable task.					
2	I am not very interested in writing.					
3	I work hard to do well on each writing assignment even if I don't like the topic.					
4	I feel confident when I complete written assignments.					
5	I write ideas of my own.					
6	I do not think it is easy to write.					
7	Writing is something that comes naturally to me.					
8	I often feel frustrated writing and don't like doing it.					
9	Most of the time I like writing and think that I am good at it.					
10	I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I write.					
11	Writing is my favorite Language Arts class.					
12	I feel my heart beating fast when I have to write, especially for a graded assignment.					
13	Writing is something that makes me happy.					
14	Writing is not a necessary skill for me to know.					
15	I am very interested in becoming a better writer.					
16	I would never willingly choose to do a writing assignment at college.					

17	Writing is an essential skill that I should master.					
18	I dislike writing, and I am always relieved to finish any writing assignments.					
19	Putting my thoughts down on paper helps me to straighten out my thinking.					
20	I have difficulty organizing my ideas when I write.					
21	Each time that I write, I know clearly what I want to accomplish.					
22	I do not like to have other students read my papers.					
23	I enjoy creative writing.					
24	I avoid the task of writing whenever possible.					
25	I can generate ideas to write about easily.					
26	I cannot think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about.					
27	I can easily use structures I have learned in my class accurately.					
28	I cannot use a wide range of vocabulary in my compositions.					
29	I can easily cover all the information that should be dealt with in a given topic.					
30	I cannot manage my time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing.					

APPENDIX C

The Writing Reflection Sheet

Phase No.1

- What was the topic and type of the writing text I was supposed to write on?

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- What was my personal aim for writing on this topic?

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Phase No.2

- How did I feel during the process of writing?

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- How did I feel about the final version of my writing?

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Phase No.3

- How do I evaluate my writing performance?

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- What was well in my performance and what was not so well?

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Phase No.4

- How did I do in each phase of writing separately?

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- What were the shortcomings of my performance in each phase?

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Phase No.5

- Was my writing overall writing performance satisfactory?

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- What areas in my performance need to be improved?

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Phase No.6

- What would I do differently if I were asked to write on the same topic again?

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Evaluation of Methodology: Qualitative Studies about Mobile Technology Implementation in Education

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Abstract

The description and understanding of the learning has changed significantly over time and is still in its transformational modern stage, which necessitates exploration and investigation of the pros and cons of innovative changes in the field of education. Some teachers resist those changes and do not feel comfortable teaching through or with mobile technology as they do not want to look incompetent when they are unable to troubleshoot. The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the methodology of qualitative studies conducted on the integration of mobile technology in language classroom and teachers' attitudes towards using technology in teaching. The paper aims at examining 15 studies published in educational journals between 2006 and 2016. The articles discuss two aspects of educational technology: mobile technology integration in education and teachers' attitudes and professional development for implementing technology in language classroom.

Keywords: educational technology, evaluation of methodology, literature review, mobile pedagogy, qualitative studies, research articles

Introduction

The contemporary view of how the learning process changes and revolutionizes with the help of mobile technology can affect decision making about educational policies. If one considers learning to be under the control of teachers in traditional teaching methods, believing that ‘teaching equals learning’, it is entirely reasonable to support policies that make teachers directly accountable for student test results. However, the assumption ‘if teachers work harder learners will learn better’ is viewed differently when a constructivist observation is put forward, looking at learning as being largely under the control of learners, where teachers and students are viewed as collaborators. Here is when the third party in a form of the mediating tool is needed to infer educational policies to focus on student motivation to achieve and progress through their studies. That mediating tool could be a mobile technology that facilitates learning and improves performance.

In our days the world is moving toward digital enhancement, which means digital enhancement will be available for just about everything people do. That is to say, digital and mobile devices already enhance people’s cognitive competences in many ways, such as memory, decision making or problem solving. To explain it better, digital tools improve our memory through data input and output as well as electronic storage. Other tools, such as digital data gathering or decision making tools develop our decision making, problem solving and analytical thinking skills by letting us search in seconds, choose the needed information and collect more data than we could have done unaided, helping us multitask and carry out quick and complex analyses. Hence, it must be stated, that digital enhancement of people’s cognition supported by mobile technologies and digital tools is a reality in every profession and every field today. However, it should not be assumed that the human brain is no longer significant and that mobile technology is smarter by itself. Quite the opposite, “It is through the interaction of the human mind and digital technology that the digitally wise person is coming to be” (Thomas 2011, p. 27). The time we live in necessitates the urge to educate digitally smart students and teachers, to embrace digital enhancement in the field of education and encourage others to do so. “With our eyes wide open to enhancement’s potential harm as well as its benefits, let us bring our colleagues, students, teachers, parents, and peers to the digital wisdom of the twenty-first century” (p. 27).

Methodology

This paper examines and evaluates 15 qualitative research studies in the field of education. To evaluate the studies, a table has been constructed to represent study summaries followed by their research questions (Appendix A) based on information taken from the texts: Glesne (2011), Kvale (1996), Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (2011), Stake (1995) and Merriam (2009). The examination of the articles systematically concentrates on specific aspects of the studies in terms of qualitative research methods, designed instruments and theoretical frameworks. The methods of data collection in the reviewed articles are interviews, observations, document analysis and focus groups, therefore; this paper is organized into four sections by these types of qualitative instruments.

The first section examines seven studies that have used interviews. The second section examines four case studies that have used observational techniques as their qualitative forms of

research. The third section looks at two studies that have used document analysis. Finally, the fourth section looks at focus groups in two mixed methodological studies.

Section one: Interviews

This section examines seven studies that have used interview guides. The articles are clustered by the study design. There are four case studies and three mixed methods studies among the seven articles that have used interviews as their qualitative methods of data collection. Therefore, this section reviews interviews in four case studies first and proceeds with interviews in three mixed methods studies.

Nespor's (2013) "Devices and Educational Change" examines two cases of device-mediated educational changes. One is a video module for a university course and the other is a communication device for disabled children. Both were public mandated cases practiced between 1989 and 1991 by two groups of scholars, where the first case was viewed as a success but the second was rejected. Twenty years later there are no records of the devices. The first aim of the paper is to examine the roles of devices in organizational transformations introduced by teachers where the author argues that device mediated changes are effects of non-linear processes arising out of improvisations. The second aim of the paper is to develop theoretical tools for analyzing such changes. Several strengths of the case study approach such as five components of a research design suggested by Yin (2009): "study's question, propositions, units of analysis, logic linking the data to the propositions, and criteria for interpreting the findings" (p. 27) support their use in this study. As Merriam (2009) explains, "questions of meaning, understanding, and process are appropriate for qualitative research" (p. 19). The focus on teachers where particular devices were used makes this study bounded and integrated, which are the requirements of a case study (Yin, 2009). The article has no further clarifications about the site or participant selections in any of the represented cases. The type of research question posed (Appendix A) emerges from the exploratory perspective and confirms case study as the chosen research strategy (Yin, 2009). The study used interview materials from 1989 and 2005 to trace the works of the teachers who designed the devices. The interviews were carried out with administrators, professors and students.

Contrastingly, Rasku-Puttonen, Etelapelto, Hakkinen and Arvaja (2006) give detailed description of the method and data analysis in their case study "Teachers' instructional scaffolding in an innovative information and communication technology-based history learning environment". The study was conducted in classroom setting. A case study should take place in the natural setting of the 'case' to creating the opportunity for direct observations (Yin, 2009). The authors clearly explain the case in the abstract of the study, as well as in the methods section. Yin (2009) explains that for a case study it is significant to define the case in terms of what the case is and where the case leaves off. Authors call their study a single-case study as it aims at exploring the complexity of a single case, which in this study was the use of teacher's instructional scaffolding on innovative learning environment.

Three interviews were conducted with the two teachers: at the beginning, halfway through and at the end of the project. Glesne (2011) defines this as multiple-session interviews and states that repeating interviews throughout the course of the study will aid in developing rapport and increasing the possibility that interviewees tell the researcher how they feel and act

(p. 49). Besides teachers, some students were twice interviewed in groups, when the project was half way through and at its end. Kvale (1996) suggests the qualitative researcher to interview "as many subjects as necessary to find out what you need to know" (p.101).

The study used semi structured interviews which were divided into themes of motivational issues and experience with computers. Kvale (1996) explains that semi structured interviews must have "a sequence of themes to be covered, as well as suggested questions. Yet, at the same time there is an openness to changes of sequence to follow up the answers given by the subjects" (p. 124). The interviews with both teachers and students were videotaped. Kvale (1996) explains that video recordings contain a richer representation of the interview situation than the tape. The interviews were transcribed and categorized in a table. The table with detailed explanation and transcribed examples is included in the article. "Transcripts are decontextualized conversations, they are abstractions, as topographical maps are abstractions from the original landscape from which they are derived" (Kvale, 1996, p.165). The study findings demonstrated that conceptions of instructional roles accord with the ways teachers set up the learning sessions. The authors then suggest further studies to analyze the friction of teaching and learning activities.

McGee's (2008) "Persistence and motivation" and Yang's (2012) "ICT in English schools: transforming education?" are two case studies that share many similarities in their study designs. Both focus on the same circumscribed system under natural conditions; meaning, teachers' use of ICT through innovative ways in their everyday classroom. Both case studies are designed in accordance to Merriam's (2009) belief that this design is best suited to gain an "in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning for those involved" (p. 19).

The studies do not report on the methods through which the participants were chosen. Both mention in their methods section interviews as qualitative data collection but do not provide details about the types of questions used in the instrument, neither they have data examples included in the articles. The second study conducted eight 45-60 minute interviews with eight teacher trainers assuming they would have rich experience from year-to-year observations and visits to schools. Because Yang's (2012) study aimed at finding a theoretical framework for understanding the transformation of education with technology, the interview data analysis was based on grounded theory which according to Robson (2002) 'seeks to generate a theory which relates to the particular situation forming the focus of the study' (p. 190). Also, the use of the grounded theory for data analysis is compatible with the aim of the central research question. Neither of the studies demonstrated trustworthiness of their research apparently hoping that the quality of research craftsmanship will result in "knowledge claims that are so powerful and convincing in their own right they...carry the validation with them, like a strong piece of art." (Kvale, 1996, p. 252). Both studies conclude that technology use and power in educational institutions rely on teacher training and school leadership. However, they suggest further more systematic research on transformation with technology.

Mahruf, Shohel and Kirkwood's (2012) mixed methods case study "Using technology for enhancing teaching and learning in Bangladesh: Challenges and consequences" looks at an early stage of one project's development. Stake (1995) does not see the case study as a method, but suggests that mixed methods inform the case. Six schools were randomly selected for the study.

At each school two teachers and eight students were randomly selected. According to Robson (2002), there are practical and ethical problems when randomizing is applied to people. Merriam (2009) explains that in qualitative research, a small nonrandom sample is selected precisely to understand the phenomena in depth. Because, this is a mixed methods study and both qualitative and quantitative data was generated on the same sample, random selection will be welcomed if taken from the quantitative method's perspective.

For collection of qualitative data semi structured interviews were carried out for four months. The school administrators were interviewed regarding their school policies, teachers regarding their professional development and students about their lessons. The article discusses only teachers' interview data to keep the article manageable. Interview extracts are included in the article where each piece of evidence is given a reference to specify the source of the specific teacher interview transcript. The interview questions and sample responses show flexibility allowing to direct the interview to the topic areas essential to the problem in question. The interviewed teachers received questions depending on their experience with iPods and other ICT devices. The questions were of two types: experience/behavior and knowledge questions (Glesne, 2011, p. 106). Robson (2002) and Kvale (1996) also explain that as information is gained in semi structured interviews, the interview guide and research questions will be updated to incorporate the new information into the next interview. All interviews were conducted in Bangla, recorded, transcribed and translated into English by professional translators. Kvale (1996) considers transcription a translation, both from spoken to written language, and from living and personal conversation to a 'frozen' text which is to be read analytically (p. 165). As to the translation from one language to the other or the way it was done in this study Kvale (1996) would encourage to think of transcriptions as 'interpretive constructions' and state that "the question 'What is the correct transcription?' cannot be answered—there is no true, objective transformation from the oral to the written mode. A more constructive question is: 'What is a useful transcription for my research purposes?'" (pp.165-66). The analysis were conducted using grounded theory to identify the key message the teachers wanted to convey through interviews. According to Robson (2002) "Strauss & Corbin (1998) make the explicit point that grounded theory is a general method that can be used in both quantitative and qualitative studies" (p.192). In this qualitative part of the study it is "a non-mathematical process of interpretation, carried out for the purpose of discovering concepts and relationships in raw data and then organizing these into a theoretical explanatory scheme" (p. 192). The study found out that building confidence in classroom is essential for ICT implementation and peer support and teacher guide are factors to contribute its success.

Howard's (2011) two-phase mixed methods study "Affect and acceptability: exploring teachers' technology-related risk perceptions" presents approaches of controlling resistance and overcoming the challenges of technology integration. In phase one, through four previously validated measures, the level of teachers' readiness to take risks with ICT were determined. Phase one questionnaire was designed for selection of teachers for phase two, which was a comparison case study of two schools and eight teachers. Results from phase one were used to inform phase two findings. The study focused on eight secondary school teachers from two countries: Australia and US, treating them as one sample for both quantitative and qualitative methods. The credibility of eight teachers; four from each country, was checked at all stages of data collection to avoid selecting participants who agree with the researcher's principles. Yin

(2009) explains “an investigator seeks only to use a case study to substantiate a preconceived position” (p. 72). The study does not detail about participant sampling methods, neither it gives any participant descriptions.

The qualitative data collection occurred only in phase two, through three rounds of semi-structured critical incident interviews and key informant interviews which were based on three themes: technology use, teaching and expectations of the school culture. The critical incident technique can use specific incidents or a series of incidents for rich data generation about circumstances, intention, context and behavior (Robson, 2002). In this study it proved useful because it was implemented as a tool for motivating teachers to reflect on their teaching ways and stages encouraging them to speak from the perspective of a timeline. Flanagan (1954) in Silverman (2000) speaks about critical incident technique as one offering a possibility to go straight into the heart of a subject and gather information about what is really being searched for. The author also used face-to-face key informant interviews for qualitative data collection. Both, Yin (2009) and Stake (1995) explain that case study approach is used utilizing data from document reviews, key informant interviews, focus groups and observations. Before starting the enquiry with expert teachers, the existing data from phase one and critical incident interviews was reviewed to determine what additional information was needed from key informants. Bryman (2008) explains that “Key informants often develop an appreciation of the research and direct the ethnographer to situations, events, or people likely to be helpful to the progress of the investigation” (p. 409). However, he also discusses the other side of the key informant interviews mentioning that, “...the ethnographer may develop an undue reliance on the key informant, and, rather than seeing social reality through the eyes of members of the social setting, the researcher is seeking social reality through the eyes of the key informant” (p. 409). The article includes examples from interview data analysis concerning all three themes discussed above. Though it does not represent the questions, the answer extracts show that they were most probably open ended. It is assumed so because the respondents tend to think, express values and give meaningful answers using their own knowledge and experience. According to Merriam (2009) open-ended questions are used to let participants express their views. Judging out of the answer excerpts it can be assumed that questions were presupposition type, but by no means leading (Glesne, 2011, p. 107), as the sample responses do not show evidence of leading the teachers to answer in any specific way. The interviews were transcribed, pre-checked for obvious mistakes. Through both interviews this study examined why and how some teachers thought ICT was risky and others did not. The interview results together with other methods used for data collection were triangulated. Merriam (2009) explains that one of the means ensuring ‘trustworthiness’ is through the process of triangulation. Merriam (2009) also represents four types of triangulation strategies, one of which; multiple sources of data, was implemented in this study.

Wilkan and Molster’s (2011) study “Norwegian secondary school teachers and ICT” explores the factors influencing the use of ICT in three Norwegian secondary schools. Authors give limited information about the qualitative part of the study. Unlike Howard (2011), where the same sample was used for qualitative and quantitative data collection, Wilkan and Molster (2011) used different samples for qualitative data collection. Ten Norwegian teachers were purposefully selected due to their aim of developing ICT skills. “The logic and power of purposeful sampling leads to selecting information-rich cases for study in depth” (Glesne, 2011, p. 44). The article does not include information about the participants. Individual interviews were

conducted with all participants. The data was analyzed by sorting the answers. Interview themes were about the outcomes of ICT, teachers' use of ICT, students' attitudes towards its use in class and learner collaboration. The steps of analysis followed the principles in grounded theory to develop interpretation of data and to refine theoretical analysis. Robson (2002) explains that grounded theory 'seeks to generate a theory which relates to the particular situation forming the focus of the study' (p. 190). The study does not include any qualitative data samples or analysis. The study found that most of the secondary school teachers used ICT but they were not sure on its positive outcomes for their students.

Section two: Observations

This section examines four studies that have used observational techniques as their qualitative forms of research. All four studies are case studies.

The first is Hellsten's (2007) ethnographic case study "The paradox of IT in primary schools: E-learning is new but gender patterns are old!" investigating one school teachers' positive and negative reactions towards integrating educational technology in developing their professional knowledge and in providing innovative learning situations for students. Hellsten (2007) aims at exploring how primary teachers' professional knowledge and practice are influenced by IT. This study might be defined as an instrumental case study as it concentrates on the insights into the question rather than on the individuals involved. As Stake (1995) explains "The more the case study is an instrumental case study, certain contexts may be important ..." (p. 64). Moreover, this study can be categorized as a collective instrumental case study because it is assumed by the author that it will lead to what Stake (1995) calls "better understanding about a still larger collection of cases" (p. 66). The qualitative research approach used in this empirical case study is ethnography using semi-structured interviews. Merriam (2009) defines a "sociocultural analysis of a single social unit or phenomenon" as an ethnographic case study. Hellsten's (2007) is ethnographic since it depicts Swedish secondary school teachers as a community of practice and site for transformational learning. The author has labeled his study an ethnographic case study because the research focus requires him to enter into a close and relatively prolonged interaction with people in their everyday lives and actively participate as a member of the social group in the manner that Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (1995) advise for this type of research. So this ethnographic collective instrumental case study is a holistic inquiry into the lives of four Swedish secondary school teachers to understand their ways of living, teaching and the meanings they attach to such as knowledge and innovation. The empirical and holistic approach of the study is appropriate here as it discusses different ways of IT integration in schools by different primary teachers. The clearly defined purpose is followed by the research questions that have been designed focusing on the relationship between IT, gender and teachers' professional knowledge.

The data collection lasted for three months. The process started with two hour semi-structured open ended interviews with each teacher, followed by four classroom observations and ended with follow-up two hour reflection interviews. The interview questions are attached to the article as an appendix. Both interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. Nine types of qualitative interview questions (Kvale 1996) have been clearly followed by the researcher while constructing the interview guide as there are introducing, follow up, probing, specifying, indirect and direct questions left until the end to avoid the bias of leading the interviewee to answer a

certain way. The second reflection interview was a conversation between the researcher and the participants about the classroom observations. According to Kvale (1996), an interview as a conversation is a specific “form of conversational technique” (p. 36) and “a basic mode of knowing” (p. 37) that help the researcher understand “human reality ... as persons in conversation” (p. 37).

Classroom observations are described in this ethnographic study as participant ones. Four observations, 40 – 120 minutes each were carried out with all participant teachers. One sample lesson is included in the article as an appendix. Robson (2002) explains that “Participant observation is a widely used method in flexible designs, particularly those which follow an ethnographic approach” (p. 310). Glesne (2011) defines the goal of participant observations as “making strange familiar and familiar strange” (p. 67). Participant observations were used in this study to measure and assess the ways in which teachers choose and manage IT in their lessons. Robson (2002) adds that “... observation is the obvious method to use in assessing its effectiveness” (p. 310). Unobtrusive observation approach would have described this phase better because, as Holliday (2002) and Robson (2002) mention, it seeks to find out what is going on in a situation as a precursor to subsequent testing out of the insights obtained. The study findings suggest that IT creates a paradox and that teachers can experience IT as a positive phenomenon challenging new teaching ways and procedures.

Liu’s (2012) empirical case study “Teacher Professional Development (TPD) for technology integration in a primary school learning community” aims to assess the TPD effectiveness and its problems in a school based community. The study investigates possible ways through which TPD in professional learning community can help teachers acquire novel teaching practices. The site of the study was an urban elementary school. The school principal, administrative director and six teachers volunteered to participate in the study after discussing the project with the researcher. The study is silent about the participant selection method but it has a general description of each participant’s age, gender, position and contribution to the project. The researcher, who describes herself as a teacher trainer having six years of experience in evaluating technology related projects, coordinated the study; thus, acting as an overt researcher. Bryman (2008) explains that this ethically correct strategy obviates the need to negotiate access to organizations or to explain why you want to intrude people’s lives and make them objects of your study (pp. 403 - 405). He also calls this ‘participant-as-observer’ and describes this role as similar to ‘complete participant role’, with a difference that members of the social setting are aware of the researcher’s status as a researcher where he is engaged in regular interaction with participants in their daily lives (p. 410). Robson (2002) also sees this option as feasible and explains that “This stance means that as well as observing through participating in activities, the observer can ask members to explain various aspects of what is going on. It is important to get the trust of key members of the group” (p. 317). The researcher participated in this study not as a teacher but a coordinator of the project who was responsible for the project setup and its further development. “One strategy for the participant as observer is to evoke particular situation or behavior from the members of the group which essentially involves setting up a situation which has meaning for the group and then observing what happens (Robson 2002, pp. 317 - 318).

Observation was the primary evaluation method of the study to answer its research question. Observations can and should be conducted when they allow the researcher to address the research question (Glesne, 2011). The method was used to collect data about teachers' instructional practices to detect changes in their teaching after accomplishing professional training with them. Teachers then were asked to do peer observations concentrating on their peers' technology use, instructional strategies and behaviors during the lesson. There are four class observations discussed in the article. They include detailed descriptions of observed periods followed by discussion excerpts from all participants regarding specific parts of the lessons. The author mentions that she has written up field notes into a narrative account right after every observed period. "The longer you wait after the even in constructing a narrative account, the poorer such an account will be in terms of its accuracy and completeness" (Robson 2002, p. 324).

Hsu's (2012) "Examining the impact of educational technology courses on pre-service teachers' development of technological pedagogical content knowledge" suggests activities to prepare teachers to teach with technology. It intends to examine the impact of IT courses on pre-service teachers' knowledge of technology integration. Unlike Liu (2012) who used observations as the primary source, Hsu (2012) used observations as the third source of the data collection. Glesne (2011) explains that "Multiple means of data development can contribute to research trustworthiness and verisimilitude, or sense of authenticity" (p. 48). Maximum variation sampling strategy was used in this qualitative study to select the participants. An invitation email was sent to 50 student teachers before the commencement of the semester. Out of 15 volunteered student teachers eight were selected after the researcher consulted with the office of Clinical Experiences. All eight participants were representatives of eight different school districts with different levels of IT resources. Glesne (2011) explains that maximum variation sampling method "searches for common patterns across great variations" (p. 45). It is also called heterogeneous sampling, the implication of which is that "the greater the heterogeneity of a population, the larger a sample will need to be" (Bryman, 2008, p. 182). Robson (2002) explains that heterogeneous sampling aims at detecting themes which cut across the diversity of people or cases. The researcher carried out observations in all eight schools. Glesne (2011) defines this as multiple sites and explains that looking at different sites should increase the trustworthiness of common themes (p. 50).

Demographics of the participants and classroom technology resources are included in the article in a form of a table. The observations were carried out following a checklist which was designed following the features of constructivist approach proposed by Doering and Rolyer (2009). The article does not speak about observational method; however, judging out of the checklist it can be assumed that observations were structured. "Structured observation, often called systematic observation, is a technique in which the researcher employs explicit formulated rules for the observation and recording behavior" (Bryman, 2008, p. 257). A checklist with evidence of observations, data source and example strategies is included in the article in a form of a table. Each participant was observed for a predetermined period of time using the same rules. "These rules are articulated in what is referred to as an observation schedule which bears many similarities to a structured interview schedule" (Bryman, 2008, p. 257). Observer as participant technique was used in the study as the researcher remained primarily an observer and had limited interaction with the student teachers (Glesne, 2011). The study found out that

teachers had concerns of when and where to implement educational technology and came up with suggestions for further research.

Section three: Document analysis

This section examines two studies that have used document analysis as their qualitative instruments.

Troudi and Alwan's (2010) exploratory study "Teachers' feelings during curriculum change in the UAE: opening Pandora's Box" is informed by interpretive paradigm. It examines secondary school female English language teachers' awareness of curriculum change in the UAE. Merriam (2009) explains that in interpretive research, education is considered to be a process and school is a lived experience. Similarly, Glesne (2011) mentions that it "allows the researcher to approach the inherent intricacies of social interaction, to honor complexity, and to respect it in its own right" (p. 25).

The study participants were 16 Arab female teachers; one was a national teacher and the other 15 were expatriates. The authors selected the participants through two approaches: purposiveness and accessibility, because one of the authors, being female, was not allowed to access boy's schools, as she could not work with male teachers due to cultural restrictions. However, she had full access to girls' schools and work with female teachers. As Bryman (2008) contends, methodologies must tend toward consensus or culturally expected views. Holliday (2002) explains that the researcher and the research participants must enter into a relationship of culture making (p. 149). Curriculum documents and other curriculum related materials were the primary sources for this study. "Although the use of physical trace measures has never achieved much more than curiosity value in the social sciences, there has been substantial interest in the analysis of a particular kind of artifact: the documents" (Robson, 2002, p. 348). Glesne (2011) explains that "Your understanding of the phenomenon in question grows as you make use of the documents and artifacts that are a part of people's lives" (p. 89). The data were collected on the year of the curriculum change. Constant comparison technique was used to compare even small incidents in the data. Merriam (2009) explains that instant comparisons lead to categories which later on can lead to theory formulations.

Gao's (2012) "Digital technologies and English instruction in China's higher education system" explores teachers', administrators and policy makers' views about technology implementation in College English Curriculum Requirements. Like Troudi and Alwan (2010), Gao (2012)'s study involved curriculum documents, policy statements, official syllabus documents, course programs from three national universities and nationally approved textbooks to understand the interactions of teachers, administrators and policy makers. Content analysis and data coding were used to map out the picture and answer the research question. "Content analysis is codified common sense, a refinement of ways that might be used by laypersons to describe and explain aspects of the world about them" (Robson, 2002, p. 352). The article does not speak about the coding scheme, manual or schedule used for content analysis (Bryman, 2008, p. 283), however; it mentions that document review informed the questions designed for teacher interviews, such as issues of IT skills and use. Glesne (2011) states that "Documents can raise questions about your hunches and thereby shape new directions for observations and interviews" (p. 85). The study found out that there is a gap between the policy and ICT pedagogy in China

tertiary teaching suggesting further research on exemplary learning designs with educational technology.

Section four: Focus groups

This section reviews two mixed methodological studies that have used focus groups as their qualitative forms of research.

James's (2006) "A study of participatory action research (PAR) as professional development for educators in areas of educational disadvantage" challenges its use in the USA as a 'teacher research'. Through participatory action research this study addresses the gap between researchers and the intended beneficiaries of research (Whyte, 1991), who in this study are homeless children. James (2006) has labeled his study participatory action research because it follows the principles advised by Whyte (1991), which are the collective investigation of the problem, the indigenous knowledge to better understand the problem, and a desire to take collective action to deal with the problem.

Eight Primary school administrators, eight teachers and one homeless shelter education provider formed the educators' team who conducted face-to-face meetings once every two months throughout the 2003-04 school year. The study does not explain how the members of the team have been chosen and where exactly it was carried out rather than simply mentioning the project known as Colorado Educators Using Participatory Action Research to Study Homeless and Highly Mobile Students (CO PAR). Each participant wrote a report after completing one or more cycles of participatory action research and received a \$ 3000 stipend upon the completion of the study. The qualitative data was collected through focus groups and interviews. The study does not mention how many focus groups there were and how long the gatherings were scheduled for. Morgan (1997) explains that, "The safest advice is to determine a target number of focus groups in the planning stage but to have flexible alternative available if fewer or more groups are needed" (p. 44). Groups consisted of 17 participants, which are considered to be large according to Glesne (2011): "Small groups of six to ten participants generally work best" (p. 132). If focus groups are large, "they tend to break into subgroup discussions that are difficult to facilitate and record" (p. 132). It was a homogeneous focus group in terms of profession, as all 17 members were educators. "... homogeneous groups ... can allow for a more free-flowing, relaxed conversation as well as facilitate the development of analytical concepts based upon data gathered in different kinds of groups" (p.132).

To assist in the interpretation of the data the author of this study used an analytic technique of reflective journal writing. The study does not speak about the themes or criteria according to what the contexts were analyzed. As Glesne (2011) states, "the comments and thoughts recorded as field log entries or as memos are links across your data" (148). The study outcomes were verified through triangulation which is explained by Stake (1995) as a quality assurance tactic to ensure that research is based on a disciplined approach and not simply a matter of intuition, good intention and common sense (p107).

Hu's and McGrath's (2011) "Innovation in higher education in China: are teachers ready to integrate ICT in English language teaching?" explores the implementation of a national reform in China called College English reform. Qualitative data served as the main element to answer

the research questions. It derived from observations, interviews and focus groups. Two teacher and two student focus groups were held during the study. Johnson (1996) in Robson (2002) argues from a critical realist perspective that focus groups have considerable potential to raise consciousness and empower participants (p. 284). Because the sampling for proportionality was not the main concern of the study, it used purposive sampling. Although 44 out of 78 teachers who participated in the quantitative enquiry expressed willingness to participate in focus groups, a smaller sample of 12 teachers were selected for this study following five criteria: gender, age, title, experience and teaching materials used. Glesne (2011) explains that "...homogeneous groups in terms of gender, age, race, or sexual orientation, can allow for more free-flowing, relaxed conversation as well as facilitate the development of analytical concepts based upon data gathered..." (p. 132). The article does not include information about the selection criteria of the student focus groups. The author was the moderator of one hour interviews. Glesne (2011) states that "Generally, focus group gatherings are scheduled for one to two hours" (p. 132). Participants as auditors were asked to check the transcripts. Five questions with sample answers and analysis are included in the article. "Four or five good questions should suffice for somewhat structured focus group session" (p. 132). Focus group interviews were audio-recorded. Robson (2002) explains that "The tape provides a permanent record and allows you to concentrate on the interview" (p. 290). The data was transcribed and interpreted. Categories were identified and relationships between them were analyzed.

Conclusion

"No single study or text could hope to cover all you need to carry out 'real world' enquiry" (Robson, 2002, p. xxi). This evaluation was wide-ranging considering issues involved in designing, carrying out, analyzing and reporting several types of studies. It provided a clear overall structure, while seeking to address some of the complexities in current literature. This was an important task to make features of flexible research design explicit in a sense that the design changes and develops as a result of the researcher's data gathering experiences. To conclude, the critical appreciation of the arguments and evaluation of the qualitative methods that have been used on the topic of this paper assisted in identifying the qualitative methods to use for possible research studies based on mobile classroom teaching pedagogies.

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Appendix A: Study Summaries

<i>1. A study of participatory action research as professional development for educators in areas of educational disadvantage</i>	This mixed methodological study aimed at evaluating the efficacy of participatory action research methodology (a) as a tool to engage both administrators and teachers and (b) as a process of professional development through which to address issues of educational disadvantages. Interviews and focus groups with participants were used to collect data for qualitative analysis. The findings suggested that PAR allowed both administrators and teachers to engage in social and educational issues involved with homeless students and to develop specific practices to help them. (James, 2006)	<i>What was the experience of educators with PAR process and why might PAR be a useful tool in addressing educational disadvantage?</i>
<i>2. Technology integration in the schools of Guyana: A case study</i>	This study aimed at exploring the impact of using learning technologies, specifically interactive radio instruction for teaching math and Success Maker software for enhancing literacy skills. 275 surveys, interviews, observations, focus groups and qualitative expert reports of classroom use of learning technologies were used as data collection methods. The study found that the Success Maker software was a great resource and students were enthusiastic to learn once that technology session was timetabled. (MacKinnon, 2010)	<i>What are the impacts of, and associated challenges with, implementation of interactive radio instruction for teaching mathematics? What are the impacts of, and associated challenges with, implementation of computers as teaching and learning tool?</i>
<i>3. Devices and Educational Change</i>	This paper explores 2 cases of device-mediated educational change. The first involves a computer-assisted interactive video module that provided 30m instruction for a university course. Interviews with admin. And professors, observations were used for data collection.	<i>To what extent did the use of technology facilitate a learning environment which encouraged collaboration and knowledge construction?</i>

<i>4. Teachers' instructional scaffolding in an innovative information and communication technology-based history learning environment</i>	The study aimed at examining how teachers with different conceptions of their teaching roles use different types of instructional scaffolding while working in an innovative learning environment. The study also aimed at investigating the role of instructional scaffolding in different types of learning activities following Vygotsky's theory. The class process was video and audiotaped, teachers and students were interviewed and questionnaires were administered before and after the study for data collection. The results showed that teachers with different conceptions of their role demonstrated differences in the nature of their instructional activities. (Rasku-Puttonen, Etelapelto, Hakkinen and Arvaja, 2006)	<i>How are associations among people and things accomplished? Do associations come slowly allowing different kinds of users at different stages as a device takes form or do commitments come together all at once?</i>
<i>5. Teachers' feelings during curriculum change in the UAE: opening Pandora's box</i>	This qualitative exploratory interpretive study attempted to understand teachers' perceptions of curriculum change in the UAE. The study looked at innovations that took place in textbooks used in grades 10 through 12. The teachers didn't have the official curriculum but only the introduction and contents sections of the main textbook. The curriculum change model was top down with almost no chance for teachers to play any active role. Data collection methods included repeated face-to-face semi-structured, group interviews and document reviews. The data revealed that participants had contradictory affective reactions to curriculum change since they approved of some aspects of change but were disturbed by other aspects. (Troudi and Alwan, 2010)	<i>What do English language teachers understand by 'curriculum' in the UAE context? How do the teachers feel about the curriculum change in the UAE context?</i>
<i>6. The paradox of IT in primary schools: E-learning is new but gender patterns are old!</i>	This ethnographic case study aimed at examining the ways teachers experience IT as "solution" or "frustration" in developing their professional knowledge in one school. Interviews and observations were used as methods of data collection. The study showed that in that school It is used as a creative tool. It also showed that women teachers found it more difficult than men to use IT into their practice. (Hellsten, 2007)	<i>Are there differences between the sexes regarding teacher's ways of adopting IT? Are there social or cultural factors other than gender which affect teachers' IT use and attitudes towards computers?</i>
<i>7. Teacher professional development for technology integration in a primary school learning community</i>	This study aimed at understanding teacher professional development (TPD) process where there was sufficient IT integration through teacher participation in a school-based community. It looked at TPD effectiveness and its potential problems. Instructional observations and teacher reflections were used as data collection methods. The study findings revealed that teachers changed their perspectives on methods for It integration from lecture based teaching to student-centered teaching via processes of teacher PD. (Liu, 2012)	<i>Can teacher professional development for technology integration in a primary school learning community change teachers' attitudes towards using It in classroom?</i>

8. <i>Examining the impact of educational technology courses on pre-service teachers' development of technological pedagogical content knowledge</i>	The purpose of this case study was to examine the impact of educational technology courses on pre-service teachers' development of knowledge of technology integration in a teacher preparation program in the USA. The data was collected through interviews, document reviews and observations. The findings showed that it is necessary to offer a course that focuses on technology skills early in a teacher education program, allowing pre-service teachers apply their learned skills in later courses.	<i>How did the educational technology courses affect development of the pre-service teachers' knowledge of technology integration in a teacher education program?</i>
9. <i>Using technology for enhancing teaching and learning in Bangladesh: Challenges and consequences</i>	This mixed method study focused on factors relating to the use of technology to support school-based professional development for in-service teachers in Bangladesh. Qualitative methods involved in this study were classroom observations and semi-structured interviews. The study found that mobile technologies can assist learners at the point of need and in ways that fit in with their lifestyle.	<i>NO research question stated</i>
10. <i>ICT in English schools: transforming education?</i>	This empirical study demonstrated that sustained educational transformation using ICT involves more than pedagogical awareness alone, and that a broader array of factors should also be taken into consideration moving from traditional top-down to a bottom-up approach. Grounded theory used for interview data analysis. The quality of tech. potential relies more on school leadership to initiate more effective teacher training.	<i>NO research question stated</i>

<i>11. Innovation in higher education in China: are teachers ready to integrate ICT in English language teaching?</i>	This case study examined teachers' attitudes towards ICT use in education and ICT-related continuing professional development policies and practices in a university in China. Mixed methods were used: observations, semi-structured interviews and focus groups were used to collect data for qualitative analysis. The study found that teachers can make comprehensive reforms possible but appropriate facilities and resources are essential, relevant professional development is key and on-going support is vital.	<i>What are EFL teachers' attitudes towards the adopting of ICT in language teaching and the wider context? What are EFL teachers' experiences of CPD? How has CPD met their needs in relation to the national reform and specifically ICT use?</i>
<i>12. Persistence and motivation</i>	This intrinsic case study examined a new teacher's beliefs, motivations and perceptions about how and why technology can and should be used to support student learning. Data were generated through e-mail exchange over the course to identify themes: nontechnical focus, expectations, rationale, impact and beliefs. The study found out that for this teacher persistence was critical to learning in absence of pre-service learning opportunities in the effective application of tech. to support learning.	<i>NO research question stated</i>
<i>13. Digital technologies and English instruction in China's higher education system</i>	The paper reported on a study that investigated the views of teachers about use of technology embedded police. It tried to clarify how lecturers in China had been oriented by College English Curriculum Requirements (CECR) towards pedagogical change. Mixed method was used for this study. The qualitative paradigm was based on document review and individual interviews. The study found a significant gap between policy and reality of pedagogical change.	<i>What are the expectations of higher education English teachers in the use of ICT in implementing the CECR policy? What is the perception of higher education English teachers regarding the expectations of these mandatory syllabus requirements?</i>
<i>14. Norwegian secondary school teachers and ICT</i>	This mixed method study explored to what extent do teachers use ICT in their classroom teaching and what teacher-level factors influence the use of ICT. 10 focus group interviews were used for qualitative analysis. The study found that integrating ICT in teaching is a difficult and gradual process and teachers must be given time to find their own way to merge ICT with their teaching style.	<i>To what extent do teachers use ICT in their classroom teaching and what teacher-level factors influence the use of ICT?</i>
<i>15. Affect and acceptability: exploring teachers' technology-related risk perceptions</i>	This two-phase mixed-methods design study presented a way to understand the complex weighing of teaching and technology values when teachers' choose, or choose not to, integrate technology in their teaching. The case studies in phase 2 comprised of 3 rounds of semi-structured critical incident interviews, classroom observations, document analysis and informant interviews. The findings suggested that as teachers' computer-efficacy decreased the perceived risks related to technology integration increased.	<i>What risks are the teachers asked to take when using technology and how do they perceive these risks?</i>

The Ideology of American English as Standard English in Taiwan

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Abstract

English language teaching and learning in Taiwan usually refers to American English teaching and learning. Taiwan views American English as Standard English. This is a strictly perceptual and ideological issue, as attested in the language school promotional materials that comprise the research data. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) was employed to analyze data drawn from language school promotional materials. The results indicate that American English as Standard English (AESE) ideology is prevalent in Taiwan. American English is viewed as correct, superior and the proper English language version for Taiwanese people to compete globally. As a result, Taiwanese English language learners regard native English speakers with an American accent as having the greatest prestige and as model teachers deserving emulation. This ideology has resulted in racial and linguistic inequalities in contemporary Taiwanese society. AESE gives Taiwanese learners a restricted knowledge of English and its underlying culture. It is apparent that many Taiwanese people need to re-examine their taken-for-granted beliefs about AESE.

Keywords: American English as Standard English (AESE), Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), ideology, inequalities

Introduction

It is an undeniable fact that English has become the global lingua franca. However, as far as English teaching and learning are concerned, there is a prevailing belief that the world should be learning not just any English variety but rather what is termed Standard English. Despite the fact that English is supposed to be learned for global communication, British English and American English have long been the two models underlying English instruction in most EFL countries (Trudgill&Hannah, 2002). The American English taught in Taiwan is regarded as ‘good’ English or Standard English (Chang, 2009; Tsou& Chen, 2014) because of the close historical and political relationship between the USA and Taiwan (Chang, 2004), as well as the superpower status of the US in military and economic aspects. English language teaching and learning in Taiwan is usually in reference to American English teaching and learning. AESE, which has been taken for granted as natural and a common sense choice in Taiwanese society, is an ideological perception. However, research into AESE ideology has received very little attention in Taiwan.

In examining AESE, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) was employed to analyze data drawn from the promotional materials (school fliers, websites, television commercials and television English teaching programs) of English language schools and *buxiban* (cram schools) in 2014. English language schools refer to schools that offer general English courses for different groups (elementary, secondary and tertiary students, and adults) and whose purposes are not geared towards academic tests. *Buxiban* refers to language schools that offer supplementary English courses for test purposes, such as junior high and high school English, IELTS, TOEFL, TOEIC, and so on. ‘Cram school or language school’ is the generic term for both the ‘English language school’ and ‘*buxiban*’.

Attending cram schools is deemed a necessary part of life for many Taiwanese people; however, research on cram schools is scant in Taiwan (Liu, 2012). This research is significant because, to the best of my knowledge, no other published work has investigated AESE ideology in Taiwan through media discourses, and particularly through the promotional materials of cram schools. Research questions of this study include:

1. How is American English presented as the Standard English in advertisements by English language schools and *buxiban* in Taiwan?
2. How has AESE resulted in linguistic and racial inequalities in Taiwan?

Literature Review

Standard English is “the variety of English used by the formally-educated people who are socially, economically, and politically dominant in English speaking countries” (Farr, 1994, p. 4338). Kaplan (1999) argues that Standard English is “a sociolinguistic construct, reflecting both the reality that English is a pluricentric language, and the popular notion that one or another variety has greater social cachet” (p.5). There is a continuing debate over Standard English in the global context. Two key figures: Quirk (1985) and Kachru (1986), express contrary views on this issue. Quirk (1985) argues for the recognition of a single global standard for both English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Kachru (1986), on the other

hand, argues for recognition of a multiplicity of standards both in native English speaking communities and those in non-native English speaking countries. Kachru(1986) views varieties of English in the world in general, and specifically in Asia, as consisting of three concentric circles: native speaking countries (the Inner Circle), second-language speaking countries (the Outer Circle) and foreign language speaking countries (the Expanding Circle). Both Quirk and Kachru agree that in regard to EFL countries in the Expanding Circle, some type of norm is needed (McKay, 2002). In EFL countries, English is learned as a foreign language for international communication, with the reliance being on English speaking country norms (Alm, 2003; Friedrich, 2002; Nino-Murcia, 2003; Petzold, 2002; Yano, 2009). Therefore, what Standard English is, and which model of English should be taught and learned, is the main concern in the EFL countries.

There are two main standard varieties for the EFL countries: British and American English (Trudgill& Hannah, 2002). The choice of Standard English depends in part on each nation's history (Bhatia, 2009; Friedrich, 2002; Gill, 2009). For geographical, political and historical reasons, EFL countries in Europe tend to select British English as their Standard English because they see it as "prestigious", "proper" and "correct" (Modiano, 2001, p. 168). When a country chooses a pedagogical model, it reflects a valorization of the speakers of the model (Petzold, 2002). In other words, for Taiwanese learners of English who seek native-like competence, the goal often is to master American English. As a result, users of English regard an American native speaker as the model with the greatest prestige (Holliday, 2005; Jenkins, 2009; McKay, 2002). As Baker(2012) notes, for effective communication, users of English need to master more than the features of syntax, lexis and phonology of native speaker-like English that is the traditional focus in ELT: "In the diverse sociocultural settings of intercultural communication through English ...the skills of multilingual communicators are needed" (p.63). Furthermore, "the most powerful strategy in ELT seems to be to foster critical awareness with regard to English domination, construction of identities, and social, linguistic, racial, and ethnic inequality" (Kubota, 1998, p. 302).

Milroy and Milroy (1998) and Lippi-Green (1994) take a critical approach and view the concept of Standard English as an ideology, with "educated speakers as the sole possessors of the standard language"; "the form of English taught in school"; and signifying "all variants that are used by educated speakers". These are some definitions from three well-known dictionaries (*Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* and *Chambers Dictionary*, as cited in Lippi-Green, 1997, pp. 54-55). Lippi-Green uses these definitions to demonstrate that Standard English is an ideological concept. She points out that these definitions create an educated and less-educated or uneducated dichotomy; it suggests that the educated group serves as the model for other groups in terms of both the languages' spoken and written forms. Standard language ideology has been defined as "a bias toward an abstracted, idealized, homogenous spoken language which is imposed from above, and which takes as its model the written language. The most salient feature is the goal of suppression of variation of all

kinds” (Lippi-Green, 1994, p. 166). Moreover, Milroy and Milroy (1998) point out that standard language ideology has resulted in racial and linguistic discrimination.

Milroy and Milroy (1998) and Lippi-Green’s (1997) notion of a Standard English ideology is applied in this study to explore how American English is presented as the Standard English in language school advertisements and how AESE has caused social injustice. This study is essentially concerned with raising Taiwanese people’s awareness of AESE English ideology in the hope that they can escape the grip of this ideology in the context of globalization.

Methodology

Data Collection

In order to provide multiple sources of more accurate and convincing evidence than a single source of information, a corpus of texts advertised by language schools were collected in 2014 (Table 1).

Table 1. Background information of the data

English Language Schools	<i>Buxiban</i>	Total
41 fliers: LF1-LF41	31 fliers: BF1-BF31	72
35 websites: LW1-LW35	26 websites: BW1-BW26	61
14 TV commercials: TC1-TC14	N/A	14
N/A	1 teaching program: KK1	1

A total of 72 fliers were collected in four cities in Southern Taiwan by visiting these locations in July, August, September and October in 2014. A total of 61 websites were collected and material downloaded through www.yahoo.com and www.google.com in July and August in 2014. Nineteen commercials (1998 – 2014) were broadcast on leading television stations in Taiwan and were downloaded from language school websites in 2014. KK1 is a one-hour long American English pronunciation teaching program by *abuxiban* broadcast on a leading television station collected in August 2014.

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Fairclough (1992) states that CDA not only describes discursive practices, but also demonstrates “how discourse is shaped by relations of power and ideologies, and the constructive effects discourse has upon social identities, social relations and systems of knowledge and belief, neither of which is normally apparent to discourse participants” (p. 12). It can be argued that there is a close interrelationship between language schools and Taiwanese society as reflected in discourses practices. Analyses in the field of CDA often focus on media texts, such as advertising, newspaper reports, television, and so on. Kress (1993) claims: “The everyday, innocent and innocuous, the mundane text is as ideologically saturated as a text which wears its ideological constitution overtly” (p. 174). In other words, all texts are ideological to

some extent. Goddard(1998) points out that not only written texts, but also images, do not appear in any advertisements by accident. Therefore, all texts play an integral part of the way the advertisements represent AESE.

To investigate how the ideology of AESE in English learning is manifested in language schools' promotional materials, and how this ideology has resulted in social inequality in Taiwan, Fairclough's(1992) conception of a "three-dimensional discourse" (p.73) model (Figure 1), the most well-known CDA theoretical framework, was employed in this study.

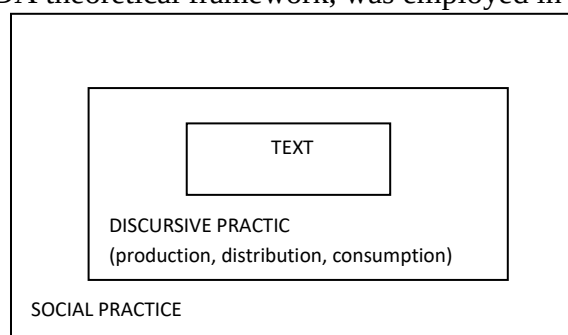


Figure 1. Three-dimensional conception of discourse (reproduced from Fairclough, 1992, p.73)

How this model can be employed in language school promotional materials will be demonstrated in the data analysis.

Data Analysis

First dimension: text analysis (description). The first dimension text analysis covers the description of the text (both written texts and multi-modal texts).

Any written words or images related to *USA*, *America* or *American* were analyzed. LF9 flier serves as an example of how written texts and images in the data were used to understand the use of the concept AESE. In this study, school address, school names, phone numbers, email addresses, and contact people are excluded and the symbol "XXX" is placed to protect their identities. Translation of Mandarin Chinese data into English is underlined.

In this study, 'still images' refers to photos and pictorials in school fliers and websites. As far as still images are concerned, three pictures in LF9 were found to contain the ideological concept of AESE. The top one on Side A shows two male Caucasians and four little Taiwanese pre-school children looking up and pointing to an oversized American flag. One of the Caucasians is wearing an American flag scarf. The bottom one on Side A shows a male Caucasian wearing an American flag scarf and a group of five pre-school children looking at something. The school logo on Side B depicts a lion wearing a hat with stars and stripes.

In terms of written texts, the slogans and lexical collocation of "America" or "American" are analyzed. The school slogan on Side A reads: 美語為您打通通往世界的鑰匙, For you, American English is the key to the world. There is another written text at the bottom of side

A: 天天外師上美語 Foreign teachers teach American English every day. Another slogan says: 美語就是競爭能力您具備了嗎? American English means competitiveness. Do you have it? In class information (both sides A and B), six lexical collocations of American were found. They are: 美語安親班 American English children-care class (2 tokens), 美語課輔班 Afterschool American English class (2 tokens), 美語密集班 American English intensive class (1 token) and 兒童美語班 Children's American English class (1 token). Only four collocations were counted in this study: 2 tokens of American English children-care class and 2 tokens of afterschool American English class.

Second dimension: processing analysis (interpretation). The analysis of this dimension focuses on who are the producers of the text, how the text is interpreted and what are the producers' objectives. The producer of FL9 is an English language school. The photos of FL9 depict an oversized American flag, an American flag scarf, and the logo of a hat with stars and stripes, symbolizing AESE. The male Caucasians stand for clearly visible ideal native English speaking teachers, unlike Chinese Americans or black Americans. The Taiwanese English language learners are looking up to the idealized American English teachers.

In terms of written texts, this slogan: For you, American English is the key to the world. contains two ideological concepts: American English is THE preferred language over other variety of English. Moreover, English is marked as the only way to internationalization. Another slogan, Foreign teachers teach American English every day, also demonstrates two ideological concepts: foreign English teachers are better English teachers and AESE. Native English speaking teachers will help Taiwanese English learners to acquire American English. American English means competitiveness, do you have it? This slogan tells its viewers that American English is the language needed for global competitiveness. As far as lexical collocations are concerned, American English children-care class, afterschool American English class, American English intensive class and Children's American English class imply that an early start to learning English is imperative. In short, the slogans and lexical collocations indicate that only one variety of English, American English, is considered appropriate, correct and prestigious.

Third dimension: social analysis (explanation). The third dimension is concerned with connections between micro (language schools) and macro (Taiwanese society) relations. How the ideology of AESE in English language teaching and learning is manifested in language school promotional materials, and how this ideology has resulted in social inequality in Taiwan will be presented in the Discussion section.

Results

School Fliers and Websites

Slogans and excerpts

A total of 78 slogans and short excerpts alluding to the concept of AESE were found in the data. The slogans indicate that only one variety of English, American English was found. A salient finding is that 55 of these texts contain two or three ideological concepts (see Table 2).

Table 2. American English as Standard English and other ideological concepts of ELT

Descriptions	Total
Standard English	23
Standard-English & ideal English teaching method	21
Standard English & the-earlier-the-better	14
Standard English & American English as a key for global competitiveness	9
Standard English & the-earlier-the-better & American English as a key for global competitiveness	5
Standard English & ideal English teachers	4
Standard English & the-earlier-the-better & ideal English teaching method	2
Total Texts	78

The following is one of the texts with three ideological concepts.

LF35: 培養孩子與世界接軌的美語競爭力

LF35: To cultivate children's American English means giving them a competitive edge when entering the world.

LF35 promotes American English as the global language, implying that children need to acquire this particular form of the English language to ensure global competitiveness. LF35 illustrates three ideological concepts: American English as a key for global competitiveness, AESE and the-younger-the-better. These 55 texts indicate that ELT ideologies in Taiwan, such as American English is a key for global competitiveness, American English teachers as the ideal English teachers, American English only as the ideal English teaching context, the-younger-the-better regarding American English acquisition and AESE ideology are closely inter-linked.

Body texts

A total of 370 terms encompass the concept of AESE (Table 3). The lexical collocations of Table 3 also reveal a one English notion: American English, since no other varieties of Englishes were found.

Table 3. Lexical collocations of USA, America or American

Descriptions	Total

USA degree	122
American English class	120
American English teaching method	39
American/Canadian teachers	37
American curriculum & teaching materials	36
American English learning environment	10
KK pronunciation class	6
Total	370

Seven categories of lexical collocations of *USA*, *America* or *American* were found. They are *USA degree* (122 tokens), *American English class* (120 tokens), *American English teaching method* (39 tokens), *American and/or Canadian teachers* (37 tokens), *American curriculum & teaching materials* (36 tokens), *American English learning environment* (10 tokens) and *Kenyon and Knott (KK) pronunciation class* (6 tokens).

Since a North American accent is regarded as the standard, Canadian English teachers are included in *American and/or Canadian teachers*. *American English teaching* means either an English-immersion method or communicative language teaching. The *KK pronunciation class* also presupposes General American pronunciation. The lexical collocations of *USA*, *America* or *American*, such as: *USA degree*, *American English class*, *American English teaching method*, *American and Canadian English teachers*, and *American English learning environment* reinforce the notion that only one English: American English, is viewed as the standard, appropriate, correct and prestigious version.

Still images

A total of 55 still images containing AESE were found.

Table 4. Symbolic objects of Americans or American features

Descriptions	Total
American Flags	29
Places and Landmarks	11
Studying in the USA	11
Eagle	2
Americans	1
Sesame Street Characters	1
Total	55

The American flag (29 tokens) plays an important role in conveying AESE both in commercials and still images. Famous American places or landmarks (11 tokens), such as the

Statue of Liberty, Golden Gate Bridge and the White House, were found. Only one photo presented other English cultures (Buckingham Palace, Sydney Opera House, Cities in Canada) in this study. A total of 11 photos show an American education exhibition or a farewell party for a group of Taiwanese students who are about to leave to study in the USA. These pictures provide further evidence that an American degree is preferred. One photo in LF15 in the corpus depicts American or Canadian individuals who are well-known public figures. The photo of prominent Americans includes Father Jerry Martinson an American Jesuit missionary and English educator, the founder of XXX Language School, and one of the most recognizable public figures in Taiwan. The main reason for the low frequency of Americans is that foreign teachers' nationalities cannot be identified in still images. In short, these still images explicitly illustrate that Taiwan is strongly influenced by the USA and cannot dissociate itself from American English norms.

School names

Every school name contains two parts, for example, 長頸鹿美語. 長頸鹿 means "Giraffe" and the second part, 美語, means "American English". The English name for 長頸鹿美語 is Giraffe Language School. The name demonstrates that the second part of the school name, especially in Mandarin Chinese, plays an important role in conveying the concept of AESE. Therefore, the second parts of language school names are analyzed separately in Mandarin and English (Table 5).

Table 5. Types of language schools

In Mandarin Chinese	Total	In English	Total
American English School	50	Language/English School	67
English School	27	American/English School	7
Educational Organization	15	Educational Organization	3
Foreign Language School	9	Foreign Language School	1
Total	91	Total	78

A total of 91 language school names in Mandarin and 78 names in English were found (Table 5). The analysis demonstrates that school names in Mandarin (50 tokens) play a more important role in spreading the notion of AESE than those in English (7 tokens).

TV Commercials

American representations

The TV commercials (TC) explicitly or implicitly promote AESE via American representations, such as American flags, an eagle, Mount Rushmore, Statue of Liberty and the White House (cf. still images analysis). Moreover, the American anthem has also been used in the TC1 commercial. The commercial shows a group of Taiwanese English language learners (from pre-school to adults); the pre-school children are talking in English and standing in front of a huge animation of the Statue of Liberty.

American flags play an important role in conveying the concept of AESE (see also the still image analysis). The TC7 commercial shows a Taiwanese mother riding a bicycle with her son sitting on the rear bicycle rack heading towards a big oversized American flag. The slogan of TC7 commercial says XXX Language School fulfills your dream of studying abroad. Although the slogan does not specifically indicate which country is the destination for Taiwanese learners, the oversized American flag indicates that studying abroad means studying in the US.

Slogans or short excerpts

A total of 19 slogans or excerpts containing the concept of AESE were found in TV commercials. They can be divided into five categories: American style teaching method is fun, easy and interactive (7 commercials); American English is the key to the world or is equated with global competitiveness (5 commercials); American English makes English language learners' dreams come true, or means future success (4 commercials); Speaking English fluently as if you were in the US (2 commercials); and Standard American English pronunciation is the key to possessing good English listening comprehension ability (1 commercial). The slogans or short excerpts analysis also indicates that AESE is closely linked with other ideologies (see Table 2) such as native speakers of English as ideal English teachers, the English-only method as a superior English teaching method, the earlier-the-better in English instruction, and American English as the key to globalization.

The above analysis demonstrates that the commercials promote only American English. The dominance of American English representation, without any other English varieties and cultures in the commercials, shows that Taiwanese people perceive AESE.

KK American Pronunciation Teaching Programs

KK1 is a KK American pronunciation teaching program. The KK system of General American pronunciation was adopted in public schools in Taiwan in 1969, and has been used universally since then. There is only one figure, a male Chinese English teacher in the program. The teacher uses a teacher-centered method to teach how to pronounce KK phonemics to help Taiwanese learners acquire American English pronunciation. This reinforces the notion that an American accent is the standard and students are required to acquire it.

Discussion

Based on the research questions proposed in the Introduction, American English pronunciation, North American accent, USA degree and American English learning environment will be discussed in the following. These concepts are inextricably linked to the ideological concept of AESE which has resulted in racial and linguistic discrimination in contemporary Taiwanese society.

American English Pronunciation (KK System)

Crystal (1995, as cited in Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert & Leap, 2000) argues that “Standard English is not a matter of pronunciation, rather of grammar, vocabulary and orthography” (p.21). The data results show that American English is currently the dominant variety, and Taiwanese students are strongly encouraged to acquire American English pronunciation. In order to master American English pronunciation, the KK system of General American (GA) pronunciation was adopted as the official English pronunciation in Taiwan in 1969.

The KK system is a “phonemic” transcription of General American English, i.e. it provides a symbol for each distinctive consonant and vowel of General American English. The KK system and American English have been codified and used in dictionaries, local English newspapers and educational materials that have been recognized in English test systems. Now all Taiwanese students learn English in their schools using the KK phonetic system. With the government and language schools working together to promote KK as the standard, the concept instilled in the minds of students is that other varieties are of less value. Every Taiwanese English teacher has learned the KK system and, not surprisingly, they teach American pronunciation. When an English teacher presents only American pronunciation without providing students with equivalents from other varieties, the implication is that American English is the accepted standard. Therefore, Taiwanese or foreign English teachers who do not possess American English pronunciation are not regarded as properly equipped to teach pronunciation.

While Taiwanese people regard the KK system as Standard English pronunciation, in reality there are numerous varieties of KK which differ from Kenyon and Knott’s original model, due to the misinterpretation of some original KK symbols (Vijūnas, 2014). These misinterpreted American English phonetic symbols have become the norms and continue to be used in EFL teaching materials in ELT in Taiwan (Vijūnas, 2014). Ironically, Taiwanese people have been working hard on acquiring misinterpreted American English pronunciation or so called Standard American English pronunciation which has continued to be perceived as correct English for a long time. The ideological concept of American English pronunciation, which is deeply rooted in the minds of the people of Taiwan, is part of a greater power construct.

North American Accent

The term “accent” is used as “a loosely defined reference to sets of distinctive differences over geographic or social space, most usually phonological and intonation features”, or more generally as – “how the other people speak” (Lippi-Green, 1994, p.165). The term, 北美音 North American Accent, originally meant how native speakers from the USA speak English. Now it means how native speakers of English in the USA and Canada speak English, because “the sociolinguistic situation in the USA and Canada, as far as pronunciation is concerned, is rather different from that of the rest of English speaking countries” (Trudgill & Hannah, 2002, p. 35).

For the general public in Taiwan, no distinction is made between American English and Canadian English in referring to North American English. Cartridge (2005), as a very experienced native English-speaking teacher from Australia, points out, Taiwanese English language learners may at times be learning a very heavily American-accented English from the “deep South” of the USA, which “is difficult for other English speaking people in the world to understand” (p.8). However, any American accent is considered the most important aspect of speaking proficiency, so students in Taiwan are strongly encouraged to acquire a North American accent. Only the North American accent is seen as prestigious; it has established an unequal social relationship among native English speaking teachers in Taiwan. In 2003, employment agencies planned to recruit some teachers from the Philippines and India to teach in kindergartens and language schools in Taiwan “because these teachers will teach for about half the salary of their western counterparts” (Chang, 2003, p.3). However, the Ministry of Education (MOE) objected to recruiting English teachers from India and the Philippines because in these countries “English is not the native language and residents have non-native accents” (Chang, 2003, p.3). The MOE clearly indicated that its plan to import foreign English teachers targeted the US, Canada, the UK and Australia/New Zealand. This implied that the MOE only considers English teachers from the Inner Circle, especially the USA and Canada, and is reluctant to hire English teachers from the Outer Circle because of their accents.

Now “All native English-Speaking accents welcome” is one of the English teaching job requirements advertised on the Teaching English and Living in Taiwan (Tealit) Website (<http://www.tealit.com>), the most popular English teaching job website in Taiwan. However, in reality, many language schools still prefer Caucasian English teachers with a North American accent (Cartridge, 2005; diGenova, 2011).

A qualitative research conducted by Chen and Cheng (2012) focused on three South African English teachers' challenges in Taiwanese elementary schools. One of the major findings is that the American accent is viewed as the Standard English in Taiwan, so not only their students but also their colleagues expressed doubts regarding their South African accents. As a result, the teachers are required to modify their South African accent, which is regarded as a type of ethnic discrimination or even racism by South African English teachers.

The MOE hiring policy, the website post and the result of Chen and Cheng's study demonstrate that “accent becomes both manner and means for exclusion” (Lippi-Green, 1994, p.165). In fact, racial discrimination and accent are closely linked. “When people reject an accent, they also reject the identity of the person speaking: his or her race, ethnic heritage, national origin, regional affiliation, or economic class” (Lippi-Green, 1994, p. 165). Lippi-Green (1997) points out that, despite the myth of non-accent, “every native speaker of US English has an L1 accent” (p.43), and it is impossible to substitute one phonology (accent) for another consistently and permanently. “L2 learners are nowadays the only English speakers who are still encouraged to approximate an RP or General American (GA) accent as closely as possible” (Jenkins, 2002, p. 85). Having a North American accent as the standard implies that the goal of English learning is to achieve a native-like accent. Taiwanese English learners wish to acquire a native-like North American accent. In reality, most Taiwanese English users will never attain a

native-like North American accent (Yang, 2012). English used in Taiwan every day is called “臺灣英語”: Taiwanese English, because a Taiwanese variety of English is already emerging (Chung, 2012; Yang, 2012). Taiwanese English has been used in English classrooms at all levels (Chung, 2006). Chung (2006) identifies and describes the features of the sounds and allophones of Taiwanese English and shows how they differ from a North American accent. Taiwanese English is one of the countless varieties of World Englishes (Chung, 2012; Yang, 2012). Clearly, acquiring a North American accent is an ideological imperative. Another concept associated with AESE is the US degree.

USA Degree

According to the statistics from the Institute of International Education, Taiwan was the single largest source country of international students on American campuses during the 1970s and 1980s (Teng, 2002). The USA is still the most popular destination among Taiwanese for studying abroad; it is strongly encouraged and supported by distinguished Taiwanese scholars (Teng, 2002; Wu, 2014).

Since the early 1990s, there has been a moderate but steady decline in the number of Taiwanese students going to America. According to a recent report by Taiwan's MOE (Wu & Hsu, 2014), the number of Taiwanese students studying in the US has decreased nearly 22% over a decade, from 28,017 in the 2002-2003 school year to 21,867 in the 2012-2013 school year. The former president of Taiwan (2008-2016), Mr. Ma, and the former minister of Education of Taiwan (1999-2000), Mr. Yang, who studied in the USA were worried about the decline in the number of Taiwanese students going to the US, fearing that Taiwan will lose its global competitiveness (Lin, 2013; Yang, 2011). The above arguments insist that if Taiwan wants to maintain competitive in the world, people need to study in the USA.

There are 170 tokens of Chinese English teachers who have US degrees (Table 5), with 47 tokens of degrees of other English speaking countries. Generally speaking, *Buxiban* hire Chinese teachers who have USA degrees to teach TOEFL, GRE and GMAT to help more Taiwanese students to study in the US. Since a large number of people are studying in the US, they are acquiring American English. American English will probably continue to be privileged both in theory and in practice in Taiwan in public and private schools. A USA degree also implies that American English signifies competitiveness.

Kachru (1988, as cited in Brown, 1993) argues that “students from EFL countries will return home to promote the teaching of English after studying in English speaking countries” (p.61). Many former Taiwanese students who studied in the US became outstanding scholars and teachers in Taiwan, and reached the pinnacles of business, the professions, public service and government (Babb, 2002). As a result, a defense of other varieties of English is lacking since the majority of Taiwanese English language scholars, educators or politicians have a US degree; few have a degree from other English speaking countries. Strict adherence to

American English by the government does not provide students with an opportunity to learn other varieties of English.

American English Learning Environment

“Any teaching curriculum is designed to answer three interrelated questions: What is to be learned? How is the learning to be undertaken? To what extent is the former appropriate and the latter effective?” (Breen & Candlin, 2001, p. 9). The result indicates, as far as ELT in Taiwan’s English language schools is concerned, that anything associated with the terms *USA*, *America* or *American* is viewed as signifying the best. An *American curriculum* in English language schools means North American English needs to be learned, with the teaching process to be undertaken by Caucasian native speaking English teachers with a North American accent and using an English-only or interactive method and American teaching materials. These components consist of a so-called *American English learning environment*, which is considered appropriate and effective for Taiwanese learners to acquire English language mastery. Such a learning environment gives Taiwanese students the fullest possible introduction to the American speech community and reinforces the concept of AESE. As a result, an American curriculum, American teaching methodology, American English teachers, American teaching materials and other ELT activities used are considerably influenced by the US and promoted by English language schools. Since American English is perceived to be the appropriate and correct variety to learn, Taiwan relies on American norms.

The English language schools’ exclusive promotion of American English shows that there is an acceptance of the language-related beliefs and behaviors of the native speakers of American English. As a result, American English is considered the educational standard, and superior to other English varieties. The choices of which English should be taught, how English should be learned, who is going to teach it and who will train the teachers in the school system is not made locally or individually, but by the government. The result is that the diffusion of American English has become an issue of political power in English teaching and learning.

Since Taiwan shares many values with the US and has maintained a long, strong friendship and close contacts, for these reasons alone, AESE is synonymous with knowledge and privilege. American English is regarded as prestigious, appropriate and correct English. The majority of Taiwanese people agree with one single English language; since generally speaking, only American English is taught; thus, Taiwanese English language learners’ awareness and understanding of the world may be limited as well.

Conclusion and Implications

The results indicate that there is an AESE ideology: American English is viewed as correct, superior and proper and is the preferred language version for Taiwanese people to compete globally. AESE in Taiwan is a socially constructed myth. This ideology has resulted in racial and linguistic discrimination in contemporary Taiwanese society.

There are some implications generated by this study. First, Taiwan is an EFL country and English is being learned for international communication. Even though there is a growing

demand for, and recognition of, the importance of English for cross-cultural and international communication, English should not be limited to certain varieties of English.

Second, the analysis and results have demonstrated how American English norms are promoted while other varieties of English are characterized by an almost complete absence in the corpus. Taiwan will continue to look to the US variety of English as a model for correctness because of its close relationships in the political, cultural, economic and educational spheres. The ideology of AESE means that Taiwan needs to maintain a dependency relationship with English speaking countries, mainly the US, for pedagogical advice.

Third, the Taiwanese government needs to shift the focus away from only American norms, and develop appreciation of other varieties of English, since the government will pay the most crucial role in avoiding the AESE ideology.

Finally, it is hoped that many Taiwanese people will reexamine their beliefs about AESE, which they have taken for granted for so long. They need to adopt a more thoughtful, sensitive and critical attitude toward differences in the English language and teaching English as a whole. They need to examine and re-evaluate their love affair with American English.

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Choice of Phonetic Variables, /k/ and [č], in Al-Jaroushia Speech Community, Palestine: A Socio-phonological Perspective

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Abstract

This study aims to pinpoint the sex of the speakers as the most dominant social correlate intersecting with their socio-economic status (level and field of education and income level), addressee and age to determine the speaker's choice of phonetic variables /k/ and [č] in Al-Jaroushia speech community, Palestine. It strongly suggests that females, rather than males, pioneer in a trend towards more frequent vocalizations of standard Arabic phonetic forms. In order to achieve the purpose of this study, data was collected from thirty eight respondents by using a CD Recorder that recorded the answers of the test questions: *what is Nablus famous for, and what is a cat mostly afraid of?* The answers are respectively /knafi/ (a kind of sweet which Nablus city is famous for) and /kalb/ (dog), in both of which /k/ could also be realized (articulated) as [č]. Another major tool was interviewing the respondents on different occasions and in different social status quos. The study obviously reveals that the sex of the speaker is the major, most influential social correlate governing their choice of /k/ and [č] inasmuch as it intersects with the speaker's socio-economic status, addressee and age, setting up intricate patterns of social stratification.

Key words: sociolinguistics, social stratification, phonetic variables, social correlates

Introduction

Ascribing the choice of phonetic variables in people's speech to a range of social correlates has been an inevitable sociolinguistic trend. This study of the phonetic variables in Al-Jaroushia speech community discloses that the most frequently invoked social correlates of phonetic variables are roughly the socio-economic status (including the educational level and income level), age, addressee, and sex.

The study apparently pinpoints the sex of the speaker as the prime social correlate determining people's choice of phonetic variables in the Al-Jaroushia speech community. It is obviously premised on the notion that females tend to use more Standard Arabic forms than males do. It is also suggestive of how influential the field of study is in determining males' choice of phonetic variables, and more illustrative of the fact that educated males whose area of study is Arabic tend to use more standard forms than others. Added to that, this study demonstrates how sex intermingles with the addresseeⁱ and age of female speakers to determine females' choice of phonetic variables. It significantly stresses the impact of the level of education, income level of the addressee and the degree of solidarity to the addressee on females' choice of phonetic variables.

Sex difference constitutes the major component in each complex pattern: to show prestige, women are inclined to use the variable /k/ far more than men do; but men use the variable [č] far more than women do. In fact, the increasing use of /k/ instead of [č] among females, especially young and educated ones, is indication that women are leading a phonetic linguistic tendency towards more articulations of standard Arabic forms in Al-Jaroushia speech community. Besides, this study highlights the effect of the addressee's socio-economic status and degree of closeness or intimacy on the speakers' choice of phonetic variables. Women in particular are affected by their addressee's socio-economic status and the closeness of their relationship to their addressee. The closer the relationship is, the fewer/k/'s women use when addressing people. Underpinning this view, O'Grady et al. (1999, 547) point to the phonological entities of sociolinguists as 'sociolinguistic variables'. These variables are speech sounds that do not occur uniformly across a speech community or in the speech of an individual. O'Grady et al. (1999, 547) explain, "A particular variable may be realized one way in one speech variety and a different way in another speech variety." Likewise, a variable might be rendered one way by speakers when they are speaking cautiously and another way when in a more casual speaking style.

The most common phonetic variable that determines the degree of speakers' prestige in Al-Jaroushia village is /k/. This variable is either realized as [k] by prestigious or high-status speakers, or as [č] by people whose speech is non-prestigious or informal. Whereas speaking with [k], a Standard Arabic sound, is acceptable as a sign of esteem, [č] is the stigmatized form of [k]. The most frequently asked question "Does (s)he speak with [k] or with [č]?" underlines the noticeability of this trend in Al-Jaroushia speech community, especially when people intend to inquire about how prestigious and prescribed a person's language is. In English-speaking communities as well, "Probably the most common variable in English is (ing)" (O'Grady et al., 1999, 547). Since (ing) is a variable, it is not always realized the same way in speech. O'Grady et al. (1999) indicate that its two realizations are [in] and [iŋ]. The same word might be pronounced with one or the other realization by the same speaker or different speakers: *swimming* might thus be realized as [swimin] or as [swimiŋ].

O'Grady et al. (1999, 547) claim that these realizations do not occur randomly in speech: there are well-established correlations between the two realizations of (ing) and such extra-linguistic factors as the socio-economic status and gender of the speaker. The variable tends to be realized as [ɪŋ] by speakers of higher socio-economic status, by females and in formal situations.

Coulmas (2013, 48) further holds:

Many surveys have revealed a clear correlation with social stratification. The general pattern is that the portion of the reduce form -in' is highest in the lowest social group and lowest in the highest social group. Because of this, the -ing variant, which is preferred by the highest social group, is considered standard and more prestigious, while the -in variant is the vernacular form. The direction of the distribution is the same for both sexes in that male and female speakers of the lowest group choose -in more frequently than counterparts of the highest social group. However, when the data are broken down along gender line, an interesting difference appears.

In an earlier notion, which seems to sum up more than three decades of sociolinguistic research on the choice of phonetic variants, Labov (1990, 210) confirms that women seem to choose the standard forms or variants more often than men do, and that this inclination holds across all social strata, despite the fact that the variance between men and women is more noticeable in some than in others. Fasold (1990) stresses that using standard rather than vernacular forms allows women to sound less local and thus have a voice more suitable rejecting social expectation than place women in an inferior position to men.

As far as Al-Jaroushia speech community is concerned, whereas the former view of O'Grady et al. (1999) is unlikely to be comprehensive, the latter one seems quite comprehensive. This study of phonetic variations in Al-Jaroushia village suggests that sex is the most prevailing social correlate affecting people's speech. In fact, it, by and large, toes the line if compared with Coulmas (2013), Labov (1990), and Fasold's (1990) studies: women tend to use more standard Arabic forms as they articulate more [k]'s more than men do.

The premise that sex is the most dominant social correlate is of crucial importance. In order to verify the effect of sex as an entity distinct from the other social variablesⁱⁱ, the authors chose thirty eight respondents, twenty one of whom are almost uneducated, have a low-income level and are members of the same family. Whereas all males within the first family typically speak with [č], some females do not. To account for females fewer articulations of [č], the first thing the authors had to take into consideration was their age. The fact that those females whose age is over fifteen speak to the members of their family (such as their sisters, brothers and parents) with [č] has drawn the attention to the impact of the addressee on the choice of their speech trends. It turned out that females who are over fifteen speak with /k/ if their relationship to the addressee is not that close. Still neither age nor the addressee has depicted any particular effect on parents aged over forty five to mark their speech with /k/. To verify those conclusions, we had to examine the effect of sex on the members of the second family which ultimately produced the same results.

The fact that the eldest female (daughter) within each family is about thirty one shows age disparity between daughters and mothers who are over forty five. Perhaps this evidence is not

sufficient to firmly identify the age range of the females opting for /k/ in their speech under the influence of the addressee. This led the authors to look into other females' speech choices, especially, those whose age range is between thirty and forty one. It turned out that only those who are under forty speak with /k/ under the influence of the addressee. Therefore, it sounds rational to conclude that those females whose age ranges between sixteen and forty speak with /k/ under the influence of their addressee, displaying a clearly complex pattern of interaction between sex, on the one hand, and age and addressee, on the other.

The interaction of sex with the socio-economic status of respondents is one of a series of indications that sex is the most influential (or dominant) social variable. For example, whereas all educated females speak with /k/, educated males who speak with /k/ are only those who are affected by the type of education in the field of Arabic. This exhibits an interaction between education, sex, and the type of education.

Similarly, sex interacts with the income level of the speaker since high-income level femalesⁱⁱⁱ tend to articulate more /k/'s than high income level males do. Still, high-income level females' choice of phonetic variables is linked to the addressee's identity, socio-economic status and the closeness of their relationship to the addressee (as detailed below). This, roughly speaking, displays an interaction between income level, sex and addressee.

It should then be obvious that there are multifarious patterns of social stratification based on the interplay of more than one social correlate; and since sex is the social correlate which recurs and persists in each complex pattern, it is referred to as the most dominant or influential social variable impacting on the speakers' choice of phonetic variables in Al-Jaroushia speech community.

Compared to other studies same in nature, this has at least a similar, if not, a larger purpose. O'Grady et al. (1999), emphasises that with reference to the stratification of language, the social groups may be functions of the socio-economic status, sex, age, ethnic, or other characteristics of their members.

There is, however, some concern. As O'Grady et al. (1999, 543) put it, "while linguistic variation clearly does correlate with social variation, the result of particular studies may be based on invalid (or incomplete) assumptions made by the investigator who has failed to consider a full range of possible correlates".

To exemplify, Labov's (1972) assumption that the pronunciation of /r/ perfectly correlates with the socio-economic status of the salesperson at the high-ranked stores of New York City because they articulate more /r/'s than those at the lower-ranked ones could be incomplete. According to O'Grady et al.'s (1999) point of view, concentrating only on the socio-economic status of the salespersons, Labov (1972) is likely to be overlooking other range of social correlates (such as education, age and addressee) that would affect the salespersons' use of /r/ at the high-ranked stores.

Therefore, for the sake of precision, this study of Al-Jaroushia speech community takes into account the full range of all possible correlates affecting people's choice of phonetic variables, strongly suggesting that sex is the foremost social correlate. O'Grady et al. (1999) buttress the

notion that the sex of the speakers is a very crucial social correlate, indicating that the considerable attention paid to the socio-economic status in the past sociolinguistic studies ‘obscured’ the role of sex. O’Grady et al. (1999) add that sex, “may, in fact, be a more powerful underlying cause for the social differentiation of language than the socio-economic status” (p. 543).

In fact, this study of Al-Jaroushia speech community could also be viewed as a ‘social network’ analysis which pointedly enhances the view that as a result of different social factors at work governing people’s choice of phonetic variables, people of the same sex and socio-economic status do not necessarily speak in the same way (as detailed below). In this regard, there will be a comparison and contrast between this study, which examines the interaction of a range of different social correlates that yield complex patterns of social stratification of /k/ and [č] pronunciation, and that of Labov (1972), which demonstrates a simple pattern of social stratification of the /r/ pronunciation based merely on the socio-economic status of respondents.

Research Methodology

In order to collect data from people, the authors recorded people's voices on CD recorder during spontaneous conversations. In order to test the assumption that sex is the prime social correlate which intersects with the speaker’s socio-economic status, addressee and age to yield multifaceted patterns of social stratification, and, to prove that females use far fewer [č]’s than males in Al-Jaroushia speech community, data was collected from thirty eight respondents.

The hypothesis whether a particular speaker uses more /k/’s than [č]’s or vice-versa was successfully tested by the normal question mutually asked when two people meet, /keif həlak/ (how are you?). The /k/ in /keif/ can also be phonetically realized as [č].

In addition, the authors usually asked each respondent two test questions whose answers have the sound /k/: what is Nablus famous for, and what is a cat mostly afraid of? The answers are respectively /knafi/ (a kind of sweet which Nablus city is famous for) and /kalb/ (dog), in both of which /k/ could also be realized (articulated) as [č].

Respondents were carefully chosen to carry out the objectives of this study. The authors visited and interviewed married couples and members of the same family. This cautious selection perfectly served the purpose of this study in its sociolinguist nature. For example, couples chosen to test the influence of the level of education of respondents on the way they speak have proven that wives rather than husbands are absolutely affected by education. Whereas the mere fact that a wife is educated underlies her choice to speak with /k/, the speech of husbands who could opt for /k/ is affected by their field of study, precisely, Arabic language. Four couples of respondents demonstrate this phenomenon.

To test the idea that the income level affects women more than men, two couples of high-income level were selected as an illustration. This notion proves, however, to be governed by the identity and status of the addressee. For a woman, if the addressee enjoys a high socio-economic status and she is not a close friend of the addressee, she speaks to them with /k/, otherwise with [č], unless she is an educated female. On the other hand, a high-income level man opts to speak with /k/ in three conditions: he is educated; he occupies a high-ranking professional position in

the society; and he is not a close friend to their addressee (as the example of the bank manager below shows).

With regard to addressee, in spite of the apparent recurrence of the fact that the addressee affects females' speech in particular, the authors have selected four uneducated respondents of a low-income level to illustrate the point that females are more influenced by the identity and status of the addressee. The four respondents belong to the same family: a mother, her son and his wife, and her daughter.

The fact that age affects females' choice of phonetic variables more than males' is mainly epitomized by two families in Al-Jaroushia speech community, each of which comprises at least four females whose age ranges between ten and thirty two, apart from the two males and the parents of each family: whereas age has no impact on whether men choose to speak with /k/ or with [č], younger females tend to pronounce more /k/'s rather than [č]'s. Three or four females whose age ranges between thirty one and forty illustrate this phenomenon. Needless to say, their response significantly depends on the identity and the socio-economic status of the addressee.

A final thing to note is that all names of respondents used in this study are not real and are only used to facilitate the process of referencing.

Problems and limitations of the study

Data gathering was problematic; this study depends on data from particular respondents in order to correlate the way they speak to the different social factors. The fact that the addressee is a major social correlate which affects people's choice of phonetic variations makes data gathering a painstaking task. Therefore, interviewing particular respondents could barely serve the purpose this study seeks to achieve. Given this fact, the authors had to visit some respondents more than once, to say nothing of the inevitability of sometimes accompanying them to different places to investigate how they would articulate the sound /k/ in relation to the socio-economic status of their addressee. Whenever the influence of the addressee is evident on the respondents, women in particular, rather than men, opt to speak with /k/, otherwise with [č].

Distinguishing between the effects of the different social correlates is also another major problem. With exception of sex, there do not seem to be precise effects on a particular speaker specifically attributable to one particular social factor rather than other factors due to the interplay of the different social correlates which produce complex patterns of social stratification. Therefore, careful attention should be paid to interpreting respondents' choice of a particular phonetic variable in connection with their sex, socio-economic status (educational level and income level), addressee and age. For instance, when the authors look into the effect of the addressee on a respondent, one fact that helps the authors accurately detect the effect of the addressee on her/him is that the authors themselves have served as addressees due to the fact that the community they are studying considers them of high educational level. Furthermore, the process of differentiating between the effects of the different social variables is complicated. For example, if respondents are typically affected by their addressee, there should be a question about who is more affected: males or females? This study reveals that females are much more influenced than males, but which females are more affected: educated ones or uneducated ones, high-income level ones or low-income level ones, younger ones or older ones? Therefore, to

accurately verify the effect of income level rather than effect of the educational level, particularly on females, the authors had to select families where there are uneducated females, because the study shows that educated females speak with /k/ rather than [č]. Next, although sex is the major social correlate that interacts with all other social factors, it has to be reflected on separately, and accordingly investigated. Without envisaging sex as a discrete entity, it would not have transpired that age is the very social variable that affects sex in relation to the addressee. Age has apparently influenced younger females of low socio-economic status (uneducated and low-income level ones) to produce more /k/'s than [č]'s when they are talking to an addressee of high socio-economic status or to one who they are not familiar with.

Finally, males have shown that they are always far less influenced by social correlates than females. This could assign a marginal role to males in this study. Yet, the effect of social variables on males is explored, albeit with less focus.

Data Analysis

Education and Choice of Phonetic Variables

Despite all the problems and limitations illustrated above, this study explicitly reveals that educated females tend to use more [k]'s than educated males do. Most of the uneducated females who are over forty years old tend to articulate more [č]'s than [k]'s. However, the field of education is a powerful factor that makes men pronounce [k]'s as frequently as educated women do. This implies that whereas the type of education is a powerful factor determining the frequency of [k] usage among educated males, the mere fact that a woman is educated underlies her choice of [k] rather than [č], irrespective of the field of education. It also explicitly signals age as a sociolinguistic correlate that particularly affects women rather than men (as detailed below): most of the uneducated women who are over forty speak with [č].^{iv} Speakers one to eight illustrate all these facts in Al-Jaroushia speech community.

Respondent number one is Hekmat (all names mentioned are not real but used to facilitate referencing), a teacher of Arabic. Speaker number two is Afaf. She is a forty-five year old teacher of Mathematics, and wife of Hekmat. Speaker number three, Waleed, is a teacher of Arabic. Speaker number four, Hanan, forty one years old, is the wife of Waleed, uneducated however. Salam is informant number five. He is the holder of a BA in Chemistry. His wife, Maysam, thirty years old, is educated as well: she has a bachelor of Primary Education. Speaker number seven is Ghassan. He is not educated. Speaker number eight is Reem, twenty five years old, Ghassan's wife. She is not educated^v, either.

As Arabic is the first speaker's scope of study, he speaks with [k]. The authors could notice a lot of [k]'s in his speech in words such as [keif] (how), [knafī] (a type of sweet), and [kalb] (dog). In fact, this speaker has explicitly indicated, when we asked him "Why do you speak with [k] rather than [č]?" that he likes others to notice a tone of standard Arabic in his speech, as a teacher of Arabic. He says that the sound [č] does not exist in standard Arabic, so its use by a teacher of Arabic as a realization of main phoneme /k/ would seem awkward. On the other hand, his wife, Afaf, is a teacher of Mathematics. She speaks with [k]. She says [keif], [kunafa], and [kalb].

Speaker number three, Waleed, speaks with [k], as he is a teacher of Arabic. His justification for speaking with [k] is the same as Hekmat's. Waleed's wife, however, is uneducated. She speaks with [č] rather than [k]. She says [čeif], [čnafī] and [čalb]. Informant number five, Salam, has a bachelor of Chemistry. Though he is educated, he does not speak with [k], but with [č]. This provides clear evidence of how the type of education in the field of Arabic affects males' speech in Al-Jaroushia speech community: males whose field of study is Arabic speak with [k].

Speakers six and seven, Ghassan and his wife, Reem, are both uneducated. Ghassan speaks with [č]; he says [čeif], [čnafī] and [čalb]. His wife, Reem, twenty five years old, though uneducated, sometimes speaks with [k]: this depends on the socio-economic status of the addressee and how close (as a friend) she feels to her addressee. She, for example, speaks to us with [č], despite the fact that we are educated and she is not. This could be ascribed to the fact that we are close friends of hers. But she speaks to Adnan who is a rich merchant with [k]. Reem claims that her choice of phonetic variables mainly depends on how close to her the addressee is (as a friend), and then on the socio-economic status of the addressee: if the addressee is educated or of high-income level and he or she is not close to her, she speaks to him or to her with [k].

In fact, Reem seems also to provide evidence of how age affects females' choice of phonetic variables. For example, Waleed's wife, Hanan, forty one years old, often speaks with [č]. Unlike Reem (who is twenty three years old), Hanan's choice of phonetic variables is not governed by age, the socioeconomic status of the addressee or the closeness of relationship to the addressee.

Income Level and Choice of Phonetic Variables

Income level is another socio-economic correlate affecting people's speech. Labov (1972) has carefully examined how this factor affects people's speech in New York City. He in fact provides an interesting example of the effect of 'social prestige' on a regional dialect, signalled in the New Yorkers' articulations of /r/.

Labov (1972) holds "The so-called *r*-less dialect of New York City is so well-known that it is often the subject of humour" (p. 45), especially on the part of the New Yorkers who themselves speak it. It is commonly thought that speakers of the dialect completely lack /r/ in words such as *car*, *card*, *four*, *fourth*, and so on, but this is a misconception, as the intriguing study by the sociolinguist Labov (1972) reveals. Labov (1972) began with the hypothesis that New York City speakers vary in their pronunciation of /r/ according to their social status. Labov (1972) interviewed salespeople at several New York City department stores that differed in price range and social prestige. Assuming that salespeople tend to "borrow prestige" from their customers, Labov (1972) predicted that the social stratification of customers at different department stores reflected a similar stratification of salespeople. These assumptions steered him to hypothesize that "salespeople in the highest-ranked store will have the highest value of (r); those in the middle-ranked store will have intermediate values of (r); and those in the lowest-ranked stores will show the lowest value" (p. 45). Labov (1972) chose three stores: Saks Fifth Avenue (high prestige), Macy's (middle level), and S. Klein (low prestige). He interviewed salespeople by asking them a question that would elicit the answer *fourth floor*: "Where are the women's shoes?"

The result seemed to fall in line with the hypothesis in an interesting way. For example, Labov (1972) finds that at Saks, thirty percent of the salespeople interviewed always pronounced both /r/'s in the test phrase, and an additional thirty two percent used some /r/'s; at Macy's twenty percent of the employees used all /r/'s, and an additional thirty one percent used some; and at S. Klein only four percent used all /r/'s, and an additional seventeen percent used some.

Logically speaking, Labov (1972) implies that most of the people entering the highest-ranked store are of high-income level; those entering the middle-ranked store are of middle-income level; and those entering the lowest-ranked store are of low-income level. Someone of low-income level does not usually get into the high-ranked store as they can't afford something there. This leads to the fact that only those of high-income level can enter the high-ranked store as it is only them who can afford things sold there. Labov (1972) assumes that the degree of prestige of those people is mirrored in the frequency of their pronunciation of [r] as they pronounce more [r]'s than other people do at the other two stores; and the salespersons at the high-ranked store borrow this prestige of [r] pronunciation from their customers whose income level is usually high.

The first thing to note about Labov's (1972) study is that he seeks to provide statistical figures substantiating the existence of 'social stratification' at the different department stores; for example, at the high-ranked store, Labov (1972) comes up with the result (figures) that thirty percent of the salespeople used ALL /r/'s in the test phrase, and thirty two percent used SOME. If the fact that they are of high socio-economic status accounts for the thirty percent of the salespeople's use of All /r/'s in the test phrase, what triggers the thirty two percent of the salespeople's use of SOME /r/'s in the test phrase? This study of Al-Jaroushia speech community pays considerable attention to such questions when testing the effect of each social correlate on speakers' choice of phonetic variables (as in testing the effect of the socio-economic status for example).

The small population in Al-Jaroushia speech community, about one thousand persons, and the fact that the authors live among the people of this society, make them aware of specific information such as the age and the educational background of each respondent. This makes the task of answering such questions considerably easier for us.

However, such questions could be difficult for Labov (1972) to handle due to the large number of respondents, and, more significantly, due to Labov's (1972) lack of personal information about his respondents. Labov (1972) has not lived in the community where he undertook his study, and neither could he have known specific facts such as the educational background and age of each informant. However, in addition to having particular and specific data about our respondents, for we live in Al-Jaroushia village, we have access to particular rather than casual respondents who are of interest to the purposes of our study.

Despite the fact that the authors do not usually have close relationships with everyone, it is not very unusual to visit them casually. This sort of visits is acceptable in this society. So we can easily interview particular people to see how they speak and even sometimes observe them at different times and places to test whether their articulations change in connection with other addressees apart from ourselves. The fact that *we are educated persons* is known to almost

everyone in this society and this seems to be in our favour as researchers. Therefore, as the people of this society view education as a source of high social status, we, as well as being interviewers, were able to take the advantage of playing the role of the addressee to verify whether or not respondents' choice of phonetic variables varies in relation to other addressees other than ourselves.

It is commonplace that the people of this society usually speak with [č] rather than with /k/. However, they (females in particular) are usually affected by their addressee's identity and social status. Although we ourselves as researchers speak with /k/, in order to identify the effect of our educational level on respondents, we had always to speak with [č] rather than /k/ to ensure that a particular respondent's shift to speak to us with /k/ rather than [č] is due to our high social status rather than thanks to the fact that we speak with /k/. In this context, it is not hard to assume that Labov (1972) was able to assess the effect of the educational background and age of respondents (females in particular) by considering his respondents' choice of phonetic variables (as will be shown below). This should seem quite reasonable if we take into account that most of Labov's (1972) respondents are female sales assistants. Contrary to Labov's (1972) findings, this study on Al-Jaroushia speech community shows that it is unlikely to take for granted that high-income level people always speak with [k] to manifest prestige. This study considers two types of high-income level people: educated people and uneducated people. Educated people include males and females. This study accurately depicts that uneducated males whose income level is high never speak with [k] to imply social prestige. However, educated males of high-ranking occupational positions as well as uneducated females whose income level is high use [k] to signal social prestige. Still, this fact entirely depends on the addressee's identity and socio-economic status. If the addressee is of high social status and has no close relationship to the speaker, speakers (females in particular) talk to their addressee with [k]. This lends more credibility to assumption that the sex (of the speaker) and the addressee interact with the income level of the speaker to provide evidence that sex, as the most influential social correlate, and the addressee, as a less influential one, significantly contribute to governing people's choice of phonetic variables in Al-Jaroushia speech community. The following respondents illustrate this fact:

Informant number nine is Hazem, a bank manager. His wife, Jihad, speaker number ten, is not educated but of high socio-economic status. When we visited Hazem at the bank he manages, Hazem did not speak to us with [k] to express prestige in his speech, as a bank manager whose income level is very high. He, however, seemed to opt for [k] when talking to the bank staff as an expression of prestige in his speech. This fact was apparently demonstrated in the word [kam] (how much) he said to one of his employees.

His wife, on the other hand, as a wife of a bank manager, speaks with [k] whenever she talks to educated people or those whose income level is high, especially, if they are not close to her. When she speaks to us, she speaks with [k]; she articulates some words with [k], as in [keif], [knafi] and [kalb]. However, in the same setting, when she speaks to her uneducated sister-in-law whose income level is not high, she speaks with [č] as in [čeif] and [čamer] (olive pickle). But she speaks with [k] to Adnan who is a rich merchant: she says [keif]. The question arising here is *why does Hazem talk to his employees with [k] and to us with [č]? It does not seem rational to*

assume that our level of education causes him to speak to us with [k]? Holmes's (1992) answer to this question seems to cut the heart of the matter.

Holmes (1992, 247) holds that the addressees and their relationship to the speaker constitute effective factors if not the most crucial ones to the choice of phonetic variables. And how well you know someone or how close you feel to them is one important dimension of social relationships. "The better you know someone, the more casual and relaxed the speech style you will use to them."

In fact, one of us is Hazem's cousin, a close friend of his, and, we and he almost enjoy the same level of education. He, therefore, finds no point in speaking to us with [k]. It is likely that his use of [č] when speaking to us is a representation of a close relationship.

Speakers number eleven and twelve, Adnan, and his wife, Mahasen, are another interesting example of how sex interacts with the addressee's income level and social status to affect a speaker's speech. Whereas Hazem is a bank manager, Adnan is a well-known and uneducated merchant. Adnan's wife is an uneducated lady. She is considered as one of those who enjoy high status because of her husband's high income level.^{vi}

Though Adnan's income level is very high, he never speaks to anyone with [k] to show prestige in his speech. And quite contrary to Hazem, who uses [k] when addressing his bank staff to show prestige in his speech and to maintain a social distance between him and his staff, Adnan never speaks with [k] to his employees. And when talking to us, Adnan uses [č] as in the word [čeif], [čnafi] and [čalb]. He never seeks to maintain some distance between himself and his employees. He never shows any phonetic variation when talking to his employees. Therefore, he keeps on talking to them with [č]. When he was talking to one of his employees, we managed to hear pronunciations with [č] in words such as in [čeif] (how), [tu:lčarem] (name of a city), and [čamal] (has been completed). Surprisingly enough, Adnan does not speak with [k] even to his peers. Adnan once invited us for dinner. He invited one of his peers as well to the same dinner. His peer's name is Hakeem. Adnan keeps on speaking to Hakeem with [č] rather than [k] despite the fact that Hakeem speaks with [k]. On the contrary, Adnan's wife, Mahasen, talks to her husband's peer, Hakeem, with [k]. This is clear in words such as [keif] and [kursi] (chair). When Mahasen talks to her daughter's tutor, she speaks with [k], too. However, when she talks to us, she speaks with [č]. The first point to make here is that Adnan, as an uneducated male of high-income level, is never influenced enough by the addressee to adapt his speech to his addressee even though his addressee speaks with [k]. His wife, however, is obviously influenced by her addressee as to whether or not they are educated, of high-income level or speak with [k]; especially that Mahasen is not close (as a friend) to her addressee. We have mentioned above that Mahasen talks to us with [k]. The fact that we are as educated as her daughter's doctor has not affected her to speak to us with [k]. She says to us [čeif]. Is there any phonetic discrepancy?

The considerable attention O'Grady et al (1999, 543) pay to 'social network analysis should provide a concrete explanation to such peculiarities. O'Grady et al. (1999, 543) maintain: A sociolinguist using the social network approach does not rely on large random sampling of population, but, rather, examines first hand from the perspective of participant-observer the language use of a pre-existing social group. Just as more traditional sociolinguists may assume

that social stratification exists and that this has significance for the interpretation of data, researchers using the social network approach also make certain assumptions. These researchers attach importance to the nature of the relationship (and resulting interactions) of a speaker and interpret linguistic variation in terms of the kinds and densities of relationships the individual enjoys in various groups.

This is valid evidence that even within the same social network, there are linguistic phonetic variations. The formal and informal usage of some phonetic variables depends on the density of the network, which is related to the potential communication among members of the network and can be 'closeknit' or 'looseknit'.

Romaine (1994, 81) renders the concept of social network clearer maintaining "the concept of social network takes into account different socializing habits of individuals and their degree of involvement in the local community." Romaine (1994) adds that the use of network as an analytical construct does not require grouping individuals into social classes as "networks may cut across social class boundaries and they may also reveal differences within social classes" (p. 81-2).

With reference to O'Grady et al.'s (1999) and Romaine's (1994) framework of social network analysis, this study is likely to be viewed as a social network analysis of Al-Jaroushia speech community. In connection with Al-Jaroushia Speech community, this framework demonstrates that there is a *dominant* rather than an *absolute* social variables which govern people's choice of phonetic variables within a given social class. The social network analysis allows for perfect analyses of why a particular speaker within a given social class speaks contrarily to the way in which he or she is expected to speak. Whereas the social network analysis framework seems to be adequate to identify the complex patterns of social stratification affecting people's choice of phonetic variables in smaller speech communities (such as Al-Jaroushia speech community), Labov's (1972) framework of 'social stratification, which aims to identify simple patterns of social stratification that are a result of single social correlate (such as the socio-economic one) in larger speech communities (such as New York city), is unlikely to be tolerable enough to identify and account for the complex patterns of social stratification that result from the interaction of more than one social correlate.

For example, as far as Al-Jaroushia speech community is concerned, social network analysis demonstrates that sex is the dominant rather than the absolute social correlate that interacts with the other social factors such as the socio-economic status of speakers to show that educated or high-income level females articulate more /k/'s than males do. The social network analysis framework seems to debunk the notion that the level of education is quite a weak factor affecting peoples' choice of phonetic variables if compared to the impact of sex on educated speakers in Al-Jaroushia speech community; it demonstrates that while all educated female respondents pronounce all /k/'s in the test questions, educated males who speak with /k/ are only those whose field of study is Arabic. Therefore, not only does the social network analysis demonstrate the fact that sex interacts with the educational level of the speakers revealing that all educated females speak with /k/, but it also displays that it is the scope of education rather than the level of education which affects males' speech making them to opt for /k/.

Similarly, whereas it is assumed that all high-income level respondents speak with /k/, the social network analysis framework exhibits facts to the contrary; it suggests that high-income level respondents are affected by sex since female respondents of high-income level tend to pronounce more /k/'s than male ones do. However, the social network analysis discloses the fact that whether females of high-income level speak with /k/ or with [č] depending on the addressee as social correlate is unlikely to affect all male speakers of high-income level.

For example, Adnan and his wife, Mahasen, belong to the same social network, high-income level class. They, however, do not speak in the same way. Adnan, as a rich and uneducated male merchant, is never affected by his addressees' socio-economic status; but his wife, as an uneducated female belonging to a high-income level class, is influenced. Nevertheless, this depends on whether she and the addressee form a 'closeknit' or a 'looseknit' network. Mahasen and the researchers form a closeknit network. Therefore, she speaks to us with [č]. In contrast, Mahasen and her husband's peer, Hakeem, as well as her daughter's doctor constitute a looseknit network. Therefore, she speaks to them both with [k].

Similarly, Hazem and the researchers (ourselves) establish a closeknit network as cousins and friends. But his wife, Jihad, and the researchers form a 'looseknit network' as we are neither cousins nor close friends. She, therefore, speaks to us with [k]. Jihad and her sister-in-law set up a closeknit network, so Jihad speaks to her with [č]. This is another obvious evidence of how there are phonetic variations within the same social class.

Addressee and Choice of Phonetic Variables

Before talking about the addressee as a social correlate contributing effectively to determining the choice of phonetic variables in Al-Jaroushia speech community, it stands to our reason as both researchers and interviewers to clarify how our choice of phonetic variables can be influenced by our interviewees.

For example Peter Trudgill (1988), interviewing people in Norwich, found that his own speech shifted towards that of the people he was interviewing. In different interviews, the number of glottal stops he used instead of [t] in words like *better* and *bet* reflected accurately the level of glottal stop usage in the speech of his interviewee. Interviewing a lower-class person who used one hundred per cent glottal stops in these contexts, Trudgill (1998) used ninety eight percent of the possible contexts. But when he interviewed a person from a higher social group whose glottal stop level of usage was only twenty five percent, his own level dropped to thirty percent.

It is self-evident that Trudgill (1988) accommodates his own choice of phonetic variables to his interviewees'. In this way, Trudgill (1988) tries to elicit as many natural choices of phonetic variables as possible from his interviewees; Trudgill (1988) avoids making his interviewees feel that they are being monitored, adapting his own speech to theirs.

There are two main differences between this study we have conducted and the studies of Labov (1972; 1999) and Trudgill (1988) . Whereas Labov and Trudgill are not well-known to every person in the societies where they have undertaken their studies, we are almost to be well-known to our respondents. The second crucial point is that while Labov (1972; 1999) and

Trudgill (1998) are trying to account for the typical choice of social variables, we are trying to account for the exceptional: Labov examines the existence of a kind of social stratification in New York City. For example, his study yields that thirty percent of the employees at the Saks, a high-ranked store, used all /r/'s in the test phrase, and an additional thirty two percent used some. Labov (1972) finds that it is no surprise that thirty percent at this store used all /r/'s. This percentage is higher than the percentages found in similar surveys conducted at the other two stores. This signals a common social stratification, that the sound /r/ used at the Saks represents high prestige which employees borrowed from customers. This seems quite reasonable.

But how can Labov (1972) account for the violation of the norm of /r/ use at this store? What governs the exceptional fact that an additional thirty two percent used some /r/'s? An accurate answer to this question requires exact and relevant information about the respondents and their addressee's identity and socio-economic status, such as age and the socio-economic background of each respondent. It may also require the same relevant information about the addressee.

Therefore, the likelihood that we might account for the exceptional is higher than Labov's (1972; 1999) and Trudgill's (1998), as we belong to the society where we have conducted our study. In addition, the number of people in Al-Jaroushia village is very small, so a small number of respondents may authentically represent all patterns of phonetic shifts and the social correlates governing them.

Back to the question of the status and identity of the addressee, we can confidently establish a strong link between the addressee as a social correlate and the use of [k] and [č] as phonetic variables of the phoneme /k/. Al-Jaroushia speech community reveals an intricate interplay between sex and addressee. Whereas males in general are not affected by their addressee, females are; females who are usually under forty tend to speak with [k] rather than [č] if they are influenced by the addressee. This again depends on the income level and the educational level of the addressee. If the addressee is educated or of high-income level, females in particular speak with [k] rather than with [č] (accommodating their speech to that of their addressee's). Besides, it relies on whether the speaker and the addressee set up a 'closeknit' or a 'looseknit' network: if they are close friends, speaking with [k] is likely to be needless act for the speaker.

It is noteworthy that if the speaker and the addressee are relatives, this does not mean that they are close friends or they establish a 'closeknit' network. If a relative is educated, of a high-income level or not a close friend, females in particular tend to switch to [k].

This does not, however, mean that the degree of kinship is not important; a female does not make a phonetic shift when she is talking to her mother, father, sister, brother, sister-in-law or any of those with whom she establishes a closeknit network within the same family. If a female, however, talks to her cousin who is educated or of high-income level and who is not a close friend, she speaks to her cousin with [k] rather than [č]. "The better you know someone, the more casual and relaxed the speech style you will use in speaking to them" (Holmes 1992, 247). Speakers thirteen to sixteen represent this fact. They all belong to one family (one of the researcher's uncle's family) and live in one house. When they invited us to dinner, we

intentionally asked them separately about the name of a dish they prepared; the name of this dish contains the sound /k/, which could either be realized as [k] or as [č], [ʕakku:b]. It could also be realized as [ʕačču:b]. We could observe phonetic shifts, especially in the females' articulation.

Iman, speaker number thirteen, is a twenty-four year old and uneducated lady. She speaks to us with [k] as in [keif] and [ʕakku:b] (a name of a dish). Iman and the researchers are not close friends though we are cousins. We do not really make up a closeknit network due to the educational disparity between us and her. Thus, she speaks to us with [k] assuming she will deliver prestige-flavoured articulations that would make up for the fact that she is uneducated. Nonetheless, she speaks to her sister-in-law with [č]. She says [ʃo:či] (fork).

Speaker number fifteen, Reema, is Bashshar's sister. She is thirty years old. She speaks to us with [k], but she speaks to her sister-in-law (Iman) with [č]. When we asked her why she speaks with [k], she replied that [k] is a sound that exists in the Holy Quran, but [č] does not. Here she justifies her use of [k] from a religious point of view. Yet, this justification does not seem plausible as she speaks to her sister-in-law with [č]. Whereas she says to us [keif], she says to her sister-in-law [čeif] and [malič] (what is wrong with you?).

Holmes (1992) indicates "The women's speech reflects their social aspirations" (p. 231). For example, Jonathan Holmquist (1985) points out that in Ucieda, a small village in Spain, men have been forced to look outside the village to find wives. Many of the village women will not marry the 'local dairy' farmers because they do not want to remain in the farming villages. Holmquist (1985) tells also that the prospect of being stuck at home, as their mothers were, with the cows and the children simply is not very attractive.

Similarly, Al-Jaroushia village females, especially those of low socio-economic status seek a better life away from farming, or staying at home to tend their children. They find speaking with [k] as a way of expressing prestige, so a woman may attract an educated or a high-income level man who may marry her and offer a lifestyle which is better than the traditional lifestyle of her mother.

Speaker number sixteen, Khadra, sixty five years old, is Reema's and Bashshar's mother. She is never affected by any addressee to speak with [k]. She always speaks with [č]. She says [ʕačču:b] and [čeif]. This speaker could be representative of female speakers who are above forty and usually speak with [č].

Sex and Choice of Phonetic Variables

With regard to sociolinguistic variables and sex, Romaine (1994, 79) stresses a link between sociolinguistic variables and sex. She states:

A number of sociolinguistic studies have found that women tend to use higher-status variants more frequently than men. This pattern was found, for example, with both post-vocalic /r/ and (ing).

Shnukal, in her (1978) Cessnock study, which she undertook in Australia, finds that males are more likely to use the /in/ (less standard) pronunciation than women are. Another

Australian study conducted by Shopen (1978) in Canberra yields the same result: women use more (ing)'s than men do.

Being in line with the results of the above mentioned studies, Al-Jaroushia speech community represents an obvious trend towards the use of more standard Arabic forms since women are leading a linguistic change towards more standardised Arabic articulations. Women's use of [k] is far more frequent than men's due to the upward use of [k] by the young female generation. It should, however, be indicated that age is a significant factor interacting with sex to determine females' frequency of [k] articulations in Al-Jaroushia speech community.

Meanwhile, we need to highlight the notion that immature females, whose age is below sixteen, speak with [č] rather than [k]. They might be unaware of the social significance of [k] usage to signal prestige. This could also be an indication that those females are still under the influence of their parents' traditional speech patterns, who speak with [č]. However, such awareness seems to be developing among females whose age, roughly speaking, ranges between sixteen and forty, as they use more [k]'s than [č]'s. This again depends on the addressee as we have mentioned above. For instance, older females, who are forty or over, use fewer [k]'s provided they are neither educated nor of high-income level. When those females are neither educated nor of high-income level, their use of [k] becomes addressee-incurred, as mentioned above.

It is likely that the fact that Al-Jaroushia speech community is conservative one affects younger females rather than older ones. The current contact younger females have with city people has led to a linguistic change. Younger females have started to simulate city people in their speech, especially, when speaking with [k], since the people of Al-Jaroushia consider [k] as a characteristic of city people's speech.

This seems quite plausible. One of the factors that may more attract young men, especially educated and high-income level ones, to city women than to village ones is that city women are characterized by their prestigious dictions. Most of the men in this village admit that they seek prestige in women's speech. Younger females in Al-Jaroushia seem to have become conscious of this fact, as most of the wives of majority of men whose socio-economic status is high are likely to be from the city. Therefore, it sounds that younger females opt for [k] in their speech as a marker of prestige to attract males. It could, nonetheless, be argued that younger women who are already married sometimes speak with [k], depending on the status of the addressee. If they are already married, should there be any need for them to speak with [k] to attract men?

Fatima, a young married woman in her late twenties from Al-Jaroushia, claims that married women should be more inclined to use more [k]'s than [č]'s. She tells us that women who live in a village should make men feel that village women have as much prestige in their speech as city women. She indicates that if a man does not feel so, he might take it as a justification to have a city woman for a second wife.^{viii} Therefore, Fatima finds that showing prestige in speech before a husband's educated or high-income level friends would satisfy a man's pride in his wife.

Hazem, the bank manager, emphasizes this fact. He points out that he exhorts his wife to seek prestige in her vocalizations since this could enhance intimacy. Not only does he indicate that having a wife whose speech is prestigious could eliminate the possibility of considering city women for a second marriage, but he also stresses that prestige in women's speech is a sign of femininity.

Finegan et al. (1992) state that gender differences are not to be simply equated with sex differences. Rather, what is important is the cultural fact of gender: what it means to be female in a particular society, what it means to be male. Finegan et al. (1992, 378) posit, "We are aware of gender differences as marked by hair length, clothing, jewellery use and traditional household duties, just to mention a few. It should not be at all surprising, then, that language reflects the important social identity of one's gender role."

Conclusion

This study reveals that sex is the most influential social correlate interacting with the socio-economic status (type and level of education and income level) and the addressee to determine the choice of phonetic variables; age is the factor which interacts reciprocally with sex to govern females' choice of phonetic variables. There is no clear evidence of one social factor acting independently to exhibit clear-cut social stratification. It could however be inferred that sex is the most influential factor intermingling with all other social factors to determine the choice of phonetic variables in Al-Jaroushia speech community; generally speaking, women tend to use far more [k]'s (standard form) than men do. Yet, men articulate far more [č]'s (non-standard form of /k/) than women do. Although women's use of [č] depends most of the times on the interaction of sex with other social variables, it could firmly be concluded that females are leading a linguistic, phonetic change towards standard Arabic in Al-Jaroushia speech community.

Despite the fact that the status and identity of the addressee is a powerful social correlate in Al-Jaroushia speech community, sex is likely to be the major and the strongest social correlate. It is the major component of each complex pattern of 'social stratification' in Al-Jaroushia speech community as, on the whole, females tend to articulate far more /k/'s than men who, on the other hand, produce far more [č]'s than females do.

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Notes

ⁱ The addressee is crucially decisive of the degree of formality with which a particular person opts for to address others according to their identity and socio-economic status.

ⁱⁱ For further details, see 'Sex and Choice of Phonetic Variables' below.

ⁱⁱⁱ Those females are uneducated; this choice tests the effect of income level rather than the effect of education on their choice of phonetic variables.

^{iv} This fact will be discussed in detail when talking about the interaction of age with sex.

^v The notion of 'educated' refers to fact that a particular speaker is a holder at least of a diploma in any field of study.

^{vi} Uneducated women whose husbands are rich don't usually have jobs in Al-Jaroushia village; they are housewives. If a woman's husband's income level is very high, the wife's income is described very high, too. A husband's status reflects itself positively on his wife.

^{vii} In Islam, it is possible for a man to be married to four women at the same time.

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Appendix
Table of Respondents

Respondent	Sex	Age	Socio-economic Status	Addressee
1. Hekmet	male	53	high as educated	ourselves
2. Afaf	female	45	high as educated	ourselves
3. Waleed	male	47	high as educated	ourselves

4. Hanan	female	41	low not educated nor rich	ourself s
5. Salam	male	37	high social status as educated	ourself s
6. Maysam	female	30	high social status as educated	ourself s
7. Ghassan	male	33	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s
8. Reem	female	25	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & Adnan
9. Adnan	male	45	high as rich but not educated	ourself s
10. Mahasen	female	39	high as rich but not educated	ourself s & a tutor
11. Hazem	male	36	high as rich and educated	ourself s & an employee
12. Jihad	female	30	high as rich but not educated	ourself & her sister in s law
13. Iman	male	24	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & Reema
14. Bashshar	male	33	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & city people
15. Reema	female	30	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & Iman
16. Khadra	female	65	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s
17. Maram	female	7	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s
18. Duha	female	14	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s
19. Asma	female	16	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & Abed
20. Sawsan	female	23	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & her mother
21. Fatima	female	27	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s
22. Ibraheem	male	6	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & Adnan
23. Abed	male	21	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & Adnan
24. Tamam	female	45	low as not educated nor rich	ourself s & Mohammad

25. Mohammad	male	48	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
26. Marwa	female	8	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
27. Sondos	female	14	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
28. Jamila	female	16	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
29. Maha	female	31	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
30. Mu'men	male	12	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
31. Zaid	male	18	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
33. Yusra	female	50	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
34. Saleh	male	55	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves
35. Intisar	female	33	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves, Fatin&Layla
36. Fatin	female	39	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves, Layla& Intisar
37. Layla	female	31	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves, Fatin& Intisar
38. Hanan	female	41	low as not educated nor rich	ourselves

The Strategies of Indonesian Junior High School Students in Learning Listening Skill

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Abstract

The present study addresses three objectives: 1) identifying the intensity of strategies use in learning listening, 2) investigating the inter-correlation among the strategies deployment, and 3) describing how significantly successful and less successful learners differ in the use of strategies. The accessible subjects were two hundred and fifty seven students at seventh and eighth grade of junior high school in Malang, Indonesia. They were required to complete 50 items strategies questionnaire of learning listening taken from Oxford strategy taxonomy. They are memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The statistical result utilizing SPSS 15 indicated that the overall strategies use were at moderate level, compensation strategies were taken as the most frequent and social strategies were used at the least frequent. Then the intercorrelation among the use of strategies showed that some of the strategies interrelated positively and significantly, while some others were not correlated. In relation to the strategies used by the two groups, the finding showed that both high achievers and low achievers were not significantly different in the applying strategies in learning listening skill.

Keywords: listening skill, strategies of learning listening, successful and less successful learners,

Introduction

One of the essential skills to concern about is listening because listening to the first language seems to easily developed, but it needs great effort to understand the listening to foreign language (Chien and Wei, 1998). Bozorgian and Pillay (2013) argue that listening is a very first skill that every learner has in their early unconscious learning; furthermore, it is important as it is put in the foreign language classroom context. Chien and Wei (1998) further state that for the listening comprehension, the students need to have various uses of strategies that lead them to be successful learners because only the skilled students in using strategies can possess easily in the listening comprehension. The use of learning strategies could identify “successful language learners who use a wide range of strategies that are most appropriate for their learning tasks” (Oxford, 1985). Emphasizing on the classroom activities, teachers should incorporate language learning strategy training in English lessons where it is ultimately can develop the students’ language skills (Yang, 2007).

There have been a great number of studies of the use of strategies in learning listening and its contribution to listening comprehension and proficiency that have been increasingly taken in the last few decades. Some of researchers investigated how strategy of learning could influence the learners’ listening skill development. The first study was from Thomson and Rubin (1996) who find that implementing metacognitive and cognitive learning strategies for listening can result positively and significantly on the students’ listening comprehension. Having been implemented 6 categories of Oxford’s Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Li and Liu (2008) also attain positive result on the use of strategies-based instruction in the students’ listening comprehension. In different context, Shang (2008) examines the use of learning strategy by different proficiency levels of Taiwanese students on linguistic patterns of negative, functional, and contrary-to-fact statements. It was found that advanced learners deployed some strategies combination (memory, compensation and cognitive strategies) at most frequent on contrary-to-fact statements than beginner level students who highlighted the use on memory strategy on negative expression.

Another study conducted by Bidabadi and Yamat (2011) that focus on identifying relationship between the strategies use and the students’ proficiency levels. Utilizing the Oxford Placement test developed by Allen (1992), they focus on identifying the English learners’ proficiency levels. They find that there is a significant positive correlation between the listening strategies employed by advanced, intermediate, and lower-intermediate freshmen and their listening proficiency levels at $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$ levels respectively. In other side, utilizing The Learning Strategy Questionnaire (LSQ), the descriptive analysis of the listening strategy questionnaire revealed that Iranian EFL freshman university students at advanced, intermediate, and lower-intermediate levels employed meta-cognitive strategies more frequently and actively; followed by cognitive and socio-affective listening strategies.

Concerning to the proficiency attainment, one of studies carried out by Chien and Wei (1998) examines the relationship between the use of strategies and the performance in listening comprehension on recall tasks. They found that there was significant difference in strategy use between two groups of good and poor listening groups. The strategies employed were linguistic, cognitive, and extra-linguistic strategies. The highest ranking group was able to exercise greater

number of strategies (three strategies), and the cognitive strategies were at most effective strategies for their better understanding.

In the following year, Bozorgian and Pillay (2013) investigate the use of listening strategy instruction delivered in first language (L1) and its effect on the lower intermediate level of Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' listening comprehension. There were five learning strategies deployed: guessing, making inferences, identifying topics, repetition and note-taking along with the pre-test and post-test for both of experimental and control groups. Within 14 weeks of teaching listening strategies, it was found that the experimental group attained better performance (t -value was 10.083) than the control group of learners among the strategies use. It implies that the experimental learners improved better listening comprehension by deploying guessing, making inferences and identifying topic strategies than the control group. In contrast, the use of repetition and note-taking strategies were not effective and insignificant to improve the experimental learners' EFL listening comprehension. Besides, Zuhairi and Hidayanti (2014) also find that the use of three most influenced strategies of resources-processing, compensation and input-output processing strategies contributed effectively and significantly to the students' listening proficiency.

Among the previous studies, it has not been clear yet the use of learning strategy for listening comprehension in Indonesia context, especially at the level of junior high school. Therefore, the current study underlying Oxford Strategy Taxonomy (1990) attempts to: 1) identify the frequency of strategies use in learning listening skill, 2) investigate the inter-relation among the strategy use, and 3) examine how successful and less successful learners deploy the strategies in listening.

Research Method

The current study applied descriptive and causal –comparative designs. The former design was to find the answer for questions 1 and 2 on the frequency use of the strategies and the inter-correlation among strategy category, and the later was to know the result of the questions 3 on the correlation of the strategies deployment in learning listening and its significant difference of use between successful and less successful learners.

The accessible participants were 257 of seventh and eight grade students of junior high school in Indonesia. They were required to complete 50 items of strategies questionnaire from Oxford Strategies taxonomy (1990) which was adjusted into strategy in learning listening.

After gaining the data, the statistical analysis utilized SPSS 15 (Pallant, 2005). The descriptive analysis was directed on investigation on how many times did the students implement the strategies in learning listening and the inter-correlation between using one to another strategy employed by the students. The intensity of use is interpreted as being high if the mean score of use is between 3.45 and 5.00, medium if it is between 2.45 and 3.44, and low if it is between 1.00 and 2.44 (Oxford, 1990). The correlation analysis investigated the intensity of listening strategies factors used by the students. The Independent sample t -test was used to determine whether there is significant difference in the learning strategies use of listening for both successful and less successful students.

Results and Discussion

Results

Question 1: How intensively do the students deploy the strategies in learning listening skill?

To answer this research question, the following table indicates the intensity of strategies use in learning listening skill and was analyzed in terms of each strategy and overall strategies. The table shows the overall strategies was applied by Indonesian junior high school students at moderate level ($M = 3.13$). This indicates that students sometimes used all the reported strategies. Further interpretation from the use of six strategies, compensation strategies were applied most frequently with a mean score 3.48. Meanwhile, social strategies were deployed least intensively with a mean score 2.77. This means that the students applied the strategies in learning listening by focusing more frequently on the use of compensation strategy rather than other five strategies.

Table 1 *The Intensity of Listening Strategies Use*

Strategy Category	Mean	Intensity of Use	Rank of Use
Memory	2.95	Moderate	4
Cognitive	2.79	Moderate	5
Compensation	3.48	Moderate	1
Metacognitive	3.44	Moderate	2
Affective	3.33	Moderate	3
Social	2.77	Moderate	6
Overall Strategies	3.13	Moderate	

Question 2: Does the use of strategies in listening correlate each other?

In this stage, Table 2 describes the inter-correlation among the strategies use of learning listening skill. Having been analyzed its interrelationship, the statistical data indicates that some of the strategies employed were correlated significantly and some of them were not correlated each other. The strategies that significantly correlated with highest coefficient $r = .780$, $p < .01$ is between cognitive and social strategies, meanwhile the lowest coefficient is between compensation and affective strategies ($r = .431$, $p < .01$). In addition, Table 2 indicates that one significant correlation at the level .05 is between metacognitive and social strategies ($r = .182$, $p < .05$). Further interpretation from its strength correlations, five coefficients showed strong interrelation ($.60 < r < .80$), one coefficient accounted for moderate correlation ($.40 < r < .60$), and one coefficient showed weak correlation ($.20 < r < .40$) at the .05 level. The strong correlations were found in the pairs of cognitive and social strategies, memory and cognitive strategies, compensation and metacognitive strategies, metacognitive and affective strategies, and between memory and social strategies. Meanwhile moderate correlation is in the pairs of compensation and affective strategies. Finally, weak correlations were between metacognitive and social strategies.

As far as it is concerned, the finding of statistical data indicated six correlation coefficients were positively and significantly correlated at .01 level (2-tailed) and one correlation coefficient was correlated positively at .05 level. In other side, some coefficients were not significantly and positively correlated for some strategies deployment. This positive correlation means that the increase frequency of use of certain strategy tend to influence to an increase use of other strategies of learning listening skill. This implies that the use of one strategy category influences other strategy categories deployment.

Table 2 *Inter-Relationship among the category of strategies of listening skill*

	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
Memory	1					
Cognitive	.757**	1				
Compensation	.080	-.008	1			
Metacognitive	.020	-.054	.671**	1		
Affective	-.065	-.102	.431**	.654**	1	
Social	.622**	.780**	.091	.182*	.138	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Question 3: Is there any difference in the use of strategies in learning listening skill by successful and less successful learners?

To know the comparison of the use of strategies in learning listening skill, the independent sample t-test result is described in Table 3. It can be interpreted from the table that the difference use of strategies in listening skill by both successful and less successful learners range from .18 (the lowest difference) for social strategies to .63 (the highest difference) for the use of cognitive strategies. In other side, the statistical data in Table 3 also reveals that there are strategies showing no significant difference applied by both groups where the less successful learners accounted for higher mean than the successful learners. This finding implies that successful learners deployed the strategies in learning listening not significantly different from the less successful learners.

Table 3 *The difference in the use of strategies of learning listening skill by successful (N=134) and less successful learners (N=47)*

Strategy Categories	Groups	Mean	Mean Difference	t-value
Memory	Successful	3.01	.36	2.469
	less successful	2.68		
Cognitive	Successful	2.95	.63	3.400
	less successful	2.33		
Compensation	Successful	3.45	-.13	-1.173
	less successful	3.57		
Metacognitive	Successful	3.36	-.30	-3.812
	Less successful	3.66		

Affective	Successful	3.26	-.29	-2.270
	Less successful	3.54		
Social	Successful	2.81	.18	1.301
	Less successful	2.64		

Discussion

Having been stated previously, the present study is aimed at knowing the frequency use of strategies, the correlation among the strategies deployment, and identifying its use by high and low achievers. The statistical result on the intensity of the strategies use indicates that the overall use are at moderate level. This means that the students sometimes apply these strategies in listening. Among six strategies, compensation strategies are mostly deployed by the learners, and the least frequently employed are social strategies. This implies that learners choose more deployment on the compensation strategies than the other strategies in learning listening. These compensation strategies involve the strategies of refocusing on the aural input in the second time and guessing the meaning of the new words contextually. In relation to the previous studies, this finding is in line with Li and Liu (2008) that compensation strategies suggest at most the frequent use for developing listening comprehension. Similarly, it also supports the study conducted by Shang (2008) that compensation strategies is one of the most intensive strategies used by Taiwanese students.

In terms of correlation, the statistical result shows that some of the strategies employed correlate significantly but some of them do not correlate each other. This reveals that six correlation coefficients correlate positively and significantly at .01 level (2-tailed) and one correlation coefficient does not correlate significantly at .05 level. In other side, some coefficients correlate significantly and positively for some strategies deployment. This positive correlation means that the increase frequency of use of certain strategy tend to influence to an increase use of other strategies of learning listening skill.

Concerning the correlation on the use of strategies in listening, this finding supports Bidabadi and Yamat (2011) who find that the use of strategies has a significantly positive correlation between the listening strategies of metacognitive and cognitive strategies employed by advanced, intermediate, and lower-intermediate students. Similarly, this also in line with Hidayanti (2013) who identifies that compensation strategies is utilized mostly by Indonesian students.

Furthermore, the finding also shows that there is no significant difference in the use of learning strategy in learning listening skill by less successful learners accounted for higher mean than the successful learners. This finding implies that successful learners deploy the strategies in learning listening not significantly different from the less successful learners. However, this result is not in line with Bidabadi and Yamat (2011) and Shang (2008) that the use of strategies has significant different of use by advanced, intermediate and lower-intermediate levels of learners. Such findings might be reasonable due to the different student's ability as they have been learning English for two years after graduating from elementary school.

Despite this insignificant difference, both successful and less successful learners of the current study use strategies ranging from .18 (the lowest difference) for social strategies to .63 (the highest difference) for the use of cognitive strategies. Such finding support the previous

research result (Thomson & Rubin, 1996; Li & Liu, 2008; Shang, 2008); that the use of cognitive gives and plays positively influencing to the students' listening comprehension attainment. This finding also confirms the other study conducted by Bidabadi and Yamat (2011) who find that the Iranian EFL freshmen university students of advanced, intermediate and lower-intermediate levels deploy cognitive strategies more than socio-affective strategies.

Another previous study which is against to the finding of this study carries by Chien and Wei (1998) who find that there is significant difference in strategy use between two groups of good and poor listening groups. The strategies employed are linguistic, cognitive, and extra-linguistic strategies. Meanwhile, the use of cognitive strategies as the most effective use by good learners is not different from this study that successful learners applied cognitive strategies with highest mean score compared to less successful learners.

Conclusion and Suggestions

Conclusion

The present study revealed with the findings on the intensity of strategies use, the correlation among the use and the significant difference between successful and less successful learners. The first result on the investigation of the intensity indicated that the overall strategies employment were at moderate level. The compensation strategies were most intensively used, in opposite, the social strategies were least intensively taken by the students.

Then the finding on the interrelationship among the strategies deployment indicated that some of the strategies had significant and positive correlation and some of them were not correlated. Meanwhile, the statistical result on the difference of the strategies showed that the strategies use was not significantly different between high achievers and low achievers. Both groups confirmed the use of cognitive strategies at highest mean difference, and social strategies were at the lowest mean difference.

In relation to some previous studies, the overall use of learning strategies confirms the same result. It implies that the strategies provide positive effect on the students listening comprehension and proficiency although both groups of learners performed similar result on strategy attainment.

Suggestions

There are some practical suggestions addressed to the teachers and further researchers. The findings give pedagogical implication for English teachers to select the most intensive strategies used, compensation strategies, to be applied in terms of their teaching approach. It is in purpose of improving the students' understanding from aural input. In other side, students need to improve the use of social strategies in learning listening. This means that students are required to have more strategies for example listening to English songs or movies and listening to their friends' speaking in order to enhance their comprehension in listening. For further investigation, there should be more depth research on some of strategies deployment such as social strategies that eventually have contribution to the listening skill development.

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Challenges to Teaching English Literature at the University of Hail: Instructors' Perspective

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Abstract

This descriptive-analytic study aimed at identifying the most significant impediments to teaching English literature from the perspective of male and female instructors at The University of Hail (UoH). The study was conducted during the first semester of the academic year 2015-16. A questionnaire was used to collect data from 10 female and 12 male instructors. Data analysis revealed that the instructors consider the students' level of language proficiency, the texts' linguistic and stylistic degree of difficulty as well as the degree of cultural (un)familiarity to be crucial issues which impact the productivity of the teaching -learning process. Narrowing the distance between students and the text by relating the themes and characters of the literary work to the students' personal experiences, on the one hand, and by making students read independently, on the other, were found to be the most important practices the participants followed in order to help students read, enjoy and comprehend literature.

Keywords: challenges, teaching literature, instructors, Saudi Arabia, University of Hail

Introduction

Teaching and learning foreign literature could be a daunting task for both the instructors and learners. This statement is particularly true for those involved in the teaching and learning of English literature at the undergraduate level in most Arab institutions, but particularly in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) for various reasons.

First, the Saudi environment is often described as one of the most conservative among the Arab and Muslim countries. As the birthplace of Islam and the custodian of the two holiest Muslim shrines at Mecca and Medina, KSA perceives and presents itself as a unique country that has the responsibility of guarding and preserving the Islamic traditions and teachings by all possible means, including the imposition of certain restrictions which affect all domains of life. One such restriction is the segregation of foreign expats in housing compounds which are totally separated from the Saudi community. The compounds function as cultural enclaves and “follow the principle of spatial seclusion of social groups with different cultural and religious background” (Glasze & Alkhayyal, 2002, p.321).

Second, upon joining university, a typical undergraduate Saudi student would have been exposed only to a brief selection of literary texts. These texts are usually presented to students following the historical approach which focuses on the writer’s biography and milieu and the social, cultural, and intellectual context. Indeed, a number of scholars and critics have repeatedly expressed their dissatisfaction with the unrepresentative selections and the traditional and outdated approaches to teaching them (Alamir, 2006). Focusing on the Saudi Arabic textbooks for high school, Zaalah (2010), for example, criticizes the selection of Saudi literary works for focusing on a few and unrepresentative literary eras and themes, excluding some important genres, oversimplifying the discussion of these works, not including any work by the many Saudi female writers as well as excluding all forms of literary analysis. Zaalah calls the discussion of the Saudi prose in these textbooks “a cognitive catastrophe.”

Third, in the Arab world, particularly in KSA, foreign, especially Western, literature is often viewed as a threat to the national and Muslim identity and as a tool of cultural colonization which promotes anti-religious and anti-cultural values. Therefore, though Saudi students start taking English as a compulsory subject in grade four, English literature is totally absent from the curricula of public schools. Indeed, this exclusion of foreign literature is done with the purpose of averting at least some of the objectives which Cai (2002) believes to be the most important for incorporating and using multicultural literature in the curriculum: challenging the dominant ideologies, fostering acceptance and appreciation of cultural diversity, developing sensitivity to social inequalities, and encouraging transformation of the self and society, (p. 134). Therefore, the teaching of English as a foreign language in KSA has always focused on the communicative and linguistic rather than the cultural functions of the language (Ibrahim, 2015). This focus is reflected in the general objectives for teaching English listed by the Saudi Ministry of Education (www.mkgedu.sa). Seven of the nine listed objectives are concerned with developing students’ attitudes towards learning English, improving their language and linguistic skills for various purposes. Of the remaining two, one stresses the importance of developing the “student’s awareness about the cultural, economic, religious and social issues of his [i.e. Saudi] society and prepare him to participate in their solutions,” while the other explicitly refers to developing an “understanding and respect of cultural differences between nations.”

Fourth, understanding and appreciating a literary text requires the use of critical and individual thinking. However, in most Arab educational institutions rote memorization is considered the chief learning method. In the Saudi context, students are expected to reproduce correct answers exactly as stated in the book or given by the teacher if they are to pass their exams (Matson, 2016). Therefore, students memorize answers and paragraphs sometimes without fully comprehending them (Alkubaidi, 2014). Consequently, the concept of critical and creative thinking is still foreign in the KSA curricula (Elyas, 2008). Instead, the traditional approach of teaching in which the teacher is the power and the student is the empty vessel and the disempowered, is still followed in the Kingdom. Undoubtedly, these pedagogically erroneous practices have detrimental influences on students' ability to critically and creatively analyze a literary text.

Fifth, despite the massive expenditure on education in the Kingdom, students' achievement is far from satisfactory. A strong indication of the great importance education receives in KSA is reflected in the fact that 10 percent of the Kingdom's GDP is allocated to this sector making it the highest in the world (the average spending of most advanced nations does not exceed 4-5 percent). Another ample indication is the dramatic increase in the budget dedicated to education over the past few years. According to the US-Saudi Arabian Business Council, the spending of KSA on education more than doubled in the period between 2008 and 2015 (from SR 105 billion to SR 217 billion). However, a report titled "Arab youth: Do they suffer from a lack of educational foundations that would guarantee them a productive life?" issued in 2014 by the Center for Universal Education at the Brookings Institution reveals that half male students and almost one-third of female primary students in Saudi Arabia do not meet basic learning levels. The report also shows that the situation is even more alarming for the secondary level with 57.4% of students categorized as out of school, in school but expected to drop out or in school but not learning.

Sixth, the course plans in the English departments in KSA and elsewhere in the Arab world do not take into consideration the linguistic, cultural and intellectual needs of the students in the region for they are replicas of their counterparts in Western universities especially in Britain and North America. Ironically, as Hamdi notes, while "English studies programs in England and North America are increasingly moving in the direction of cultural studies and are becoming progressively less exclusive with reference to the English literary canon" (102) universities in the Arab world "still thrive on their strictly exclusive English and American curricula in the same way the Leavisite tradition dominated [...] English literature departments in England in the mid-twentieth century" (102). An increasing number of new and culturally diverse courses such as world literature, African literature, Arab literature, women literature, Latin American literature and postcolonial literature are now found in the curricula of the English departments in Western universities but rarely in their Arab counterparts.

Literature Review

Despite the existence of a large and growing body of literature on the issue of teaching English as a foreign language in KSA, the number of studies that specifically focus on the teaching of English literature in the country is meager. However, since language is no longer viewed as merely a code or a number of words and expressions connected by grammatical rules but rather "a social practice of meaning-making and interpretation" (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009, p.16); the problems and challenges that face foreign language teachers and learners are often

relevant to those involved with foreign literature. Furthermore, despite significant cultural and political differences between Arab countries, they share many common attributes in the field of education. Therefore, besides reviewing the limited number of studies on the teaching of English literature in the Saudi context, this section considers a number of studies on English language teaching and learning in KSA and the teaching of English language and literature in the Arab world in general.

A considerable number of studies which are concerned with the teaching of English in the Saudi context seem to agree on two points: The massive spending of the Saudi government on education in general and on the teaching of English as a foreign language in particular, on the one hand, and the dissatisfactory linguistic competence of students despite this generous spending (Al-Shumaimeri (2003); Hastings (2012); Khan (2011); Mahib ur Rahman & Alhaisoni (2013)), on the other.

Khan (2011) argues that, identifying the learning barriers to learning English in the Saudi context is particularly important in order to understand the reasons behind students' dissatisfactory level of achievement despite high government expenditure. According to Khan, the linguistic barrier and the lack of adequate motivation among both teachers and students are the most crucial at the tertiary level in KSA.

Similarly, Alhamdi (2014), Alharbi (2015), Al-Hazmi, (2003), Liton, (2012), Moskovsky & Alrabai, (2009), and Syed (2003) focus on the issue of motivation in Saudi learners of EFL. Liton (2012), considers the lack of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in order to teach English to Saudi students a principal hindrance to the learning of the language. Al-Hazimi (2003) argues that intrinsic motivation is more important than extrinsic motivation for if the desire to learn English arises from within the learners, they will actively seek strategies and techniques that will best suit their learning goals. Moskovsky and Alrabai (2009) point out that the number of studies on the role of motivation in Saudi EFL learners is inadequate and propose that EFL teachers employ the four main sources of intrinsic motivation (challenge, curiosity, control and fantasy) in order to enhance students' motivation.

Other studies such as Alhamdi (2014), Al-Asmari & Khan (2014), Alharbi (2015) and Sofi (2015) largely blame Saudi students' low proficiency in English on the curriculum and the teaching methods. Alhamdi (2014) blames the students' poor communication skills in English primarily on the fact that the Saudi textbooks and the applied teaching strategies give far more importance to reading and writing than to listening and speaking. To Alhamdi's list of factors that affect the educational process, Sayed (2003) adds reliance on rote learning and memorization and dependence on high-stakes testing. He concludes that coupled with outdated curricula and methodologies, insufficient support systems, and the rarity of qualified teachers, these impediments contribute to the unflattering picture of English teaching and learning in the region.

Al-Asmari & Khan (2014) argue for the need to go beyond the traditional teaching of English in KSA which exclusively focuses on the American and British varieties. The authors advocate the exposure of Saudi students to other varieties mainly because restricting students to one particular form of English or another negatively affects their ability to communicate effectively in the age of globalization. Moreover, the authors encourage the adoption of a unique

variety of English in KSA in a manner similar to Hinglish in India or Singlish in Singapore. Alharbi (2015) too attributes the low proficiency of Saudi students in English communication to ineffective teaching methods (for example, using Arabic when teaching English and keeping the classroom teacher-centered). To overcome these obstacles, Alharbi proposes a reform of specific policies of the Ministry of Education and Higher Education and the employment of contemporary approaches to teaching which emphasize skills in problem solving and critical thinking. Sofi (2015) maintains that learning by rote and lectures are methods still used in Saudi Arabia because English teachers are not well trained for the job. In order to enhance students' communicative competence and motivate them to think critically, Sofi proposes using model lesson plans which follow the communicative and student-centered approaches and incorporating multimedia.

On the matter of the impact of English on the local culture, Al-Haq and Smadi (1996) surveyed 1,176 undergraduate university students representing all universities in KSA in order to explore their opinion on whether the use of English increases their inclination towards becoming more westernized, on the one hand, and weakens their national and religious identity, on the other. The results of the study show that the vast majority of students did not believe the learning of English to push them away from their Arab/Muslim culture towards a more westernized lifestyle and belief system.

Mekheimer (2011) argues that attitudinal inhibitors to learning/teaching literature in the Saudi context are under-researched, and therefore he embarks on exploring the perceptions and attitudes of faculty and students towards English literature at King Khalid University. The researcher concludes that, in general, both instructors and students have positive attitudes towards teaching/learning English literature since they recognize the important role of literature in learning about other cultures. Among the factors that negatively impact the teaching/learning of English literature, Mekheimer lists the rigid socio-religious context, the, sometimes, inappropriate selection of literary texts and the inadequate employment of technology. Likewise, Adam and Babiker (2015) advocate the teaching of literature because it provides students with opportunities to improve their language skills and enhances their ability to write creatively.

Hastings (2012) points out that despite the large sum of money spent on English language education in KSA, the outcomes are not as good as desired. He partially blames these poor outcomes on the isolation of foreign EFL teachers from the rest of the community. According to Hastings, this separation could negatively impact teachers' attitudes and motivation as well as their "immediacy" which is defined as "communication styles that lessen the distance between teacher and students, which has been proven to directly correlate to student success in the language classroom" (Witt & Wheelock, qtd in Hastings, p18).

As for the teaching of literature in English Departments in the Arab world, which can be traced back to the 1920s, the following issues have been the focus of various studies and debates:

- The percentage literature courses should constitute in the course plans
- Whether literature courses are effective in improving students' language proficiency
- The benefits for teaching English literature
- The type of literary texts which students should be exposed to
- The impact of literature courses on the Muslim-Arab identity

- Effective teaching practices and methodologies to teach English literature
- The instructors' and students' attitudes towards the teaching/learning of literature courses and the challenges they face.

One of the core issues considered by earlier studies, especially since the first conference on the problems of teaching English language and literature at Arab universities held in Jordan in 1983, is what component of the curriculum (literature, language or linguistics) is most beneficial to students. Bader (1992) and Zughoul (1983, 1986 & 1987), for example, argue for increasing the number of language and linguistics courses at the expense of literature courses for two reasons: 1. The moral, religious and social values embedded in foreign literature which often conflict with the students' Arab and Muslim culture and values (Asfour (1983); Dahiyat (1983) & Zughoul (1983), and 2. the belief that as taught in the Arab countries, some English literature courses do not significantly add to students' competence because they primarily focus on content rather than on mode of expression (Bader 1992). Similarly, Zughoul (1983, 1986 & 1987) largely blames the failure of English departments in the Arab world to respond to the needs of the communities they are supposed to serve on the fact that the literature component of the curriculum is overrepresented at the expense of language and linguistics.

At the other end of the spectrum, a study by Salih (1986) surveyed 118 Arab students majoring in English to investigate their views on whether literature helped them improve their language skills. The study concludes that, in general, students believe that studying literature allows them to practice all their language skills and hence positively impacts their language competency. Obeidat (1997) agrees with Salih arguing that the domination of the language and linguistic components of the English curriculum does little to improve students' language competence, while literature helps students acquire a native-like linguistic competence, express their ideas in sound English, learn the linguistic features of modern English, speak clearly and concisely, as well as become creative, critical, and analytical learners. Likewise, a study by Ben Zid (2015) conducted at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman reveals that students have positive views towards literature primarily because it enhances their language competence.

Interestingly, all the above studies base their argument in favor of one particular component of the curriculum over the other primarily in relation to the role literature plays in improving the linguistic competence of the students which would better prepare them for the job market. In the process, far less attention is given to some essential objectives for teaching foreign literature (such as increasing students' awareness of and tolerance for other cultures and improving their critical thinking and analytic skills). Hence, Haggan (1999) rightly asks whether the role of the English Department is to provide students with the needed vocational training or to intellectually develop their minds within an academic area congenial to the individual. To explore students' attitudes towards the courses they were studying, Haggan administered a questionnaire to 71 students at Kuwait University and arrived at the conclusion that forcing unwilling students to study linguistics or literature courses could be counter-productive. Therefore, she proposes allowing students to choose either linguistics or literature as their area of specialization within the Department of English.

Ten years later, a study similar to Haggan's was conducted at the Hashemite University in Jordan. Al-Kharabsheh, Al-Azzam, and Obeidat (2009) surveyed 75 English majors in their

fourth year by asking them to describe in an essay their attitudes towards the various components of the curriculum (the researchers added the translation to the list). Unsurprisingly, the respondents' answers revealed that some students prefer language/linguistics, others literature while a third group favors translation for reasons such as future expectations, market demands, and personal preferences.

In recent years, increasing attention has been given to the type of literary texts to be included in the curriculum. A number of academics, including Al Maleh (2005) and Hamdi (2003), point out to a major problem with teaching English literature in the Arab world: the fact that English departments in the Arab world religiously follow their counterparts in the West in the sense that they frequently stick to the canon (with occasional departures), follow more or less the same curricula and assign textbooks and reading selections not too different from those typically used in Western universities (Al Malah, 2005). According to Hamdi, text selection is crucial since the cultural, economic, and educational onslaught of western post-colonialism entails training students to think in universalistic terms and thus alienates Arab students from their own identities, cultures, and histories.

Al Maleh (2005) suggests that when dealing with a Western literary work in a non-Western context, teachers need to teach the foreign text amorally and to avoid all questions pertaining to the text's social or moral values as they could tamper with the students' appreciation of the literary work. In addition, Al Maleh proposes that "students should not be reading books for their ethical content or import alone. They should be encouraged to look at reading as primarily a cognitive process leading to some transnational awareness of comparative ethnicity."

The above review of studies on the teaching of English language and literature in the Arab world reveal the general sense of dissatisfaction among both learners and educators. Therefore, some serious studies that investigate all aspects of the teaching and learning process as well as a radical revision of the curricula of the departments of English in the Arab world are still needed.

The Study

This study sheds light on the difficulties and challenges that face instructors who teach literature courses at the Department of English (DoE) at The University of Hail (UoH). For this purpose, a questionnaire was distributed during the second semester of the academic year 2014/2015 to all instructors who teach literature courses at both the male and female campuses.

Setting/Context

This study was conducted at UoH during the first semester of the academic year 2015-6. UoH is one of 25 government universities in the KSA located in Hail, a city in the northwest of the country. Established in the year 2005, the university currently hosts more than 30 thousand students. Due to cultural and religious considerations, male and female students are taught in totally separate campuses by male and female staff members respectively. Instructors on both campuses are expected to adhere strictly to the course descriptions approved by the university and to use the textbooks and educational material specified in these descriptions.

Literature courses constitute approximately 33% of the total number of the courses students have to complete in order to obtain the BA degree. All students take the exact same courses as there are no electives. The overwhelming majority of instructors teaching at the DoE are Arab expatriates, and the rest are Saudis.

As stated above, the list of required readings, teaching methods as well as the objectives for teaching the various courses are typical of what is found in most other Arab universities. Examples of the required readings include Oedipus Rex, Robinson Crusoe, The Merchant of Venice, Hamlet, A Passage to India and Heart of Darkness in addition to the poetry of William Wordsworth, Lord Alfred Tennyson, Robert Browning, T.S. Eliot, and W.B. Yeats. Though text selection is usually done vigilantly in Arab institutions particularly in the Gulf (Al Maleh 2005), some of the works which are considered politically, religiously or morally controversial not only in the Arab world but worldwide have also made it to the list of required readings at UoH. These include Major Barbara, Waiting for Godot and Women in Love. (Al Maleh, for example, uses Waiting for Godot as an example of a literary work which is normally quickly excluded from the reading list in Arab universities because it runs against the dominant value system of the Arab/Muslim world).

Methodology

Research Objectives

This study attempts to answer the following question:

What challenges and impediments do instructors face while teaching English literature at UoH?

This question has been investigated from three different, though interrelated, angles: student-related challenges, text-related challenges, and instructor and pedagogy-related challenges.

Research Instrument

To gather the data needed for this research, the researchers developed a questionnaire for instructors who teach literature at the DoE at UoH on both the male and female campuses.

The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first Part one was concerned with the demographic information of the instructors. Part two addressed the research question from three different angles. Instructors were asked to evaluate the various statements in this part using a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

In order to judge the validity of the research instrument, the questionnaire was given to a jury of English language instructors. The members of the jury were asked to carefully read the questionnaire and to record their comments and suggestions. All relevant comments and suggestions were taken into consideration when writing the final draft.

Data Analysis

Data gathered from questionnaire items were analyzed using Minitab 17 and Item Analysis method. In order to increase the readability of the mean scores, the following score category breakdown was adopted:

Means Corresponding level

1.0-1.80	Very low
1.81-2.60	Low
2.61-3.40	Moderate
3.41-4.20	High

4.21-5.0 Very High

Findings and Interpretations

Part One

Demographic information

The questionnaire was distributed to 12 male and 10 female instructors. These represent all instructors who were teaching literature courses at the DoE at UoH during the period of the study. Table 1 shows the area of specialization, academic rank, number of years of teaching literature prior to joining UoH and number of years the instructor has been teaching literature at UoH.

Table 1: *Demographics of the participants*

		Female	%	Male	%	Total
		N		N		
		10	45.45%	12	54.55%	22
Area of specialization	Literature	6	60.00%	11	91.67%	17
	Linguistics	1	10.00%	1	8.33%	2
	Teaching Methods	2	20.00%	0	0.00%	2
	Translation	1	10.00%	0	0.00%	1
Academic Rank	Full Professor	0	0.00%	1	8.33%	1
	Associate Professor	0	0.00%	2	16.67%	2
	Assistant Professor	4	40.00%	5	41.67%	9
Years of experience teaching literature	MA holder	6	60.00%	4	33.33%	10
	More Than 6 Years	2	20.00%	4	33.33%	6
	3-6 Years	1	10.00%	4	33.33%	5
at university level prior to joining UoH	1-2 Years	0	0.00%	3	25.00%	3
	None	7	70.00%	1	8.33%	8
	More Than 6 Years	0		2	16.67%	2
Years of experience teaching literature at UoH			0.00%		0.00%	
					0.00%	

Table 1 clearly shows that there are some significant differences between female and male staff members to the advantage of the latter: male instructors who teach literature outnumber female instructors (12 males to 10 females); the vast majority of male staff members who teach literature courses (91.67 %) are actually specialized in literature, while the percentage falls to (60 %) when considering female members; males hold higher academic ranks than females (none of the females is full or associate professor while (8.33%) and (16.67%) of the males are full and associate professors respectively. (40%) of the females are assistant professors and the majority (60%) are MA holders. On the other hand, only (33.33) of the males are MA holders; and while (30%) of female instructors had experience in teaching literature prior to joining UoH, the figure goes up to (91.66%) when considering male participants. Of course, the items in this part of the

questionnaire are interrelated. For example, since the number of female PhD holders who are specialized in the field of literature is inadequate, there was a need to allow instructors with degrees in methodology or linguistics to teach literature courses. Similarly, the high percentage of MA holders on the female side could be attributed to the same reason.

Part Two

Table 2: *Student-related challenges*

		5		4		3		2		1			
		SA		A		N		D		SD		Mean	STDE
													V
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
1	(Cultural barrier) Students are not sufficiently familiar with the culture and social background of the literary text.	11	50.00	8	36.36	1	4.55	2	9.09	0	0	4.27	0.94
2	(Language barrier) Students' low level of language proficiency makes it difficult to understand and appreciate the literary text.	12	54.55	9	40.91	0	0	1	4.55	0	0	4.46	0.74
3	(Historical distance) Students' unfamiliarity with the historical context of English literature makes it alien and less understandable.	4	18.18	14	63.64	3	13.64	1	4.55	0	0	3.96	0.72
4	(Emotional and social distance) It is difficult for students to relate to the literary text because it is irrelevant to their reality.	4	18.18	9	40.91	6	27.27	3	13.64	0	0	3.64	0.95
5	(Motivational problems) Students lack the motivation and the interest to engage actively with the literary text.	5	22.73	9	40.91	6	27.27	2	9.09	0	0	3.77	0.92

Table 2 shows that far more instructors believe students' low language proficiency and unfamiliarity with the cultural and social background of the text, ($M=4.46$) and ($M=4.27$) respectively, to be the most serious student-related challenges. These results are not surprising in light of the previous discussion about the dissatisfactory linguistic competence of the Saudi students and their cultural distance from the texts they are studying.

In light of the many studies which focus on the issue of the poor motivation of Saudi students as a major hindrance to their learning, the researchers had expected the mean for the motivational problems to be very high. However, the mean was (3.77) lower than the historical-distance problems ($M=3.96$) but higher than problems related to emotional and social distance ($M= 3.64$).

Table 3: *Text-related challenges*

		SA		A		N		D		SD		Mean	STD EV
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
1	Choice of texts plays a crucial role in hindering or enhancing the processes of teaching literature.	6	27.27	8	36.36	0	0	6	27.27	2	9.09	3.46	1.41

2	A text which is extremely difficult on either linguistic or cultural level will have few benefits.	6	27.27	8	36.36	4	18.18	4	18.18	0	0	3.73	1.08
3	A text which is in harmony with students' age and interests will help them better understand literary work.	6	27.27	11	50.00	2	9.09	1	4.55	2	9.09	3.82	1.18
4	A text from an alien culture written beyond students' understanding.	6	27.27	8	36.36	3	13.64	5	22.73	0	0	3.68	1.13
5	A text which involves many unfamiliar vocabulary and grammatical structures discourage the students from reading and reacting to literature.	4	18.18	13	59.09	2	9.09	3	13.64	0	0	3.82	0.91
6	A text with too many figures of speech will hinder students' understanding.	5	22.73	8	36.36	4	18.18	4	18.18	1	4.55	3.52	1.21

As Table 3 shows, all of the text-related problems were rated high with means ranging from 3.46. and 3.82. The relatively small difference between the highest and lowest means shows that instructors consider all the text-related issues to be almost of the same importance.

Instructor and Pedagogy-related challenges

The results for the final part of the questionnaire which is concerned with issues pertaining to instructors and pedagogy are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: *Issues pertaining to instructors and pedagogy*

		SA		A		N		D		SD		Mean	STD
													EV
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
1	When teaching a course on literature, my primary goal is to help my students pass their exams.	0	0	2	9.09	4	18.18	12	54.55	4	18.18	2.18	0.85
2	I encourage my students to relate the topics and themes of the literary texts to their personal experience, feelings, and opinions.	9	40.91	11	50.00	1	4.55	1	4.55	0	0	4.27	0.77
3	I spend a substantial time of my classes on creating awareness about the western culture and history.	3	13.64	11	50.00	6	27.27	2	9.09	0	0	3.68	0.84
4	I improve my students' level of language proficiency.	8	36.36	10	45.45	3	13.64	0	0	1	4.55	4.09	0.97
5	I encourage my students to read literary texts by themselves in their free time.	10	45.45	9	40.91	0	0	2	9.09	1	4.55	4.24	1.04
6	I pre-teach all new words of the assigned literary texts.	4	18.18	11	50.00	3	13.64	3	13.64	1	4.55	3.57	1.08
7	I typically focus on analyzing the main elements of the literary text (plot, theme, setting, characterization, etc.)	8	36.36	10	45.45	2	9.09	0	0	2	9.09	4.10	0.94
8	I encourage students to enjoy the literary texts as a whole and not to focus on details.	10	45.45	5	22.73	2	9.09	4	18.18	1	4.55	3.86	1.32

Two of the items listed in this part of the questionnaire have very high means. The first concerns narrowing down the distance between the students and the text by relating the themes of the text to the personal experiences and feelings of the students (M=4.27), and the second concerns

encouraging students to read literary texts independently ($M=4.24$). Only one of the remaining items in this part (about teaching with the idea of preparing students to pass their exams as a primary goal for instructors) had a very low mean ($M=2.18$). All other items had high means ranging from 3.57 and 4.10.

Conclusion

This study was designed to investigate the difficulties and challenges that face English instructors while teaching literature courses at UoH. Data analysis reveals that the instructors believe students' low language proficiency and unfamiliarity with the cultural and social background of the text to be the most serious student-related challenges. In addition, the respondents considered issues pertaining to the text such as the level of linguistic and stylistic difficulty as well as the degree of cultural (un)familiarity to be crucial issues which impact the productivity of the teaching -learning process. The participants considered narrowing the distance between students and the text by relating the themes and characters of the literary work to students' personal experiences, on the one hand, by making students read independently, on the other, among the most important practices they follow in order to help students read, enjoy and comprehend literature.

This study sheds light on some of the challenges that hinder the teaching -learning process of English literature at one of the Saudi public universities from the instructors' perspective. To have a more comprehensive understanding of this issue, further studies need to be conducted in other Saudi universities not only to investigate the instructors' perspectives and compare them to results obtained from this study but also to explore this issue from the students' perspective.

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The Impact of Metacognitive Strategy Training on Comprehension Monitoring among Moroccan EFL University Learners

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Abstract

This experimental study is intended to uncover how the meaning-checking procedure is conducted by Moroccan English as a foreign language (EFL) learners and explore the perceived impact of metacognitive strategy instruction on the way they monitor their comprehension act in textual processing. Predicated on a pre-post-test design, the study is a manifestation of the extent to which the learners' monitoring behaviour during the reading process can be subject to utter improvement through the conduct of an instructional intervention. To investigate this issue at length and provide plausible, pertinent evidence, a sample of 113 of Moroccan first-semester students majoring in English Studies were targeted. The data were elicited through the usage of such research instruments as reading comprehension texts (i.e., narrative, expository), 'self-report questionnaire' and reading comprehension tests (i.e., pre-test, post-test). The findings evinced that, owing to strategy instruction, the comprehension-checking behavior among the experimental group (n=63) significantly improved at post-test compared to the control group (n=50). Finally, some practical implications are brought forward and a few limitations confronting the study under focus are cited.

Keywords: *comprehension monitoring, metacognition, strategic behavior, strategy instruction*

1. Introduction

Given the cognitive nature of the reading act and the strategic processes that it entails for adequate comprehension attainment, it is a requirement that learners track and monitor their progress during text reading. This can be achieved by learners through engaging in self-regulation and exercising a certain kind of metacognitive control that can assure the overall assimilation of textual input. Under this account, Schmitt & Newby (1986) admit that monitoring, is “a crucial component of metacognition” (p.30). This reveals that comprehension monitoring and metacognitive thinking, as two interrelated components, play a pivotal role in facilitating textual analysis and meaning synthesis. In essence, the use of monitoring, along with other text-based strategies (i.e., predicting, background knowledge activation, inferring), constitutes an essential element that significantly assists learners to tackle the reading task with greater effectiveness and efficiency. Hence, the usage of this ‘self-regulatory’ strategy in attempting to approach academic written discourse is prerequisite to achieving better comprehension.

More significantly, conducting an assigned reading task without monitoring the extent of the progress that is taking place will not assist learners to attain an efficient understanding of the included content of the text. This denotes that the process of observing one’s understanding, as Wagoner (1983) claims, is very “essential for competent reading” (p.328) as it allows learners to focus their concentrated attention on getting the overall meaning inherent in the text and enables them to self-monitor their cognitive attempts at making sense of the author’s/writer’s implied intentions and posited views. This stated premise evinces that learners’ cognitive engagement in self-monitoring and self-questioning to proceed through the written text is associated with achievement (Ley & Young, 2001).

However, monitoring strategies, as Brezin (1980) maintain, are frequently implemented by skilled/ experienced learners. This reflects that effective monitoring cannot be implemented by ‘unskilled’ and ‘inexperienced’ learners, unless they are provided with adequate training in how to apply them in many reading situations (Allen & Hancock, 2008). Actually, though most skilled EFL learners tap basic reading strategies (i.e., predicting, inferring, paraphrasing) during textual processing, the overall quality of their monitoring behavior can be subject to further improvement. As to unskilled EFL learners, their monitoring act and metacognitive control remain starkly ineffective. This is supported by many researchers (e.g., Block, 1992; Yoshida, 2012) who posit that second language (L2) readers find more difficulties in textual processing and comprehension than first language (L1) readers. Thus, the use of monitoring tactics for ensuring an efficacy-based understanding of EFL texts is lacking among EFL learners, especially at the first-semester level.

In addition, most academic research conducted in EFL reading has been geared towards the investigation of reading from a schema-theoretic perspective (e.g., Johnson, 1982; Carrell, 1984) or the exploration of reading techniques/ models that are utilized by readers in the act of text processing (e.g., Grabe, 1991; Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Other research studies probed into metacognitive awareness of reading strategies (Mokhtari, & Sheory, 2002; Iwai, 2016) and the correlation between reading proficiency and comprehension monitoring (Khonamri & Kojidi, 2011). Nonetheless, Block (1992) claimed that most research on comprehension monitoring has been done with native English speakers and not with L2 readers. In fact, the process of

addressing comprehension monitoring, especially in L2 reading research, has been neglected and given insufficient attention (Cassanave, 1988; Block, 1992). Thus, this study is intended to bridge this research gap by focusing on the monitoring strategies used by Moroccan EFL learners and by delivering a sort of strategy instruction that can qualify learners as 'active agents' dealing with academic written texts for the attainment of an effective understanding by means of metacognitive monitoring. This will be tackled in the current study through the conduct of a semester-long metacognitive strategy intervention.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Metacognition

As an efficacy-oriented process of reflective reasoning and thinking, metacognition is construed as the learner's capability to think and reflect critically while coping with cognitive tasks (i.e., reading, writing). It assists learners to regulate and control their thinking processes with the primary purpose of achieving successful performance in any academic field. According to Flavell (1981), the concept encompasses three requisite components which are metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experience and strategy use. The first core component, metacognitive knowledge, is related to the learners' knowledge about cognition. This knowledge is divided into three basic elements which are the person, the task and the strategy variables. To elaborate on this, the person variable, as an essential element, refers to the learners' overall knowledge about their mental capabilities and skills. It is a certain kind of 'self-knowledge' which "is relatively stable, statable, fallible and late-developing" (Brown, 1981). As to the task variable, it is concerned with the nature of the assigned task, i.e., learners are expected to be acutely aware of the easiness/ difficulty of any cognitive undertaking. Concerning the strategy variable, it is primarily associated with the usage of strategies in tackling cognitive tasks.

With regard to the second component, it pertains to metacognitive experience. It is plainly reflected in the conscious thoughts and ideas about any cognitive endeavour, effort or activity. As noted by Flavell (1979), metacognitive experiences "are items of metacognitive knowledge that have entered consciousness". In simpler terms, metacognitive knowledge can be considered as the cornerstone for the development of metacognitive experience, for when the learners do not succeed to attain the overall comprehension of the written text or are slightly confused about its content, they can have recourse to the metacognitive experience with the main purpose of remedying their comprehension failure. Indeed, there is an active interaction between metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experience.

In what concerns the third component, strategy use, "it implies a process involving careful and deliberate selection of strategies to accomplish a set purpose" (Wade et al., 1990). To put it succinctly, strategy use is basically related to the actual utilization of strategies which can assist EFL learners to perform the learning or reading task under study in an effective way. These three cited components are completely dependent on one another as they form the core fundamentals of metacognition.

2.2. Comprehension Monitoring in EFL Reading

Comprehension monitoring is referred to as "the ongoing activity of evaluating and regulating one's understanding of written (or spoken) text" (Baker & Brown, 1984a, 1984b). Actually, to make complete sense of the printed text, learners are highly supposed to be aware that they are proceeding in the right path while reading, i.e. they can engage themselves in a

certain kind of self-questioning and reasoned reflection whenever they encounter some unclear ideas and difficult concepts stated in the text. This corroborates the fact that comprehension monitoring plays a seemingly crucial role in assisting the learners to direct their cognitive efforts and metacognitive capabilities with the key objective of fully assimilating the content.

For Casanave (1988), comprehension monitoring includes behaviours which enable learners to know whether the process of comprehension is taking place. These strategic behaviours are manifested in “the ability to evaluate one’s current level of understanding, to plan how to remedy a comprehension problem and to regulate comprehension and fix-up strategies” (Paris & Myers, 1981). In explicit terms, in trying to digest the textual meaning, learners depend on relating what they already know to the text content as a promising strategy to advance their understanding. They also attempt to question the writer’s/author’s views in a critical manner and monitor their progress in understanding.

Thus, it is deducible that comprehension monitoring is really a requisite procedure that allows learners to proceed so effectively and successfully in their reading of written materials. In effect, it is through checking one’s understanding, while being engaged in reading a particular text, that one can reach the intended meaning. This can be achieved by EFL learners by regularly questioning and explaining the core concepts, ideas and viewpoints presented in the text. In succinct terms, possessing a certain amount of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experience and acquiring the ability of monitoring comprehension enable learners to unveil the textual content in an increasingly efficient way. This evinces that undertaking a sophisticated kind of ‘metacognitive reading’ by critically analyzing and processing the input of the text is a crucial footstep towards achieving deeper understanding. Given this, the study under investigation tends to equip the sampled EFL learners with an instruction in metacognitive monitoring to better enhance their reading act.

2.3. Major Studies on Comprehension Monitoring Training

A number of studies dealing with comprehension monitoring instruction and textual analysis, as two inextricably connected and interdependent variables, have been conducted by some reading researchers. For instance, André & Anderson (1978-79) undertook an experimental treatment in which they provided high school students with adequate training in self-questioning as a crucial metacognitive monitoring strategy. The subjects were instructed in identifying the main points raised in the text and generating questions about them. The results evinced that the training benefited the subjects more substantially and substantively as they developed the basic potential to question and comprehend the content of the written discourse. This training, in effect, revealed that self-questioning, as a vehicle of monitoring understanding, is of great importance to the construction of text meaning since it enables learners to critique and grasp what is stated by the author/writer.

Singer & Donlan (1982) provided American eleventh grade students with training in building schemata for short narrative texts and generating questions pertaining to the constructed schema. The subjects were divided into an experimental and a control group. The first group (the experimental one) was assigned a wide range of short stories and was instructed in activating their schemata about some basic story elements (e.g., the leading character, characters’ goals, events), whereas the second group (the control one) received no instruction. Further, the

experimental group was taught how to come up with questions that are interrelated with the activated schema with a view to understanding the content. This was intensively practiced and applied to some narrative texts. The findings revealed that the experimental group reflected greater improvement at the level of content comprehension than the other group.

Bereiter & Bird (1985), one of the pioneering training studies, was conducted in an effort to instruct seventh and eighth grade average readers in the use of comprehension monitoring during textual reading. The subjects, made up of eighty students, were divided into three experimental groups and one control group. The first two experimental groups were exposed to the processes of identifying comprehension obstacles and selecting “repair strategies” to remedy comprehension failure. These mentioned processes were extensively explained and repeatedly modeled by the teacher. As to the third experimental group, it did not receive any modeling and explanation pertaining to strategy use, and was only encouraged to practice the strategies. The findings revealed, via the post-test, that the experimental groups, which were trained by means of modeling and explanations, outperformed both the third experimental group and the control group.

Kern (1989) conducted a study in which intermediate French students, as L2 readers, were directly instructed in reading comprehension and meaning inferring. Fifty-three subjects took part in this study. The treatment group consisted of twenty-six students and the control group was twenty-seven. They were both assigned a pre-test prior to the strategy training process. Then, the treatment subjects were instructed in word analysis (e.g., cognates, prefixes, suffixes, orthographic cues), sentence analysis (e.g., cohesive devices, sentence cohesion), discourse analysis (e.g., inferring meaning from context, forming hypotheses, questioning) and reading for specific purposes (e.g., skimming for the main idea, scanning for a specific detail). The findings of the post-test showed that the experimental group considerably improved in terms of text comprehension and meaning inferring. This improvement was manifested at the level of word, sentence and discourse analysis.

Boumann, Seifert-Kessell, & Jones (1992) undertook a three-week intervention with fourth-grade students in order to evince the role of comprehension monitoring instruction in text reading. The subjects (n=60) were randomly categorized into three experimental groups: (a) a Think-aloud (TA) group, (b) a Direct Reading-Thinking Activity (DRTA) group and (c) a Direct Reading Activity (DRA) group. The first group was instructed in comprehension monitoring techniques (i.e., self-questioning, predicting, retelling, rereading). As to the second group, it was exposed to a ‘predict-verify’ strategy while reading stories. The third group was initiated by the instructor into a ‘non-interactive’, ‘guided’ reading of stories. Along the pre-post-test continuum, the findings evidenced that, though awareness of comprehension checking strategies improved among the (TA) and (DRTA) groups, the subjects in (TA) group reflected remarkable increase in their abilities to inspect their understanding of the target content. This shows that monitoring strategy instruction plays a role in monitoring strategy awareness which, in turn, results in an enhanced reading process.

Huff & Nietfield (2009) conducted a two-week intervention to reveal the effect of instructing learners in both comprehension monitoring and accuracy in monitoring. The instruction targeted two groups (n=21, n=24) representing the treatment condition and other two

groups (n=47, n=26) serving the control condition. The first treatment group (n=21) was exposed to comprehension monitoring training and the second treatment group (n=24) was instructed in comprehension inspection and monitoring accuracy. The findings illustrated that both treatment classes reflected an improved level in comprehension monitoring. Further, the second treatment class showed stark improvements in monitoring accuracy. This is relatable to one of the objectives underlying the present study in trying to unveil whether learners' comprehension monitoring during reading can be enhanced through strategy instruction.

3. Research Objectives & Research Questions

The present experimental study has a two-fold goal. It reveals how the comprehension monitoring process is conducted among Moroccan EFL university learners. As a second purpose, the study seeks to uncover the impact of strategy instruction on EFL university students' comprehension monitoring strategies during textual reading. For achieving these objectives, a corpus of research tools was tapped by the researcher in an attempt to collect the necessary quantitative and qualitative data. These research-oriented instruments incorporate the reading comprehension texts, 'self-report questionnaire' and reading pre- and post-tests (i.e., narrative, expository). Hence, the following two research questions serve as a signpost for addressing the topical issue under investigation.

- a- How is the process of comprehension monitoring performed by Moroccan EFL university students in the analysis of reading texts?
- b- To what extent does explicit metacognitive strategy instruction improve the Moroccan EFL university students' comprehension monitoring?
- c-

4. Method

4.1. Participants

A total of one hundred and thirteen Moroccan EFL university students participated in the current case study. All of them belong to the English department at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences, Mohammed V- Agdal in Rabat. The target subjects are in the first-semester level and they have the same educational background. The two groups were randomly selected by the researcher and each group includes mixed-ability learners. One group (n=63) served as the experimental group, whereas the other group (n=50) was assigned to the control condition. According to the reading pre-test scores, it is evident that both in the treatment and the control group, there are students of advanced and intermediate level. This can serve as a platform for delving into the conduct of comprehension monitoring among learners in a more plausible manner. The subjects belonging to these two groups (i.e., control, experimental) are not repeaters.

4.2. Procedure

The current study adopts a pre-post-test design which involves the assignment of the reading pre- and post-tests to both treatment and control groups. The treatment group (n=63) received thorough, systematic instruction in metacognitive monitoring pertaining to textual reading and meaning construction for a semester-long period (Fall Term/ 2012). The subjects of the group were exposed to some monitoring procedures such as checking their comprehension while reading, engaging in progress monitoring, applying 'fix-up' strategies in the case of comprehension breakdowns, rereading and self-questioning. These were reinforced through the

provision of a range of written discourse (i.e., narrative, expository). The control group (n=50), taught in reading comprehension, was not provided with any training in comprehension monitoring/ metacognition. At the conclusion of the intervention, both groups (control & experimental) were post-tested and assigned the 'self-report questionnaire'.

The designed reading comprehension tests (i.e., pre-test, post-test) were comprised of four basic reading tasks (wh-questions, meaning-inferring, paraphrasing, summarizing) that require critical thinking, metacognitive control and effective monitoring. Each group was administered a reading test (i.e., narrative, expository) and a questionnaire at both pre-testing and post-testing stages. Therefore, the administration of the reading test and the 'self-report questionnaire' to the participants belonging to the two groups (control & treatment) under focus extended to a two-hour period which could be explicitly judged sufficient.

Serving as an effective instrument of obtaining knowledge about how the comprehension monitoring act is performed by EFL learners in constructing the meaning inherent in the text, the 'self-report questionnaire' was implemented. The prime rationale behind evading the 'think-aloud technique' is that it breaks up the continuity of the reading process (Bereiter & Bird, 1985). In fact, unlike the 'think-aloud protocol', which requires learners to report on their strategic moves while analysing the written discourse simultaneously, the 'self-report questionnaire' can be completed shortly after the performance of the reading process. In this way, the subjects can engage in both reflective thinking and 'meta-reasoning' about their conducted reading, and thus report their monitoring and analytical skills by means of which they have attained text comprehension.

The data reported in the 'self-report questionnaire' were computed through the Excel software Program (version 2007) to reflect the frequency of strategies used among the target groups during the comprehension-checking procedure. This was applied at the pre-test and post-test stages for both control and experimental groups with the objective of pinpointing any major advance at the level of strategic monitoring behaviour. The monitoring comprehension processes reported by the sampled learners were numerically counted in percentile forms and turned into illustrative figures. This gives an overall perspective on the participating EFL readers' pre-treatment as well as post-treatment status as to comprehension monitoring, especially among the experimental group which was exposed to the instructional intervention.

5. Findings

5.1. EFL Learners' Comprehension monitoring during Textual Reading

Building on the views gained through the 'self-report questionnaire', it can be submitted that the target EFL subjects of both groups reported using some sub-processes to check their ongoing comprehension of the assigned narrative and expository texts. The findings revealing how the self-monitoring process is undertaken among EFL learners are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. EFL learners' self-monitoring during text processing

Subjects (N=113) Self-monitoring	Control Group (N=50)	Experimental Group (N=63)
	Narrative & Expository Texts	Narrative & Expository Texts

Guessing the Meaning from Context	N	36	34
	%	39.56	29.05
Rereading Previous Sentences	N	12	16
	%	13.19	13.68
Rereading Previous Paragraphs	N	2	12
	%	2.20	10.25
Ignoring Difficult Words/Sentences	N	3	5
	%	3.30	4.28
Stopping Reading to Check Comprehension	N	14	15
	%	15.38	12.82
Slow Reading	N	24	35
	%	26.37	29.92

Confronting some difficult words/sentences while reading texts (e.g., narrative, expository, learners employ some sub-processes (i.e., guessing the meaning from context and slow reading) more frequently. The first sub-technique was used with a percentage of 39.56% for the control group and 29.05% for the experimental group. The second sub-technique pertaining to comprehension monitoring, which is slow reading, was utilized by the control group with a frequency of 26.37% and by the experimental group with 29.92% of frequent use. Further, stopping the reading process for a while to remediate their comprehension failure and rereading the texts' sentences are the basic strategic moves deployed by the subjects with percentages of 15.38% and 13.19% for the control group and 12.82% and 13.68% for the experimental group respectively. Also, rereading the previous paragraphs to comprehend the meaning of words/statements was used with percentages of 10.25% and 2.20% for the experimental and control groups sequentially. However, it can be declared that only a tiny minority of the subjects of both groups admitted ignoring the abstruse words and difficult sentences whilst reading the assigned written texts (e.g., narrative, expository).

Further, based on the insights reported by the participating EFL learners in the 'self-report questionnaire', it was observed that the metacognitive strategic technique of coming up with some 'directive' and 'self-regulated' questions relative to the included input throughout the course of text processing was starkly lacking among the sampled EFL learners. This is showcased in Figure 1.

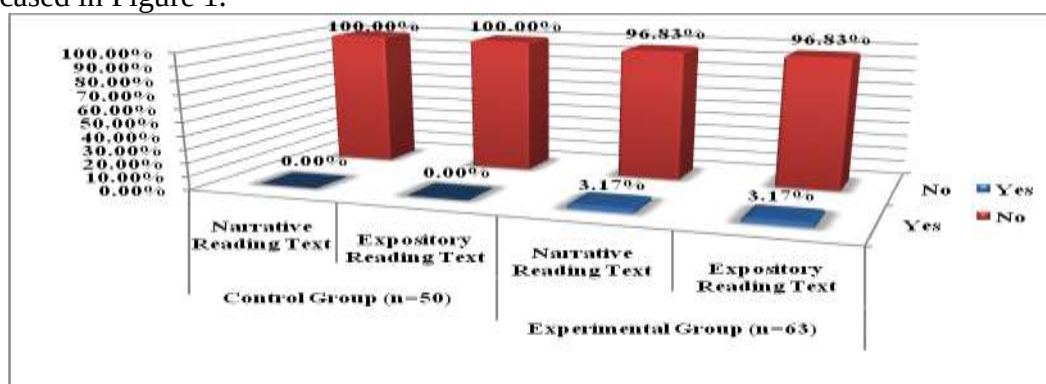


Figure 1. EFL learners' self-questioning during reading the written discourse

As Figure 1 expressly shows, it can be said that, whereas none of the subjects in the control group claimed that they engaged themselves in the process of self-questioning about the textual content, only 3.17% of EFL student-readers belonging to the experimental group confirmed using this strategy in their reading of the narrative and expository written texts. This is, again, a clear manifestation that the strategy of self-questioning, which is part and parcel of comprehension monitoring, is not frequently used by first-semester EFL learners since it entails, as assumed, the exertion of a large amount of mental efforts and cognitive capacities.

As regards text rereading, which constitutes a significant part of the comprehension monitoring procedure during textual analysis and synthesis, it is apparent that the greater proportion of the control as well as treatment subjects did not have recourse to this strategy in an attempt to track an overall comprehension of the assigned texts' content. The frequency of text reprocessing among targeted EFL learners is shown in Figure 2.

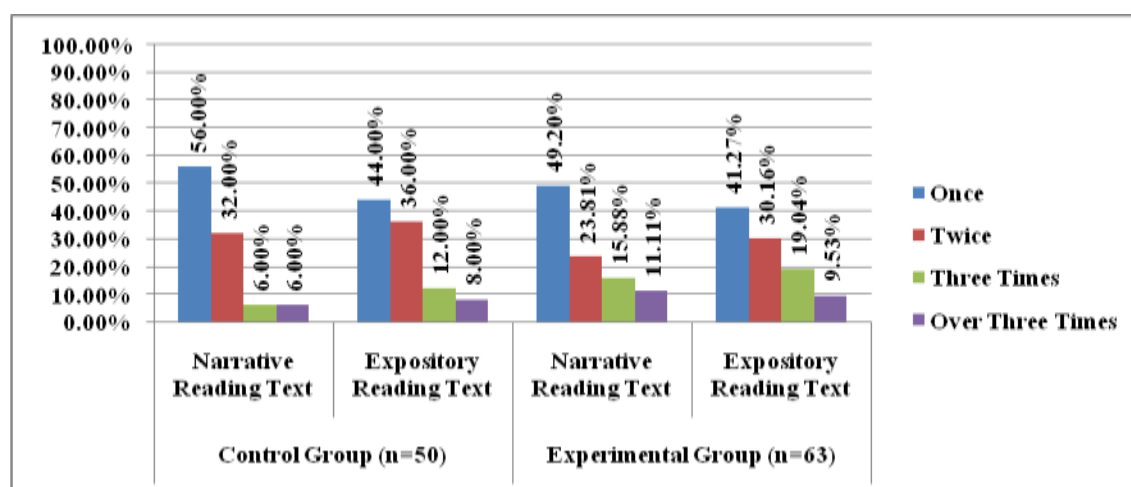


Figure 2. Text rereading technique among EFL learner readers

As conspicuously manifested in Figure 2, most EFL learners in the control group tended to read the presented texts only once with percentages of 56% and 44% for the narrative and expository written discourse respectively. Further, whereas 32% of the controls declared that they read the narrative text twice, 36% of the same group read the expository text for the second time as well. In a similar fashion, a great number of the experimental subjects did not engage in reprocessing the target written texts. Respectively, 49.20% and 41.27% of this group read the assigned narrative and expository texts only once. Reading for the second time was performed by 23.81% and 30.16% of the participants belonging to the experiment group for the narrative and expository written texts sequentially. Nevertheless, only a small number of student readers of both groups did manage to read the given texts three or more times for achieving an effectual comprehension.

5.2. Impact of Strategy Instruction on EFL Learners' Comprehension Monitoring

In striking a comparison between the pre- and post-test stage, it is evident that the control group did not depend upon sufficient strategy use in keeping track of an effective and smooth comprehension of the assigned written passages (narrative and expository). The findings relevant to the process of comprehension inspection among the comparison group are set forth in Figure 3.

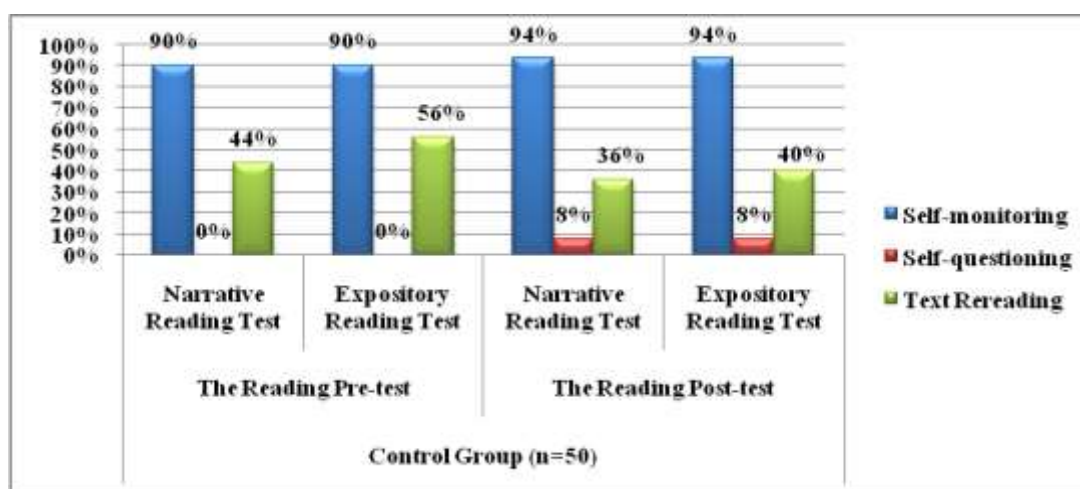


Figure 3.Control EFL learners' conduct of comprehension monitoring during reading process at pre- and post-testing

The findings reported in Figure 3 provide ample evidence that comprehension monitoring was inadequately executed by the sampled EFL learners of the control group since the subjects' monitoring behavior and techniques are typically characterized by a certain kind of stark insufficiency. Statistically speaking, at pre-testing, the subjects did manage to check their ongoing comprehension with a similar frequency of 90% for both the narrative and expository texts. Further, text rereading was reported to be implemented by the group with varying rates of 44% and 56% for the narrative text and expository text respectively. Yet, self-questioning, as a sophisticated strategic move in comprehension monitoring, was not used by the targeted EFL learners during the process of reading. This can be attributed to their incomplete awareness of the componential techniques that are used for tracking textual understanding. This state of affairs, in a way, reduces the quality of comprehension checking among the control group.

At post-testing, the strategies implemented for the sake of monitoring the comprehending act among the control group did not improve and develop compared to the ones used by the same group at pre-testing. Self-monitoring and rereading are the most recurrent strategic moves to which learners resorted in their reading of the given written texts (e.g., narrative, expository). Clearly, the comparison subjects did not reflect any improvement as to the comprehension monitoring procedure. They claimed that they engaged in self-monitoring which was executed by the group in reading both types of texts (e.g., narrative, expository) with a percentage of 94%. Moreover, text reprocessing was performed by the subjects with respectively stated frequencies of 36% and 40% in analyzing the narrative and expository written texts. However, the engagement in self-questioning was only resorted to by the participating EFL student-readers with an occurrence of 8% in reading both kinds of written texts.

As to the sampled EFL learners exposed to the experimental treatment, it is conspicuous that, after the treatment condition, they reflected some signs of improvement as regards the employment of comprehension monitoring strategies (self-monitoring, self-questioning, rereading) for the achievement of effectual comprehension of the textual input. The results are clearly displayed in Figure 4.

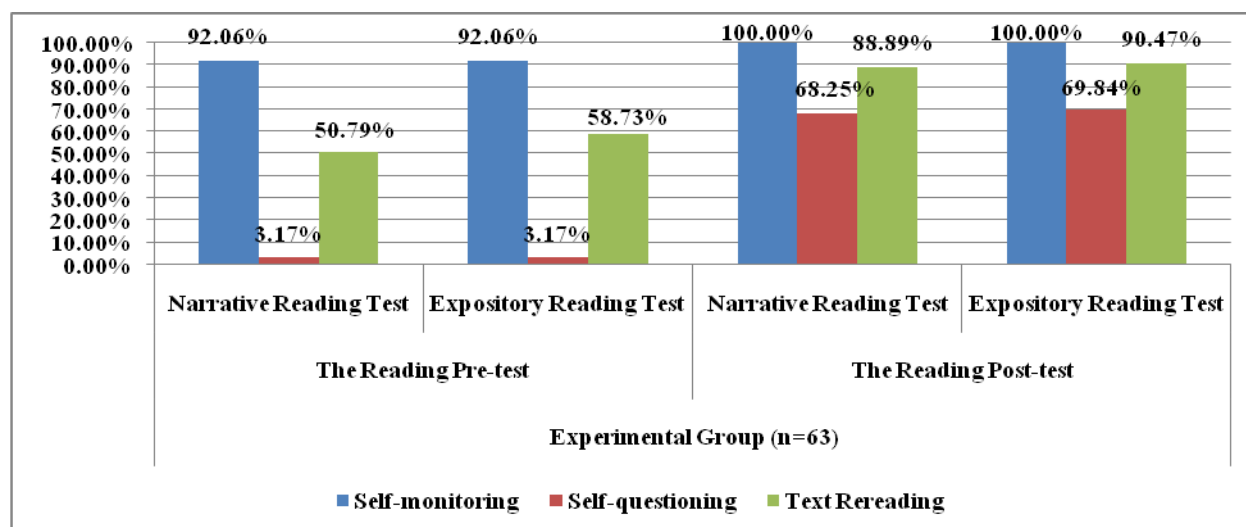


Figure 4. Treatment EFL learners' conduct of comprehension monitoring process at pre- and post-testing

As the findings explicitly reveal, the participants of the experimental group involved themselves in the self-regulated mechanism of self-monitoring whilst reading both narrative and expository written texts with an even proportion of 92.06% at the pre-testing level. But, as concerns the strategy of self-questioning, the EFL learners targeted in this study confirmed that they came up with a very few guiding and reflective questions about what is contained in both texts (e.g., narrative, expository) with a minimal occurrence of 3.17%. For the strategy of text rereading, it was performed by the participating student-readers with a percentage of 50.79% for the narrative text and with 58.73% for the expository text.

Drawing a parallel between the comprehension-monitoring process conducted by the strategy-trained group at the pre-test on the one hand, and the one undertaken at the post-test on the other hand (see Figure 4), it is evident that results show a significant increase in the use of the monitoring techniques at the post-testing. Actually, all the EFL participants managed to involve themselves in the process of self-monitoring which forms a greater part of textual reading. As to text reprocessing, it was recruited by the treatment group in an attempt to strengthen their comprehension of the included content with percentages of 88.89% and 90.47% for the narrative and expository written texts respectively.

Further, a significant increase did mark the experimental group as concerns self-questioning (see Figure 4). Indeed, the EFL subjects claimed that they depended on this technique during the act of processing the narrative and expository texts with 68.25% and 69.84% of frequent use respectively. A sample of questions brought forward by the target learners during their reading of the given written texts are as follows: 'What am I trying to understand?', 'What is the text about?', 'What does the author tend to convey?', 'What does this word mean?', 'Shall I reread this paragraph?', 'Shall I reread the whole text?' 'Is my comprehension achieved?' These kinds of reflective questions entirely engaged the target EFL learners more fully in textual analysis and enabled them to identify the focal implications and meaningful ideologies stated by the writer/author in the written discourse.

6. Discussion

The current study unveiled how Moroccan EFL learners engaged in the procedure of comprehension checking during text processing. It also explored the conceived impact of strategy intervention on Moroccan EFL university learners' comprehension inspection while coping with textual input (i.e., narrative, expository). These two objectives served as the cornerstone for investigating the issue under study.

The findings relatable to the first objective display that most EFL learners, namely those at the first-semester level, try to construct the meaning of the text by depending on self-monitoring. Both the control and experimental groups, did, to some extent, engage in the actual process of checking their ongoing comprehension during text reading. However, the effective employment of some potent reading 'heuristics' (e.g., self-questioning, text rereading) to remedy their comprehension failure or redirect their cognitive attempts at re-synthesizing the text content is rather deficient. This is in stark accord with Block's (1992) claim that L2 readers find more difficulties in textual understanding than L1 readers. In effect, the analysis of the data gained through the 'self-report questionnaire' at both the pre-test and post-test level clearly reveals that there is a certain kind of constancy in terms of the usage of self-monitoring sub-techniques while coping to decode the meaning of the written discourse. There was no substantial progress in making use of efficient comprehension monitoring techniques such as self-questioning and rereading among the control participants.

In essence, an effective comprehensibility of the text content can be achieved on the condition that readers generate relevant and 'directive' questions during the reading process. As have been empirically proved by some studies (e.g., Taboada & Guthrie, 2006), self-generated questions significantly result in variation in terms of reading comprehension. Yet, in analyzing the retrospective data at pre-testing, it was markedly transparent that most EFL subjects in both the control and experimental groups, did not engage in the process of coming up with an array of 'self-regulatory' questions that serve the crucial role of facilitating the act of understanding. Obviously, central to the meaning-construction process is the learners' potential ability to question the text content throughout the reading process because not only can self-questioning be initiated by EFL learners before the engagement in the reading act, but it can also be resorted to during and after the textual reading operation. This indicates that constant evaluation of one's understanding of the core content of the written text is primarily based on the inquiry into what the writer/author intends to convey.

Moreover, given that rereading is a remedial step to cope with comprehension failure, it is significant to state, in light of the results, that a small proportion of learners, both in the experimental and control groups, had recourse to this technique at the pre-test. In fact, the encountering of some difficult words/sentences in the text makes most EFL learners in the two groups engage in rereading so as to attain the intended meaning. This evinces that re-inspecting the content of some portions of the texts can constitute a fundamental strategic step in the learners' strategy repertoire by means of which they can re-orient their processing capacity and thinking capability towards comprehending the written discourse. Basically, some of the target EFL learners resorted to the rereading process with the purpose of clearing up any miscomprehension of the content and achieving an effective understanding of the author's/writer's stated views and conceptualizations.

As regards the second objective, it is plausible that the process of instructing EFL learners in comprehension monitoring and metacognitive thinking can be the differentiating factor between the control and the experimental group. The latter group did tap effective strategic processes (self-monitoring, self-questioning, rereading) that assisted them to handle the given written texts (e.g., narrative, expository) at post-testing. The participants of both groups at pre-testing employed the strategies of self-monitoring and rereading. Nonetheless, at post-testing, the control group remained persistent in using the same meaning-checking strategies (e.g., self-monitoring, rereading), whereas the experimental subjects did improve in the recruitment of these strategies and did have recourse to self-questioning as an effective 'heuristic' to clarify the writer's/author's implied meaning. Deemed the backbone of the comprehension-monitoring act, self-questioning contributes insights and clarifications to the textual content (King, 1991). Hence, the development of the ability to raise some 'self-regulating' questions can only come into effect via the strategy intervention which is the causal element in boosting the reading comprehension performance among learners. This is illustrative of the premise that EFL learners can foster monitoring strategic moves and that their previously acquired text-processing strategies can be subject to improvement through strategy instruction (Nietfield & Schraw 2002; Huff & Nietfield, 2009).

In this sense, the evidence presented by the current study places into perspective the implied view that exposure to the instruction in comprehension monitoring can culminate in significant reading effectiveness. This is in accordance with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Lauterbach & Bender, 1995; Yang, 2006; Allen & Hancock, 2008; Fan, 2010) which advocate the role of strategy instruction in the enhancement of textual comprehension. Throughout this study, this was tangibly reflected in an increase in the use of self-monitoring and text rereading among the experimental subjects. Additionally, owing to strategy instruction, EFL learners in the experimental condition developed the strategy of self-questioning. The latter added up to the experimental learners' strategic repertoire. Their way of approaching the text content by coming up with directive and reflective questions that are deemed the essential steps for tackling difficult written texts was a direct outcome of the strategic reading intervention.

7. Conclusion

This research paper set out to investigate the comprehension monitoring procedure to which learners resort during textual analysis and reveal the impact of strategy intervention on their monitoring strategies. Based on the attained findings, it was observable that the sampled EFL learners reflected some deficits in the comprehension monitoring process. In fact, though the two groups inclined to self-monitor their understanding of some difficult words/sentences, their engagement in the self-questioning act was hardly initiated. Put simply, inquiring the text content with a view of guiding their comprehension process was lacking among both groups, namely at the pre-testing stage. As regards rereading, only some EFL readers participating in this study tended to reread the assigned texts. These stated facts underscore the view that the learners' comprehension monitoring moves were not efficacious given the minimal degree of dependence on self-questioning and the inadequate recourse made to textual rereading.

Thus, it can be posited that Moroccan EFL learners do engage, to a lesser extent, in the meaning-checking process. Considering that readers self-monitor the written texts by having recourse to some steps (e.g., rereading some sentences, slow reading), the quality of their

monitoring remains undeveloped and inaccurate. This is suggestive of the perspective that achieving efficiency in terms of progress monitoring while being involved in reading EFL texts is dependent upon the coordination of self-monitoring, self-questioning and rereading which are the constituent elements of keeping track of an effective understanding.

Indeed, due, in part, to being exposed to a set of different written texts (e.g., narrative, expository) during the training sessions, and due to being engaged in metacognitive control, the experimental EFL learners' potential to monitor their ongoing understanding did improve to a significant level. This was reinforced by the explicit/direct strategy training as regards comprehension monitoring moves (e.g., self-monitoring, self-questioning, rereading). As indicated earlier, the comparison of the reported data at pre-testing with that of post-testing indicates that the EFL learners' monitoring abilities can be refined through both strategy instruction and the provision of texts that are of difficult content. This espouses the view that the improvement of the comprehension-checking capabilities among EFL readers is a likely outcome within a Moroccan EFL setting.

8. Implications

Some useful, practical implications drawn from this small-scale study can be manifested in differing aspects. It is apparent that the inclusion of comprehension monitoring instruction in the EFL reading comprehension course at the university level is of primary benefit and importance. This can ensure an improved level in text processing among EFL learners. Further, it is also recommended that academic practitioners select a broad array of narrative and expository texts and assign them to the learners. Indeed, the analysis and synthesis of these, and other, types of written discourse can maximize the learners' reading potential and expand their analysis techniques and synthesis skills. It is also deducible that the assignment of the written texts of difficult content can increase the learners' reading efficiency, processing efficacy and monitoring competency. This consolidates their way of strategizing the content and thinking critically and metacognitively throughout the performance of textual reading. Hence, the application of monitoring strategy instruction, along with the administration of challenging written texts (i.e., narrative, expository), to the Moroccan EFL learners is a necessary requirement in EFL reading instruction.

9. Limitations of the Study

As is the case with any conducted research, this study has some limitations. The first limitation is concerned with the variable of representativeness. Considering that this study was limited to the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat, it is imperative that other higher education institutions be addressed and taken as representative case studies by future researchers to gain fuller 'representativity' of the Moroccan EFL student-readers. The second limitation is bound up with the research instruments adopted for the conduct of this study. Future researchers, whose interest is nested within the sphere of the reading comprehension, are expected to resort to other data elicitation methods such as interviews and think-aloud. The third limitation pertains to the study's neglect of considering the issue of the mixed-ability students. In effect, it is true that in each group, both control and experimental, there existed learners of differing language proficiency levels. Investigating this, indeed, would give a placid view of whether an enhanced comprehension monitoring is causally associated with either the variable of language proficiency or the variable of metacognitive strategy intervention.

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Ontological Metaphor in Economic News Reports: A Pragmatic Approach

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Abstract

With the development of the world of economy, economic reports in journals, magazines or news websites have become an essential part of daily life. Economic news demonstrates rigid and abstract concepts and meanings. It is a truism that clarity is as important as accuracy. However, writers of such news should not stick only to formal language. Their words would sound boring. To keep the audience interested, figurative language is manipulated. One rhetorical device frequently used in this genre is metaphor. It sheds some colorings on the rigid language of finance and economics. Thus, it deserves an investigatory research work. This paper sets itself the task of exploring one particular kind of metaphor, i.e. ontological metaphor. It aims at pragmatically exploring its kinds that can be possibly utilized in economic news reports. This involves specifying the most prevalent kind of ontological metaphor. It is hypothesized that in such a kind of news, ontological metaphorical uses show different manifestations like metonymy, personification or hyperbole. However, it is assumed that metonymy is the most prevailing one. The data chosen for the analysis are randomly taken from different economic websites and are analyzed by means of a model developed by this study. The analysis is quantitatively supported by a statistical analysis conducted via the percentage equation. The most significant findings of the analyses vindicate the two hypotheses set above. This paper is hoped to be valuable to pragmaticians and economic news writers or journalists who should be aware of such rhetorical devices to make use of them.

Key Words: Economic news analysis, Metaphor, Metonymy, Personification, Pragmatics

Introduction

Economy is closely related to human beings, their lives and their societies. As one crucial aspect in people's lives and daily transactions, care in economic news is highly valued and coped with. News of businesses, markets, stocks, investments and the like, which are all covered under the broad macro term of economic news here, is of interest to different kinds of people. It is argued that this genre exhibits metaphoric uses of language to soften its abstractness (White, 2003: 133). Metaphor as a rhetorical figure of speech is used to express one thing in terms of another. Different views and theories have dealt with metaphor. This paper, however, approaches metaphor pragmatically utilizing Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual theory of metaphor with its structural, orientational and ontological types. It is claimed that cognition and language are never separated as the way we think is metaphorical in nature. This paper focuses on ontological metaphors and seek answers for the following two questions: What are the possible types of ontological metaphor which characterize economic news reports? What is the most dominant type in the context under study? In association with these aims, it is hypothesized that ontological metaphor pragmatically manifests itself in different guises such as metonymy, personification, and hyperbole. Nevertheless, it is expected that the most frequently appealed to is metonymy. To achieve the aims of the study and verify or reject its hypotheses, two kinds of analyses are carried out: pragmatic and statistical ones. The former is done by means of a model developed for this purpose while the latter, which is intended to quantitatively support the findings of the pragmatic analysis, is performed by means of the percentage equation.

News Reporting

A news reporter is a journalist who researches, writes, and reports on information. He presents, conducts interviews, engages in research and makes reports. News reporting requires some basic skills, research techniques and ethics. A journalist needs some prerequisites to launch on his career. This involves discovering all relevant facts, selecting and presenting the important ones to the audience in an effective way (White, 2005: 2). The purpose of news reports is to inform readers of what is happening around the world. They have certain structure that starts from the title and involve answers to these words: who, what, when, why, where and how. Economy as an abstract field of knowledge has attracted the attention of many economists and scholars and news reporters. Thus, many studies of metaphor in economy from different angles have been done. Economic news writers gloss the rigidity of economic discourse with metaphor (Fukuda, 2009: 1693).

Economic Discourse

Samuelson and Nordhaus (1992: 3) define Economics as "the study of how societies use scarce resources to produce valuable commodities and distribute them among different people". Economics discourse ranges from the highly specialized journals through academic books and moves into journalism and broadcasting. Within the latter two, distinctions may equally be drawn between the more specifically focused at one extreme to the most highly disseminative at the other (Honesto & White, 2012: 2). This paper uses the term economics in its most inclusive sense to cover finance news and business news. The economist, Paul Krugman (1995:79) believes that metaphor as "a kind of heuristic modeling technique" plays an important role in conveying ones' economic insights.

What is Metaphor

Encyclopedia Britannica defines metaphor as follows: “it is a figure of speech that implies comparison between two unlike entities”. For example, the word ‘lion’ is a metaphor in the sentence “John was a lion in the fight”. In the cognitive linguistic perspective, metaphor is defined as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another (Kövecses, 2010: 4). Cognitive Linguistics is concerned with showing the role of meaning, conceptual processes and embodied experience in the study of language and mind and the way they intersect (Evans & Green, 2006: 22). In this field, it has been accepted that our thought processes are highly metaphorical. To put it other way, metaphor constitutes and constructs human thoughts. Cognitive linguists argue that “meaning construction is derived from embodied experience which is organized in terms of image schema, or experiential gestalts”. Metaphor has been viewed and classified differently by time and by different scholars and researchers. Different theories present the concept of metaphor and in terms of various perspectives (Evans & Green, 2006: 22).

The Classical View of Metaphor

Aristotle (1962: 46) in his book ‘Poetics’ shows that metaphor is concerned with giving the thing a name that belongs to something else. This definition is regarded as the classical understanding of metaphor (Machakanja, 2006: 6). Deignan (2005: 2) explains that the classical view of metaphor is seen as decorative or dependent on literal language. This approach does not explain how and why whole clusters of semantically related words are used with related metaphorical meanings. Words used to talk literally about plants, such as ‘blossom’, ‘cultivate’, or ‘grow’ are sometimes used metaphorically to talk about the development or deterioration of an economic project, for instance. The classical approach also failed to account for the systematicity and frequency which appear in the use of conventional metaphors by saying that these metaphors are dead or they go unnoticed; yet, they remain important. This is because explaining such metaphors as a peripheral linguistic phenomenon does not show why these metaphors are used systematically and frequently Deignan (2005: 3). However, the traditional concept can be characterized by the following: metaphor is a property of words; it is a linguistic phenomenon; it is used for some artistic and rhetorical purposes; it is based on a resemblance between the two entities that are compared and identified; it is a conscious and deliberate use of words (Kövecses, 2010: 4).

Conceptual Metaphor

As Kövecses (2010: viii) explains, the new view of metaphor was first developed by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson in their 1980 book *Metaphors We Live By*. This view is considered as a challenge to all the aspects of the powerful traditional or classical theory using a coherent and systematic way. Conceptual Metaphor Theory (henceforth CMT) challenges the deeply entrenched view of metaphor by claiming that:

1. Metaphor is a property of concepts, and not of words;
2. The function of metaphor is to better understand certain concepts; and not just for artistic or aesthetic purposes;
3. Metaphor is not necessarily based on similarity;
4. Metaphor is used effortlessly in everyday life by ordinary people, not confined to talented people; and

5. Metaphor is an inevitable process of human thought and reasoning.

Deignan (2005: 4) expounds that CMT is sometimes given the name Cognitive Metaphor Theory. This theory has the most widely known account of metaphor-as-thought. Metaphor, according to this theory, is indispensable to both thought and language. It can be illustrated as a mapping between a source domain and target domain. Metaphor allows people to comprehend a relatively abstract or inherently unstructured subject matter in terms of a more concrete, or at least a more highly structured subject matter. The terminology of the former abstract subject is the target domain (TD) and the concrete latter one is source domain (SD) (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003:14). Grady (2007: 190) views the fundamental notion of CMT is 'mapping'. It refers to "systematic metaphorical correspondence between closely related ideas". For instance, the famous conceptualization of 'nation' (which is the TD) as a ship (which is the SD) explains correspondences between the ship and the state conceived as a whole.

Pragmatic Metaphor

Recent work in lexical pragmatics within the relevance-theoretic framework, maintains that grasping the intended meaning of a word that is used metaphorically requires adjusting the linguistically encoded concept to deduce an ad hoc concept with a broader denotation than that of the lexical concept itself (Carston & Wearing, 2011: 2). Thus, to interpret a metaphorically used word that is context-dependent (in all cases of metaphors except the most conventionalized ones), pragmatic inference is necessary for deriving the speaker's intended meaning. For example, in the sentence: "My younger brother is a prince", the speaker uttering such a sentence may intend to convey the distinct assessments of her brother as he has a noble character, or that he is spoiled, privileged or demanding. He can also be good-looking, charming and popular. Any one interpretation depends on the context in which the sentence is uttered (ibid.: 4). The comparison which is essentially a metaphoric one here between the brother and the prince should be interpreted and understood in terms of the context of the utterance and in relation to both: speaker as well as hearer. This sister might not dare to say the previous utterance in front of her mother who spoils the brother making him as a prince by treating him differently from his other brothers and sisters. All this discussion lies within the realm of lexical pragmatics.

Metaphor is a matter of conceptualization rather than of language. However, metaphor is basically a communicative phenomenon arising from speakers' intentions to express thoughts or feelings with views holding that some metaphors are conceptual while others may arise in discourse.

A Pragmatic Account for Metaphor

One important account of metaphor is that the creation and interpretation of metaphor is conceptualized in terms of interlocutors' intentions. The pragmatic nature of metaphorical language uses, however, has been approached in various ways. According to Mack (1975: 222), metaphor can be viewed in the framework of speech act theory conceiving metaphor as a type of speech act. For instance, in the sentence "She runs as swiftly as a gazelle", the speaker is conveying a speech act of assertion in his metaphoric use of language. In the Grecian paradigm of cooperation, metaphor is treated as a type of conversational implicature flouting the maxim of manner or quality (Grice, 1989: 34). Grice postulates metaphor as a case of "flouting the maxims", as Chapman (2000: 131) maintains. The maxims are "flouted" by metaphor because upon examination of the literal meaning of the utterance, it seems that the maxims are violated:

this is additional information that is misleading to the hearer. So, when a speaker utters a metaphor, based on the literal meaning of the utterance, the speaker appears to be uncooperative; there is no sense in his language according to the conventional use of the words in the utterance. In the framework of the Relevance theory, Sperber and Wilson (1986: 170) deal with metaphor as a loose language use. This theory holds that a speaker is supposed to be communicative, the hearer has to understand speaker's utterance since it is relevant and meaningful. Thus, even metaphorical uses are easily caught (Chapman, 2000: 131). This study highlights the pragmatic nature of metaphor in terms of its flouting to the maxims of Grice. Moreover, metaphor is a cognitively urged phenomenon where extra processing is required to grasp the intended meaning. Here lies the pragmatic justification behind metaphor in this study.

Metaphor in Economic News

Metaphor is now a concept with multidisciplinary implications. Its use has been immense in every aspect of human thought: physical and biological sciences, economics, law, political theory, psychology, philosophy, business, and poetry. The contemporary theory of metaphor claims that economics is abound with metaphors. This theory also claims that abstract concepts are understood via metaphor mapping the concrete and physical onto the abstract and nonphysical. The abstract economic concepts are structured in terms of metaphor in the special field of economics (Lakoff, 1993: 244).

The aforementioned clarifications justify the cognitive nature of metaphor, i.e., its nature is not a purely lexical phenomenon. It is a deep-seated conceptual phenomenon that shapes the way people think and speak rather than being occupying a superficial level of language. Cognitive function is connected with conceptual metaphor performed in terms of its SD and TD. The cognitive functions of CMs are discussed in the following subsections as introduced by Lakoff and Johnson's 1980 work.

Structural Metaphors

Structural metaphors are of the category of 'X is Y', meaning that one thing is understood or experienced in terms of another. This is the kind of metaphor that what most people conventionally know or understand as metaphor. In the ARGUMENT IS WAR metaphor, we have a structural metaphor since it includes the mapping of one kind of experience (which is ARGUMENT) onto another (which is WAR). This is the metaphor that underlies expressions as 'He defended his argument' (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 48).

Oriental Metaphors

An orientational metaphor is not to structure one concept according to another as structural metaphor does. Instead, it arranges a whole system of concepts in terms of one another. Most of the metaphors of this kind are related to 'spatial orientations': UP-DOWN, FRONT-BACK, IN-OUT, ON-OFF, DEEP-SHALLOW, CENTRAL-PERIPHERAL, etc. This is the reason behind having such a name. An orientational metaphor gives a concept a spatial orientation as in: PROSPERITY IS UP (ibid.:16). Since these last two types of metaphor are semantically oriented, they are deemed out of the realm of this study. Only the third type of metaphor, which is presented below, will be the basic concern of this study. Thus, it will be dealt with some detail and broken down into several subtypes in order to be developed as the apparatus for analyzing the data of the present paper, i.e. economic news articles.

Ontological Metaphors

Some experiences and concepts need to be captured in terms of substances or objects. This allows us to select parts of these experiences or concepts and treat them as discrete substances or entities of a uniform kind. When one identifies his experiences as entities or substances, he can refer to them for categorizing, grouping or identifying them. Our experiences with physical objects furnish the basis for a great variety of ontological metaphors. Ontological metaphors are interested in the ways of viewing abstract concepts such as ideas, events, emotions, activities and so on as being entities and substances. One example is the INFLATION IS AN ENTITY. It handles the experience of rising prices, for instance (ibid.: 23). Metaphor suggests a comparison between two different entities to arouse imaginative interpretation of one entity in the light of the other. This is the basic definition adopted by this study. In metaphor, the convention of the maxim of truthfulness is deliberately violated; this is the pragmatic twist in this work. Besides, each metaphoric instance requires an extra cognitive processing and this is the scope of the pragmatic theory of relevance. As the essence of metaphor is comparison, some related metaphoric concepts are presented below. They conceptualize kinds of ontological metaphor:

Personification

A subtype of ontological metaphors is personification. It is deemed as the most apparent ontological metaphor because the abstract concept is not only structured by using a physical object but also it is further set and specified as being a person. This helps us comprehend a wide range and variety of experiences having non-human entities in terms of human motivations, characteristics and activities as in this example: “Inflation is eating up our profits” (Dorst, 2011: 290). Personification is seen as one category that covers a huge variety of metaphors where each picks out various different aspects of a person or ways of looking at a person. As extensions of ontological metaphors, they allow us make sense of phenomena in human terms (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 34). According to Charteris-Black (2011 : 61), personification is a “linguistic figure in which an abstract and inanimate entity is described or referred to using a word or phrase that in other contexts would be used to describe a person”. Personification is an important metaphorical device that would be broken down in this study into personification referring to human qualities, human actions and human abilities.

Metonymy

If we are using one entity to refer to another that is related to it, we have a case of what we may call metonymy. For example: “The Times hasn’t arrived at the press conference yet” means “The reporter from the Times newspaper”. What is included is a special case of metonymy that traditional rhetoricians have called synecdoche, where the part stands for the whole, as in: “The automobile is clogging the highways” to mean (the collection of automobiles)(Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 36). Originally, metaphor and metonymy are different types of processes. Metaphor is a way of conceiving one thing in terms of another with the principal function of understanding. Metonymy, on the other hand, has primarily a referential function. This means that it allows us to use one entity to represent another (ibid.). It can be of three types: conventional metonymy, synecdoche and antonomasia. The first is a metonymy that is commonly heard or used in everyday language. For instance, in: “It is good to meet a familiar face here”, the word “face” is a conventional metonymy as it refers to a person. A synecdoche is when a part is used instead of the whole or vice versa. To say “the wheel” referring to “the car”

is a whole-part relation. In the same vein, an antonomasia is a title used in place of a proper name or a proper name is used instead of a title. Saying that “He is a Solomon” is a way of saying that the person we are mentioning is a wise ruler. The proper name Solomon labels that person as a wise ruler (Web source 1).

Hyperbole

One type of metaphoric use is hyperbole. Hyperboles are exaggerated statements or claims that are not meant to be taken literally (Web source 2). As such, they bestow a metaphoric use. For instance “Susan is a saint” or “She is an angel” can be understood as hyperbolic, that is, as exaggerated ways of expressing some good features of Susan. Here, she is compared to an angel in a hyperbolic metaphor. Such uses are metaphorical ones and their derived sense (the ad hoc concept) is hyperbolic (Carston & Wearing 2011: 291). Leech (1983:145) explains a hyperbolic metaphor as a case where the writer’s description is stronger than the actual situation. It is detected from the flouting of the maxim of quantity. As such, two types of hyperboles can be figured out. The first refers to overstatements of number or quantity and the second to denotes impossible descriptions (Christodoulidou, 2011: 143).

Simile

Another consequence of the relevance theory where lexical pragmatics accounts for the metaphorical uses of words is simile. Apparently, simple metaphors of the ‘X is a Y’ sort and their simile counterparts ‘X is like a Y’ seem to convey exactly similar messages in very similar perspectives (Carston & Wearing, 2011: 296). In fact, metaphors are seen as implicit, abbreviated or elliptical similes. An account of metaphor interpretation, thus, involves recovering the corresponding simile and then carrying out whatever interpretive processes are required for simile comprehension (Ortony, 1993: 44). Similes are simply hedged metaphors that are processed and understood in the same way as metaphors (Tirrell 1991: 40). Linguistically, simile can be triggered by the use of “like” or the use of “as”. Thus, they are seen as the two divisions that will realize metaphoric simile in this paper.

Idiomatic Expressions

According to New Oxford English Dictionary, an idiom is “a group of words established by usage as having a meaning not deducible from those of the individual words”(Web source 3). Most figurative language scholars do not view idioms as being dead metaphors which is defined as a “figure of speech that has lost its force and imaginative effectiveness through frequent use” (Web source 4).

Over the past several decades, cognitive linguists have criticized the dead metaphor theory: the view that a conventional metaphor is “dead” and no longer influences thought. Gibbs et al. (1997: 142) argue that idioms might once have been metaphorical, but by time they have lost their metaphoricity to exist in our mental lexicons as frozen lexical items. Since contemporary cognitive science sees metaphor as constituting a significant part of human cognition, idiomatic expressions are one kind of metaphors as they are cognitively conceptualized. Idioms, then, are conceptually motivated metaphors. According to Gibbs and O’Brien (1990: 35), “the meanings of many idioms are motivated by speakers’ tacit knowledge of the conceptual metaphors underlying the meanings of these figurative phrases”. Grasping their meaning entails flouting the maxim of manner of cooperation. As they carry a metaphorical

sense that makes their comprehension difficult because their meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of their constituent parts, two kinds of idiomatic expressions are of relevance to this study: phrasal verbs and fixed metaphoric expressions. An example of the first might be “He will *get away with* his absence from school”, to mean “going unpunished”. The second type can be illustrated as follows: “a carrot and stick method” to mean comparing the situation at hand to luring a stubborn horse by dangling a carrot in front of it and prodding with a stick behind (Web source 5).

It is worthy to mention that all these subdivisions of the types of ontological metaphors are linguistically triggered in the second level of analysis as engineered in Figure (1) below.

The Model of Analysis

The model of analysis, developed by this study, is based on the metaphoric issues discussed above in relation to ontological metaphor, which is the basic concern of this work. In fact, this category manifests itself by means of various strategies, namely: personification, metonymy, hyperbole, simile and idiomatic expressions as schematized by Figure (1). Furthermore, personification is broken down into three divisions: human qualities, human actions and human abilities; metonymy has its conventional metaphor, synecdoche and antonomasia subdivisions; hyperbole is further subclassified into those hyperboles representing numbers or quality and those of the impossible descriptions; simile is of two kinds: the ‘like’ and ‘as’ types and finally idiomatic expressions have two subdivisions: phrasal verbs and fixed metaphoric expressions. This way of introducing ‘ontological metaphor’ and its subtypes represents the model intended to be used for the pragmatic analysis of the data under study. This analysis is backed up by a statistical analysis, which is carried out by means of the percentage equation, to quantitatively support the findings that result from the former analysis and verify or reject the hypotheses of the study. Figure 1 conceptualizes the developed model of analysis:

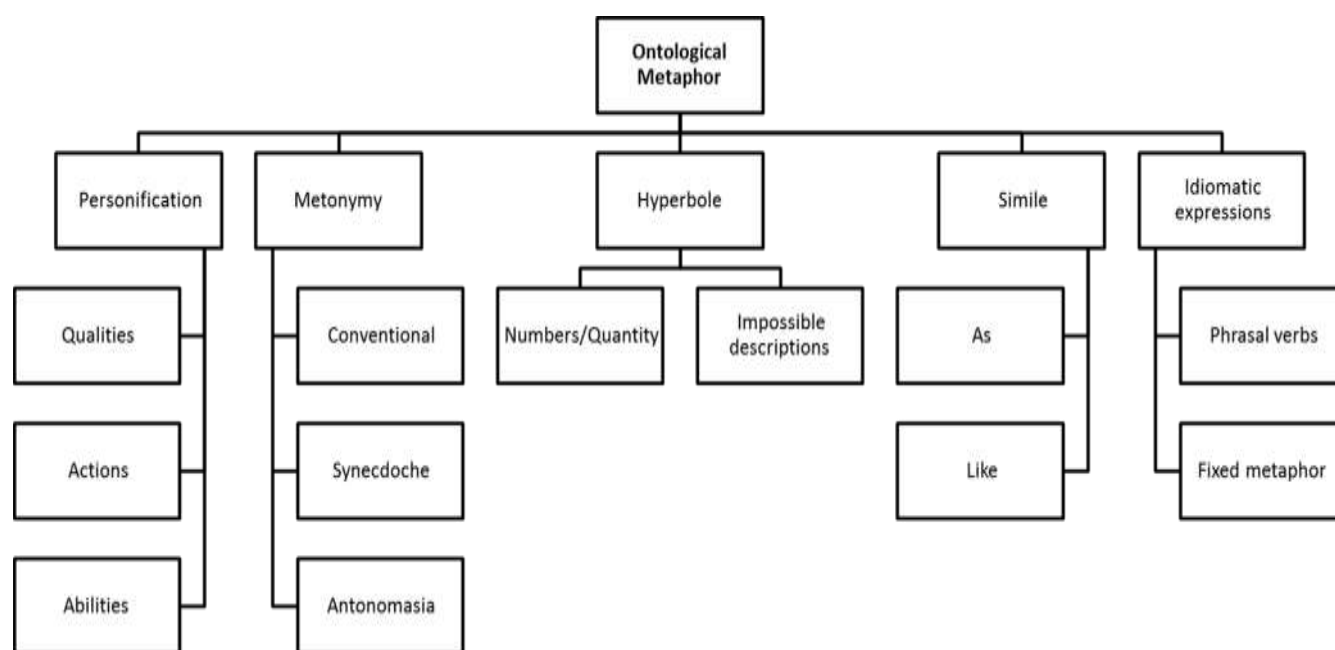


Figure 1. The Developed Model of Analysis

Data and Analysis

Data

Data Collection and Description

The data of the work are all collected from different sites of economic news on the internet. For the sake of analysis, they are represented by six texts which are given the titles of Text 1, Text 2, etc. They have been chosen randomly from different websites where there is an icon of economic news. Each has its own title. Critical modern themes concerning economic news have been chosen like: The dollar reaches its highest price, Technology and corruption in India, The state of economy at present time and so on. The links of accessing these news are also written for reference with the date of retrieval. They are basically written pieces of economic news. Their length varies from two pages to one or less. They are prepared by special economic reporters working for these economic sites to cover issues from up to date modern vital recent economic events.

Analysis

Methods of Analysis

As mentioned above, the model which has been suggested by this study, represented by Figure (1), is the basic apparatus for analyzing the data of this work. Besides, a statistical analysis conducted by means of the percentage equation is used for calculating the findings of analysis and quantitatively endorsing the findings of the former analysis. The instances analysed are underlined by the researchers to highlight them.

Pragmatic Analysis

Personification

This subtype of ontological metaphors views the abstract concept as having human characteristics. In Text (1), the following example shows how personification is utilized. In the sentence “The dollar became king once again”, the currency of dollar is being characterized as a king having the features of a master person who rules others. The dollar masters the movements of markets as having the highest price among other currencies. The comparison then lies in two points: it is a master and ruler as the king ruling his kingdom and it is valuable and highly appreciated as a king. In this type of personification, a human quality is being bestowed to the inanimate object: the dollar. Another example is from Text (2). It reads: “The city’s old redbrick smokestacks tell the story of its 19th Century industrial past”. The smokestacks or chimneys of the city is featured as a human being who tells the story of the glory of the city in the past. These old smokestacks are like an old man or woman telling how this city was prosperous by its trade of phones. This personification explains the type of human actions category. The imagery is more effective as such. From Text (2), the following sentence : “There's little sign that this quiet backwater once gave its name to the company” may illustrate the third category of metaphoric personification. The example shows the human ability of giving as the backwater gave its name to the company.

Metonymy

To use one entity to refer to another that is related to it is a case of metonymy. Surveying the economic texts highlights these instances. In Text (3), this example: “the central bank can still ease policy” shows a case of metonymy where ‘the central bank’ refers to decision makers or those responsible people in this bank. This example is a conventional metaphoric use

of metonymy. Text (5) gives this sentence: “China surprised the world”. Here, China means the people of China or the official authorities in China who surprised the whole world by announcing that nearly two million coal and steel workers will lose their jobs. In Text (3), the sentence “but businesses are not that keen to borrow while the economy remains slack” clarifies the metonymy of the whole- part relation category where the word “businesses” refers to the whole kinds of businesses in the country. Text (1) gives this example on antonomasia metonymy where the word “Australia”, for instance, is the proper name that refers to the state of the markets and the goods in these markets which are cheap. The sentence reads: “I also noticed this as I traveled where countries like Australia, Canada, Singapore, and the UK were suddenly ‘cheap’”. Australia or Canada or Singapore here as a country are not cheap, their goods or services in the markets are the cheap objects.

Hyperbole

Hyperbole is an extravagant statement or a figure of speech that is not to be understood literally; it is a metaphoric use of language. An example can be explained from Text (6). It reads: “Internet payments are the blood of the economy”. In this sentence, internet payments are compared to blood of economy which is also another metaphor that economy is just like a human being with blood circulating inside this body. This use is hyperbolic in the sense that these payments exaggeratedly seen as the basic component as far as economy is concerned while other kinds of payments and economic transactions can be available. Another example from the same text claims that “Money is the blood of economy”. It is true that money is the backbone of economy, but other factors are also required such as human resources, raw materials, working staffs and marketing, among others. This metaphor is hyperbolically construed as a body would die not only by the disappearance of blood. Economy as well would stop by the disappearance of money. These above two instances are representative cases for the impossible description category of hyperbole. No instance of hyperbolic numbers or quantities have been found in the data as these items of news are scientific and real representations of the states of economy in the world. Numbers are supposed to be very accurate in these kinds of news as it is important to reveal truth to businessmen and tradesmen.

Simile

Similes are explicit metaphors in the sense that a word like ‘as’ or ‘like’ is used to convey the comparison. Text (4) demonstrates such a use. The example is: “world economy is like the Titanic”. Here, economy is frankly compared to the ship named Titanic which sank several years ago due to unseen iceberg. The writer is saying that the world economy is about to sink. The same text introduces another example as follows: “the world economy is like an ocean liner that lacks lifeboat”. In this sentence economy is just like the ocean liner with no lifeboats or no alternative choices to be rescued. The two examples here are of the “like” category of simile. The “as” type is probable as well, yet it happens that it is not available in the data under scrutiny.

Idiomatic Expressions

This paper expounds that any expression that is not literally understood as metaphoric and thus as one kind of ontological metaphor. Extra knowledge is required to grasp the intended meaning. Few instances are realized in the data. For instance: “crystal ball” meaning “foreseeing the future” (Web source 6) from Text (1) and “gave teeth” meaning “to give something a real

effect” (Web source 7) from Text (3). The two examples above represent the fixed metaphoric use of idiomatic expressions.

Statistical Analysis

This section concerns itself with the statistical analysis of the aforementioned pragmatic analysis of types of metaphor. Table (1) demonstrates the frequency of occurrences of each type of metaphor being analyzed. It summarizes the types of ontological metaphors discussed in the previous analysis in each text and their percentages.

Table 1. Percentages of types of ontological metaphor

	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3	Text 4	Text 5	Text 6	Percentage
Personification	7	5	7	2	1	1	31.9 %
Metonymy	2	8	15	3	9	0	51.3 %
Hyperbole	1	1	0	0	0	3	9.6 %
Simile	0	0	0	2	0	0	2.7 %
Idiomatic expressions	2	0	1	0	1	1	9.6 %

Figure 2 schematizes the results revealed on Table (1) above and illustrates the percentages in all the six texts where each type of metaphor has been fetched.

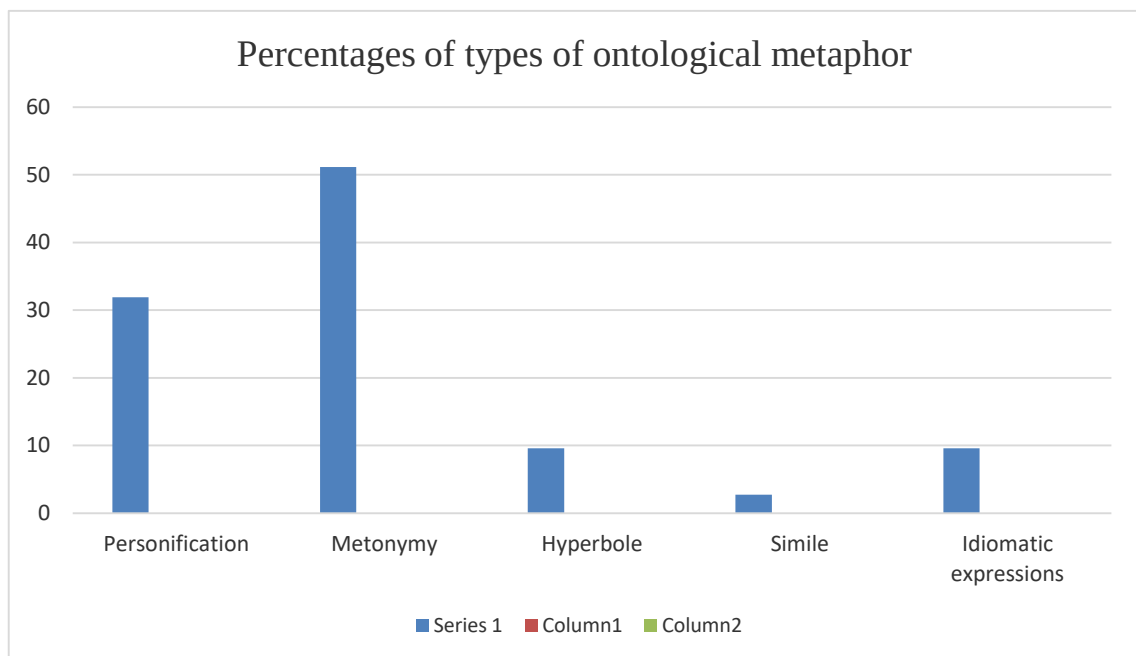


Figure 2. The percentages of metaphor types

As disclosed by the table and the figure above, the following results according to their percentages of occurrence can be identified. Metonymy metaphors rank (51.3) %; personifications are (31.9) % while hyperbolic metaphors and idiomatic expressions are (9.6) % whereas simile is (2.7) % respectively. The table and the figure speak of themselves denoting that metonymy has the highest percentage followed by personification. This verifies the second hypothesis which is set in the introduction to this study. Besides, figuring out five types of metaphors in the texts chosen for the analysis vindicates the first hypothesis of the study.

Conclusions

On the basis of the findings of the analysis, this study has come up with the following:

1. Metaphor is one important example of economic rhetoric and it is an essential device to economic thinking including the most formal kind of economic thinking. Economic news reports enjoy metaphors which show how the concrete concepts can be made use of in understanding the abstract concepts. Metaphor with its other subtypes have a strong claim to being economy's most productive linguistic factory. Different types of metaphor has been conceived which denotes the fact that economic news writers endeavor to break the rigidity of such kind of news by the coloring of metaphoricity
2. The high percentages of metaphorical uses of metonymy can be attributed to the fact that if one entity can be expressed in terms of another, it is economic to refer to one entity denoting a whole system.
3. As for the high rate of personification metaphors, one may explain the strong connection between economy and its effect on the life of human beings, their prosperity, jobs, businesses and activities. It is a vital part of their daily concerns. Economy represents human beings and every aspect related to them. For economical purposes, writers of news reports may prefer the use of personification. Instead of writing: "the people responsible for Nokia company or the owners of this company intends to do so and so", journalists write "Nokia intends to do so and so". It is all economy.
4. Since economic news reports are characterized by being scientific, hyperbolic uses are low and limited. Accuracy tolerates limited not high percentages of hyperboles.

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Appendix A (The Economic News Reports)

Text 1: Accessed from (<https://www.sovereignman.com/trends/four-signs-the-dollar-hit-its-peak-in-january-18846/>), accessed at March 14, 2016

Title: Four signs the dollar hit its peak in January

Maybe it's greed, or fear or blatant irrationality. But there's something inside human nature that makes us think unsustainable situations can last forever. One of those has been the meteoric rise of the US dollar, particularly over the last year. The dollar became king once again in 2015, towering over oil prices, gold prices, and just about every other currency on the planet: The South African rand, the Colombian peso, the Canadian dollar, the Australian dollar, the Singapore dollar, the euro, the pound. Each of these has reached a multi-year, multi-decade, or even all-time low against the US dollar within the last several months. This, clearly, is not sustainable. As I've written several times in this letter, the dollar has become the most overvalued currency in the world. I gave an example last summer of a round-the-world airline ticket, which when priced in US dollars cost about \$14,164.60. The exact same ticket, when priced in South African rand was 81,395 rand, which back then was just barely over \$6,000.

It's such an amazing difference—the exact same ticket costs over twice as much when priced in US dollars... an obvious sign that the dollar is overvalued. I also noticed this as I traveled where countries like Australia, Canada, Singapore, and the UK were suddenly “cheap”. None of this made any sense.

It's completely absurd that the currency issued by the greatest debtor to have ever existed in the history of the world would enjoy such unsustainably false strength. For anyone with a global view, however, this has been an amazing opportunity to buy high quality foreign assets at a steep discount.

We've talked about places like Colombia for years, where beautiful properties can be picked up for far less than the cost of construction. With the US dollar's dramatic overvaluation against the Colombian peso, these properties are even cheaper. We're seeing similar phenomenon all over the world in stocks, property, and private businesses. But looking at the data, it appears that this dollar bubble may have started to burst, or at least peaked, in January. I've noticed four clear signs that indicate this. Over the last 60 days, most currencies around the world, from the Chilean peso to the Singapore dollar, to the Australian dollar have surged against the US dollar. Oil prices are up, and gold is having its best year since 1980. Emerging markets, which have been in the dumps for more than a year, have roared back; the MSCI Emerging Market Index is up roughly 15% since January. No one has a crystal ball, and it's certainly possible that there will be another surge back in to the US dollar for a short time. But this recent dollar weakness is

a clear reminder that what goes up must come down. Don't be too concerned if you missed the top. There's still an incredible amount of opportunity out there to buy cheap, high quality foreign assets. I just acquired a business in Australia in a deal that took way too long to complete; over the last few months the Australian dollar climbed from 70 cents to 75 cents. This cost me an extra \$300,000. But even at 75 cents, the business was still a huge bargain in US dollar terms; plus it's still well-below the long-term average for the Australian dollar. It's the same all over the world; currencies everywhere are starting to appreciate, particularly in rapidly developing countries. Don't miss it this time. There's still a tremendous opportunity to make money. Even with a smaller amount of savings, you can use this dollar bubble to your advantage by investing in corners of the world where there's pockets of extraordinary value.

Text 2: Accessed from (<http://www.bbc.com/news/business-35843373>) accessed at : **21 March 2016**

Title: Can technology cut corruption in India?

In 2013 India was ranked only 94th in the Transparency International index - where first place is perceived to be the least corrupt nation. By 2015, it had moved up to 76th. So still a long way to go, but might adapting more technology be helping India to slowly clean up its act as well as its image?

Indian firms hope for single tax rate. Indian Finance Minister Arun Jaitley is due to present the nation's budget on Monday. The government hopes it will be an opportunity to pass legislation for a single goods and services tax across the country. Indian businesses want the single tax rate as it would reduce costs, particularly for shipping goods across state borders. But it has proved tough getting state governments to give up their tax-raising powers. Shilpa Kannan starts her report in the northern state of Haryana. "On the face of it, the small Finnish town of Nokia looks wholly unremarkable. A few squat blocks of flats are nestled in the winter snow, and along the heavily gridded main road is a small strip of shops, restaurants and a discount supermarket".

There's little sign that this quiet backwater once gave its name to the company that revolutionised the mobile phone industry in the late 1990s and helped turn Finland's economy into one of the most prosperous in the world. At its peak in the early 2000s, Nokia supplied 40% of the world's mobile phones, creating Finland's first globally recognized consumer brand.

At home, its impact was even greater. According to the Research Institute of the Finnish Economy, it contributed a quarter of Finland's growth between 1998 and 2007 - a period Finnish finance minister Alexander Stubb calls an "economic miracle". But as quickly as it emerged, Nokia's dominance of the mobile phone market came crashing down, hitting Finland's economy hard and coinciding with the longest recession in the country's history. "Nokia was huge in Finland by all indicators, and when that was scaled down we were horrified about the possible consequences," says Kari Kankaala, director of economic and urban development for the city of Tampere.

Tampere is about 15 minutes down the road from the town of Nokia, and the site of the company's biggest research and development site, at its peak employing 4,000 high-tech, skilled workers. The city's old redbrick smokestacks tell the story of its 19th Century industrial past, but the rise and fall of Nokia's mobile phone business has dominated its more recent history.

"It was the backbone of everything here," says Mr Kankaala. "The universities relied on collaboration with Nokia, the subcontractors depended on Nokia, the kids relied on being employed by Nokia." "Now we have an horrendous unemployment situation of the order of 14-15%." Other high-tech firms have since moved in to fill the void. And Nokia's separate networks business, focusing on telecoms infrastructure, remains a successful Finnish enterprise. But a wider economic malaise in Finland means fewer people are hiring now. Is Finland the sick man of Europe?

In Tampere former Nokia employees still ponder how the company went from world leader in mobile phones as recently as 2007 to the struggling takeover target for Microsoft in 2014.

"I think one of the high points was when we had shrunk the mobile phones smaller than Motorola," says Mika Grundstrom, a former senior manager at Nokia's R&D site in Tampere. "That was around 1997-1998. It was kind of an engineering dream." For Mika the brief in the early days was simple - make the phone with the best battery life in the smallest case possible.

But then all that changed with the rise of the smartphone, and in particular the launch of Apple's iPhone in 2007. "Things became much more complex. We were not so sure anymore what we should actually target. Is it ease of use, is it battery life, is it size?" he says. "If you think about the battery life - we had devices that could last for a week. Then you have this new device, it's excellent but you need to charge it every day. Ok so how do you actually sell that to the customer?"

Nokia played catch-up in the smartphone market until 2014, when its mobile phone business was sold to Microsoft and the Nokia name was removed from its devices altogether. But despite its effective demise, many Finns say there is a positive legacy to appreciate. "Giving Nokia shares to workers made it accepted that your next door neighbour could be a millionaire," says Kari Kankaala. He says Nokia's biggest impact was to revolutionise Finland's business culture.

Text 3 : Accessed from (<http://www.economist.com/news/finance-and-economics/21637422-ecb-might-unleash-its-long-awaited-programme-early-2015-coming-soon>), accessed at Jan 3rd 2015

Title: The ECB might unleash its long-awaited programme in early 2015

AS 2014 drew to a close, the European Central Bank (ECB) signaled an increasing readiness to pursue a big programme of quantitative easing (QE)—creating money to buy financial assets—in order to lift worryingly low inflation. Such an undertaking would require the purchase of sovereign bonds, an unpalatable policy in Germany, the country that in effect underwrites the single currency. Will the ECB nonetheless move from semaphore to action when its governing council meets on January 22nd?

Mario Draghi, the ECB's president, wants to crank up monetary policy because inflation remains uncomfortably lower than the bank's goal of almost 2%. The headline rate stayed below 1% throughout 2014, reaching 0.3% in November, while the core rate, which strips out food and energy prices, was just 0.7% in late 2014. The steep fall in oil prices will be a welcome for the sickly euro-zone economy. But it may have a sting in the tail if people expect lower inflation as cheaper energy pushes the headline rate into negative territory, even if only temporarily. A

prolonged spell of “lowflation” is bad for the euro area because many of its member states are weighed down by excessive public and private debt. If outright deflation were to take grip, it would harm borrowers: when prices fall, the real burden of debt, which is generally fixed in nominal terms, increases. But even if lowflation were merely to persist, this would also hurt them since the incomes that service their debt are rising more slowly than they expected when they took out the loans. The ECB can no longer help by cutting interest rates: it lowered its main lending rate in September to just 0.05% while charging banks on deposits they leave with it, through a negative rate of 0.2%. But the central bank can still ease policy by expanding the size of its own balance-sheet, which it intends returning to the high of €3 trillion (\$3.7 trillion) that it reached in early 2012. That amounts to an extra €1 trillion, though no date has been specified for accomplishing the increase. The previous peak occurred as the ECB averted a funding crisis for banks by providing them with €1 trillion in three-year loans in the winter of 2011-12. Since then its balance-sheet has been waning as banks in northern Europe repaid the money early. The ECB had hoped to reverse this shrinkage through another, more extended round of long-term funding operations, providing liquidity until 2018 at a fixed rate of just 0.15% a year. However, the first two of eight tenders have been a disappointment. In September and December, banks borrowed only €212 billion, little more than half the €400 billion available.

The take-up was low for reasons that seem likely to persist in the next two tenders in the first half of 2015 and probably subsequent ones, too. Though banks in southern Europe are still thirsty for central-bank funding, their northern counterparts can fend for themselves in the markets. The aim of the operations is to provide funding for lending to the private sector, but businesses are not that keen to borrow while the economy remains slack.

Although the tenders will continue until June 2016, it seems clear that the ECB cannot rely upon banks to expand its balance-sheet. The only certain method to raise it is through QE. Mindful of German objections to purchasing sovereign debt, the ECB has already started down this path by buying two kinds of private-sector assets in late 2014: covered bonds (debt issued by banks that is backed by safe loans) and asset-backed securities. But neither type is big enough for such purchases to have much traction. By late December, the ECB had bought just over €30 billion, overwhelmingly in covered bonds; if sustained, this might add up to €200 billion to the ECB's balance-sheet by the end of 2015.

Another form of private asset that the bank could purchase is corporate bonds, but the ECB would be hard-pressed to buy more than around €100 billion a year, still leaving it a long way from its goal. The only sure way to raise its balance-sheet by €1 trillion over a realistic horizon is to buy public debt, the only asset class big enough for purchases on an industrial scale. Sovereign bonds that are eligible for banks to use as collateral against their borrowing from the ECB amounted to €6.6 trillion in the third quarter of 2014. There is ample precedent, too: purchasing public debt is the main way that QE has been conducted in America, Britain and Japan.

The ECB is permitted to buy sovereign bonds in secondary markets. But unlike other central banks it lacks a state. The credit ratings of the countries in the euro area vary from AAA in Germany to junk in Greece. Buying Greek debt would expose the central bank to potential losses if Greek politics sour further. Jens Weidmann, head of the German Bundesbank, frets about anything that might mean the ECB straying into forbidden fiscal territory. A majority of the 25-strong council (which will share 21 votes under a complex system of voting rotation that starts in

2015 following Lithuania's accession) would back Mr. Draghi in moving to QE, but such a controversial policy might backfire if it does not command sufficient support.

Concerns about the legitimacy of QE may be allayed by an opinion from a senior legal official of the European Court of Justice on January 14th about the legality of the bond-buying commitment that gave teeth to Mr Draghi's pledge in July 2012 to do "whatever it takes" to save the euro. Some analysts think that may be sufficient for the ECB council to press the QE button later this month. Alternatively it may wait until its second meeting of 2015, in March, especially if this gives Mr Draghi an opportunity to peel away German allies. Any announcement of a sovereign-debt-buying programme is unlikely to go beyond €500 billion. Whether that will be sufficient to drag the euro area out of its sorry state of sluggish growth and lowflation is another matter.

Text 4: Accessed from (<http://speisa.com/modules/articles/index.php/item.1385/hsbc-the-world-economy-is-like-the-titanic.html>), accessed at March 2016

Title: "The world economy is like the Titanic"

The world economy is on its way towards an iceberg, and central banks are out of ammunition, says the banking giant HSBC's pessimistic chief and economist Stephen King. In a 17 pages long gloomy report, King writes that "the world economy is like an ocean liner that lacks lifeboats." The lifeboats which usually can be launched in crises are already exhausted. High government debt leaves little room for government stimulus packages and central banks have expended all ammunition when interest rates already are around zero. King sees a vulnerable world economy which could collapse in four ways. The first way is that wages increases and can get the stock market to crash. Wage growth is low in both Europe and the US but if it grows a lot, it may turn corporate earnings and subsequently the inflated stock market to collapse.

The next way is that insurance companies and pension funds are overloaded. Some big pension funds in the US in particular will have difficulty living up to its commitments in the coming 10 years. It could lead to a dumping of assets in search of cash. The third way is that China's economy abruptly stops growing. The world's second largest economy is growing at its slowest pace in six years. If the slowdown continues, commodity prices will collapse and the global economy collapses with it. And the fourth way is that central banks, and especially the Federal Reserve, may raise interest rates too early. FED, with Janet Yellen in the lead, was previously expected to begin a slow rate increase in June but is now believed to postpone the announcement. Stephen King often returns to the comparison with the Titanic in the report: "We will continue to sail across the sea in a ship that has a serious lack of lifeboats. Many, including Titanic's owners, believed that the ship was unsinkable. The ship constructor, however, was quick to point out that "She is made of iron, sir. I assure you that she can sink."

Text 5: Accessed from (http://money.cnn.com/2016/03/01/investing/china-economy-stocks/index.html?iid=SF_LN), accessed at 20 March 2016

Title: The world's No. 1 Economy

China's economy is getting sicker, but investors around the world no longer seem to care. Despite a slew of "decisively poor" signals from China in recent days, stocks in the U.S. and Europe are rallying. The Dow is surging over 300 points on Tuesday alone. Fears of a massive

global recession have melted. The reason? The world's No. 1 economy is powering ahead. "What has happened recently is U.S. economic fundamentals have improved," says Liz Ann Sonders, chief investment strategist at Schwab. Investors are once again "paying attention to U.S. fundamentals instead of every tick in the China data." Not only is the U.S. looking better, oil prices have been rising too.

Still, not everyone is convinced that ignoring the latest from China is a wise move. Just ask Michael Block, chief strategist at Rhino Trading Partners. He calls all this market optimism in recent days "wrong tree, wrong forest, wrong... everything." China's manufacturing sector is in terrible shape. It's been in recession for at least seven months. And just this week, China surprised the world by announcing that nearly 2 million coal and steel workers will lose their jobs. China is supposed to be undergoing a huge transition from an economy that makes stuff to one that buys stuff. But the Chinese "service sector" -- which includes industries such as retail, real estate, health care and professional services -- isn't looking that great either. It just hit a four-year low, another blow to growth. The 'worst case scenario' is already priced in : No one knows just how bad the slowdown in China is, but most people agree its economy isn't growing at 6.9% as the ruling Communist Party claims. The fact that the Chinese central bank just tried to inject even more juice into the economy is yet another sign that policymakers in Beijing are worried. In January, news like this would have caused a massive selloff in U.S. and European markets.

But the "worst case scenario" for China may already be priced in. "You've seen a crash in the correlation" between Chinese and U.S. markets, says Sonders at Schwab. "We're getting close to NO correlation between the two. "China is pumping money into its economy".

The other reason China has become less of a concern is the belief that the Communist Party will step in should things deteriorate further. In recent weeks, China has boldly fired its chief market regulator after a series of policy missteps and tried to reassure other world leaders at the G20 that there will be no more surprise devaluations of the Chinese yuan. On top of all that, China has a stockpile of cash. Yes, it's been shrinking in recent months, but it's still huge. "I would be more concerned if China didn't have the reserves they have," says Sharon Stark, chief fixed income strategist at D.A. Davidson. This weekend China's premier Li Keqiang will present the budget at the National People's Congress. Many expect the government to boost spending to prop up the economy.

Text 6: Accessed from (<https://payneteasy.com/internet-platezhi-krov-sovremennoy-ekonomiki.html>)

Title: Internet Payments are Blood of Modern Economy

Credit and debit cards have long become an easy and conventional method to pay for products and services. After experiencing e-payment processing, both buyers and sellers got used to simply trust it and not to think of its origins, economic value and operating principle. It was not long ago that holding money in form of a digital code on a plastic card rather than in cash inside your wallet seemed risky and unreliable. In nowadays world, e-payments have become so casual, that cards are now accepted almost anywhere: in small shops and supermarkets, cafes and restaurants, taxis, not even mentioning payments for online purchases. So what's next? How can one predict the course of monetary evolution in the future?

Actually, if you remember the history of development of goods/money relationship and analyze its reasons and moving forces, you can make a pretty accurate forecast of the future of online payments. Scottish economist Adam Smith, one of the founders of classical economic theory, explained the mechanism of market economy and money functioning back in XVIII century . Adam Smith in a short phrase gave the most precise and complete definition of the function of money: “Money are the blood of the economy”, and today it’s as true as ever. While in the past metal and paper money vitalized economy ensuring the flow of goods, today their digital equivalent – online payments – allow businesses to exist and grow rapidly. Therefore in today’s reality, Adam Smith’s quote shall sound as follows: “Internet Payments are the blood of the economy”. Internet payments not only make buyers’ lives easier but also significantly speed up economic turnover and growth in global scale. There’s no question that the future belongs to this method of payment, because according to Smith’s theory, market economy always chooses the most profitable solution.

Identifying the Uncanny Phenomena in Educational Practice

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Abstract:

One could argue that Jentsch's (1906) essay, on "The Psychology of the Uncanny," was a precursory step toward structuralism. His ideas on alienation, revolution, and repetition inspired and were incorporated into the respective works and disciplines pursued by Freud, Marx, Nietzsche, Heidegger, Wittgenstein, and Derrida. Despite the uncanny's impact on and applicability to these respective areas, this theory has not yet been evaluated or vetted for its relevance to the modern conditions of globalization that impact student learning, in particular, those students whose immigrant, minority, or socioeconomic status posit them on the periphery of their respective dominant educational systems. Therefore, this paper's purpose is to identify and examine the history and theory of the uncanny, to define the alienation experience of its patrons, to explore the impact and effect on their cognitive development, and to suggest the need to recognize the uncanny experience as a legitimate threat to multiculturally responsive teaching - an issue that requires addressment as well as educational and praxis reform.

Keywords: educational system, educational reform, multicultural responsive teaching, uncanny, uncanny valley theory

Identifying the Uncanny Phenomena in Educational Practice

In 1906, the German psychiatrist Dr. Ernst Anton Jentsch published an essay titled “*Zur Psychologie des Umheimlichen*” or “The Psychology of the Uncanny.” In it, Jentsch introduces and explores the formation and significance of the word *unheimlich*, which represents a novel product of the German language’s ability to marry together two previously unassociated words, thereby generating a new word and by simultaneous default, a new concept otherwise previously unimagined.

Introduction

According to Jentsch (1906), this new German word “*unheimlich*” represents the antithesis of a previously well-established German word “*Heimlich*” [“homely”], or “*heimisch*” [“native”], effectively emphasizing the opposite of all that was considered familiar; thereby driving the reader, participant, or protagonist to the conclusion that those items, experiences, or people that are thus perceived as *unheimlich* or unhomely /uncanny and therefore must be simultaneously frightening precisely because they are unknown or unfamiliar. Jentsch (1906) extends this reasoning by qualifying that:

this word appears to express that someone to whom something uncanny happens is not quite at home or at ease in the situation concerned, that the thing is or at least seems to be foreign to him. In brief, the word suggests that a lack of orientation is bound up with the impression of the uncanniness of a thing or incident (p. 2).

In most cases, Jentsch (1906) claims the “usual and the hereditary is dear and familiar to most people, and they incorporate the new and the unusual with mistrust, unease and even hostility (misoneism),” leading to a sense that those items that are new and unfamiliar are also frightening and dangerous (p. 3).

This “uncanny phenomenon,” a term and experience that Jentsch identifies and that most people experience, can be readily explained when one considers the difficulty that most people have in establishing quickly and completely a conceptual connection with that new object, experience, or person in relation to their own particular ideational spheres. In other words, it alludes to the facility with which people can and do establish intellectual mastery over the new item or experience. Of course, one also must recognize simultaneously that the relationship is not capable of inversion, and therefore, they also must acknowledge that the same impression or experience does not necessarily exert an uncanny effect on everybody because individual background experiences are broadly diverse, allowing one person’s previous experiences to make more readily familiar those same items that are unfamiliar or uncanny to another person.

Furthermore, one also must understand that the same perception on the part of the same individual does not necessarily develop into the uncanny every time or at least not in the same way, which can lead to a quandary of understanding of what the uncanny truly encapsulates and how the term is and should be appropriately and accurately applied.

In other words, the crux of the uncanny, as Jentsch argues, is that the brain is often reluctant to overcome the resistance required for the assimilation of the uncanny phenomenon and the subsequent allocation, incorporation, or investment into one’s intellectual or emotional

memory vaults-unlike those other items, concepts, or people that have long been familiar and are typically welcomed straightforwardly and unreservedly. It is these new and unfamiliar or “unhomely” items or experiences, as well as those individuals who are deliberately removed from their traditional placement or perspectives, because the power of understanding is accustomed to and related to the power of the habitual, that incorporate and form the essence of these feelings of uncertainty or uncanniness. Curiously, Jentsch (1906) tells us that the feelings of uncertainty more frequently make their presence felt “in those who are more intellectually discriminating when they perceive daily phenomena and that this may play an important role in the origin of the drive to knowledge and research” (p. 4). It is the uncanny’s impact on the “drive to knowledge” and its potential affect on global multiculturally responsive teaching and pedagogical reform as it relates to immigrant, minority, and subordinate-culture children that motivates the interest and concern for this issue.

As children typically have little holistic life experience, and those from minority or subordinate cultures typically have even less, what is often considered to be a simple thing or a minor change from the perspective of an adult, particularly one who hails from the dominant socioeconomic or cultural group, often is viewed and experienced as inexplicable or terrifying to children. Therefore, even slightly complicated or new situations can represent potentially sinister threats, triggering feelings of anxiety and physical and intellectual uncertainty. Jentsch asserts that this lack of broad life experience is why children can and often do present so fearful and apprehensive in new situations, and he contends that bright children are often the most fearful because they are typically clearer, or more astute, “about the boundaries of their own orientational abilities than more limited children are” (Jentsch, 1906, p. 5).

Of the multitude of physical and psychological uncertainties that can trigger feelings of uncanniness the item that Jentsch names as most powerful, and that which may most commonly trigger or create feelings of uncanniness in the children of immigrant, minority, or “othered” subordinate groups in dominant culturally geared academic environments is what Jentsch describes as an underlying fear or “doubt as to whether an apparently living being really is animate, and, conversely, doubt as to whether a lifeless object may not in fact be animate” (Jentsch, 1906, p. 8). It is this aspect of the uncanny phenomena theory that provides the foundation and crux of the argument that motivates the question about how best to reassure, humanize, or personalize faculty and learning environments that may appear uncanny to children or students from nondominant sociocultural, linguistic or economic backgrounds, subsequently improving learning and academic success rates in these immigrant, minority, and socioeconomically subordinate student groups.

When one considers that “students of color make up more than 40 percent of the school-age population, whereas in contrast teachers of color were only 17 percent of the teaching force” (Boser, 2014, p. 2), one cannot help but wonder if these feelings of uncanniness are not part of what frames the profound problems inherent in the Anglocentric North American educational system. If the data from the Center for American Progress, which identifies 40 percent of North American students as non-Anglo or “other” is accurate, then logic dictates that student psychological and emotional disassociation from the dominant, uncanny Anglo socioeconomic culture, particularly because it is one that does not represent the same safe animate “homely”

recognizable physical incorporations, manifestations, mannerisms, movements, speech patterns, etc. with which they have been and are familiar, only makes sense.

Because of these racial, sociocultural and economic discrepancies, the “real” status of the faculty, in terms of the platonic real, and as observed by the students, is continually in question. This perpetually triggers the uncanny effect or phenomena in the minds and bodies of minority or disadvantaged children-students. Jentsch (1906), argues that this mood or effect will remain interminably until these doubts are resolved and thus make way for another kind of feeling to occur. However, as Jentsch accentuates, as long as students possess doubt or question the nature of the perceived object’s movement and the obscurity of its cause, these feelings of terror or uncertainty will persist in the students concerned. What’s more, if that object or, in this case, faculty member, does indeed demonstrate that he is in possession of an organic state, then “a feeling of concern for one’s own freedom from personal harm arises, which then assumes a dominance of the situation as far as all other items or intensities are concerned” (Jentsch, 1906, p. 8).

Jentsch informs us that this fear is of particular concern for many sensitive souls, of which children should undoubtedly be included because the figure that caused the concern is able to perpetuate or maintain its unpleasant impact upon the vulnerable individual long after he has made the decision as to whether this individual is indeed animate and as such truly represents a physical or psychological threat. These concerns and doubts are then automatically and regularly renewed when one gains the courage to more closely examine the object and thus upon perceiving finer details, subsequently discovers new distinctions that reinforce an awareness of the differences that exist between the self and the other. Were this not concerning enough, the uncanny effect makes its appearance even more clearly felt when these “imitations of the human form” (Jentsch, 1906, p. 10), e.g. Anglo faculty members, not only impact one’s perception but are perceived by non-Anglo students to “appear to be united with certain bodily or mental functions” (Jentsch, 1906, p. 11) like those presented by predominately Anglo teachers in a predominately Anglocentric instructive environment.

Interestingly, not only does the possibility that an animate object is of a questionable nature give rise to the uncanny, because it creates a physical and subsequent psychological fear and uncertainty, but so too did Jentsch argue that the uncanny may be created by one’s own fantasy or imagination. This may happen when one undertakes to reinterpret some kind of lifeless object, item, or article as being part of an otherwise organic creature. In other words, it is not just the previously cited animate instructor’s actions that can give rise to the feelings of the uncanny, but so too can the physical environment evoke feelings of uncanniness, particularly when one considers the likelihood that the physical learning environment may present as “*unheimlich*” or “unhomely” as most likely would be the case for those students emerging from lower socioeconomic, minority, or subordinate cultural backgrounds whose home environments may present as substantially different from the technocentric environments that they experience at their respective dominant culture-designed learning institutions. Additionally, Jentsch believes that the people most likely to be affected by the previously cited phenomena were “women, children, and dreamers” (p. 12), particularly because he believes they possess a weaker critical sense of that which is real and present and thus possess a more prevailing “psychical background that can be actively tinged” (p. 12). This frailty, thereby, allows them the means of “conjuring up

the most detailed terrifying visions out of the most harmless and indifferent phenomena” (Jentsch, 1906, p. 12), effectively making them all the more susceptible to that which is uncanny.

Despite being more than 100 years old, Jentsch’s paternalistic belief in women and children’s susceptibility to the uncanny still enjoys popular success, thanks in great part to the perpetuation of this myth passed down through dominant androcentric cultural literature. A relatively recent and extremely pertinent visual representation of the uncanny phenomenon that Jentsch describes is portrayed in the 1989 published work, “The Teacher from the Black Lagoon,” produced by the renowned children’s literature author and animator Mike Thaler. In this short work, the young, male protagonist believes that his new teacher, Mrs. Green, is, in fact, a monstrous (read: uncanny) entity and that he almost certainly will meet an untimely and gruesome end as a result of having been assigned to her classroom. Although the denouement of the story is meant to be positive and reassuring in nature and means to assuage any student residual fears that the teacher’s eerie or uncanny characteristics are not to be feared, one could argue that it fails to consider or adequately address the fears that immigrant, minority, or subordinate groups might possess, while simultaneously perpetuating internal feelings of “otherness.” The eventual creature-to-teacher transition leads to the conclusionary emergence of a tall, shapely blond woman who, under the circumstances and based on the demographic composition of the audience, might very well still be perceived as uncanny as the original monstrous entity in the eyes of children and those other students who do not mirror or share the teacher’s physical, cultural, or linguistic manifestations. Because there exist a plethora of similarly themed Black Lagoon School-related books, one might surmise that children and their parents are already, albeit unknowingly, addressing the uncanniness present in dominant-culture designed academic learning environments, one clearly rife with terrifying experiences.

Freud and the Uncanny

If one graciously overlooks Jentsch’s previous seemingly misogynistic and paternalistic statement, one might argue that his true motivation was meant to specify that it was and remains the task of the formidable members of society to accommodate the more vulnerable members in their struggles to overcome or work through the limitations or restrictions that the uncanny phenomena generates. Jentsch makes this point effectively in the closing passage of his essay when he clarifies that “whether this working through is factual or not is of no great importance, so long as its final result is accepted by the individual” (Jentsch, 1906, p. 15). In intellectual, emotional, and psychosocial terms, he means for the person to master in one’s own fashion their imaginative field so that these moods and doubts can be resolved, allowing for another kind of feeling, experience, or dare one suggest it, learning to take place.

Although Jentsch is responsible for having identified and established inceptive parameters around the concept of the uncanny phenomenon, it was his contemporary, Dr. Sigmund Freud’s own explorative essay, “The Uncanny” published in 1919, that helped propel Jentsch’s medico-psychological piece, which Freud describes as “while rich in content, is not exhaustive” (Freud, 1919, p. 123) into its role as a legitimately studied psychosocial phenomenon. To lay the groundwork for his own study, Freud condensed Jentsch’s theory on the uncanny to its essential condition, which he identifies synoptically as “intellectual uncertainty” (Freud, 1919, p. 125). Freud argues that according to Jentsch, the uncanny is always an area “in which a person is unsure of his way around: the better oriented he was in the world around him,

the less likely he would be to find the objects and occurrences in it uncanny” (Freud, 1919, p. 125). However, based upon lexical and etymological analyses of the root of the word “*unheimlich*” and the equivalent terms identified in the Latin, Greek, English, French, and Spanish languages, Freud argues that there exists a pattern that suggests that the concept of the term “unhomely” or uncanny more accurately reflects or “applies to everything that was intended to remain secret, hidden away, and has come into the open” (Freud, 1919, p. 132), going so far as to include the Arabic and Hebrew terms in which the concept of uncanny “merges with the demonic and the gruesome” (Freud, 1919, p. 125). Thus, Freud argues that the intellectual uncertainty that fuels Jentsch’s idea of the uncanny must also include an added dimension of horror and concealment not previously considered by Jentsch.

Freud further argues that provided psychoanalytical theory was correct in asserting that “every affect arising from an emotional impulse - of whatever kind - is converted into fear by being repressed, it follows that among those things that are felt to be frightening there must be one group in which it can be shown that the frightening element is something that has been repressed and now returns” (Freud, 1919, p. 147). It was this species of the frightening that would then constitute the uncanny and that it would be unimportant or immaterial whether the item, object, or person were itself originally frightening or if it arose from another effect. In other words, Freud argues that unlike Jentsch’s original theory of the uncanny, based solely upon intellectual uncertainty, his more accurate assessment of the uncanny suggests that it is not just limited to something new or strange but rather also includes an element of something that has long been familiar to the psyche but is estranged from it only through being repressed. This Freudian uncanny effect “arises when the boundary between fantasy and reality is blurred, when we are faced with the reality of something that we have until now considered imaginary, when a symbol takes on the full function and significance of what it symbolizes” (Freud, 1919, p. 150). As a result, and perhaps most importantly when that which was once familiar or (homely) assumes the negative prefix *un*, such as in “*unheimlich*,” it thereby simultaneously becomes the indicator and semantic structuralist symbol of oppression.

In possession of this newly refined definition of the uncanny, Freud posits that those uncanny elements that we know from previous experiences arise either when “repressed childhood complexes are revived by some impression, or when primitive beliefs that have been surmounted appear to be once again confirmed” (Freud, 1919, p. 155). This sense of the uncanny arises when there is a conflict of judgment as to whether those items have been successfully surmounted and merit no further credence and thus may not after all be possible in real life, which in regard to threats such as solitude, silence, darkness, and the questionable animate versus inanimate reality suggest that the genesis of the uncanny exists in infantile or evolutionary anxieties, which Freud believes is “something that most of us never wholly overcome” (Freud, 1919, p. 159). Because fully overcoming these intrinsic and seemingly infantile evolutionary impulses is highly improbable, we might be better served if we consider the possibility that these same tools that once ensured our primitive ancestors’ survival might not now inhibit or limit our current abilities to incorporate or assimilate new experiences, information, or people that appear threatening or antithetical to our antiquated biological survival programming systems.

The Uncanny Valley Theory

One theory, which bridges this auto-involuntary conflict with the earlier works of Jentsch and Freud, is the uncanny valley theory, introduced in 1970 by the robotics professor Masahiro Mori in an article titled “Bukimi no Tani Genshō,” which translates to “The Uncanny Valley.” In this article (1970), Mori argues that as a robot’s appearance becomes more human, it will appear more familiar or (homely) until a point is reached at which the subtle imperfections in appearance or action make them appear eerie or uncanny. Mori claims that when this tipping point is reached, the observer’s response quickly becomes one of strong revulsion. However, as the appearance continues to become more humanlike, minus the earlier imperfections, and less distinguishable from real human beings, the psycho-emotional response of the observers will again become increasingly positive and will approach a normal human-to-human empathy level. This uncanny-valley phenomena motivated Mori to contend that when robotic features look and move almost, but not exactly like natural beings, it not only triggers an evolutionary revulsion or rejection response but that this response can be mapped on a graph with a representative dip that demonstrates a divergence in the observer’s comfort level. This dip or valley suggests that there exists at that point in the encounter a cognitive disassociation or dissonance from both the uncanny entity as well as from the encounter itself.

Mori’s discovery and data seem to align with professor Festinger’s (1957) cognitive dissonance theory, which identifies “the existence of nonfitting relations among cognitions” (p. 5). Specifically, Festinger claims that in human beings, there exists a powerful motive to maintain a cognitive consistency and that a divergence can give rise to irrational and sometimes maladaptive behavior. Festinger further argues that any situation, which might involve conflicting attitudes, beliefs or behaviors would lead to an altering of these items to reduce said cognitive discomfort and thus restore balance. Mori’s subsequent work with humanoid robotic figures proved supportive of Festinger’s earlier theory when the data demonstrated that as a more natural likeness or humanistic representation became available, the observer’s comfort level returned to a more normal state. This, in turn, reinforced Festinger’s theory that human beings possess an involuntary and likely evolutionary intrinsic need for aesthetic acceptability when presented with new animate or pseudo-animate objects.

The question then becomes what galvanizes this underlying need for aesthetic acceptability? Although a number of theories have been proposed to explain the cognitive mechanism underlying Festinger’s cognitive dissonance theory and Mori’s uncanny-valley phenomenon, for the purposes of this essay, one must consider and limit oneself to an examination of only those theories that best address and potentially impact the learning environment and by extension the pedagogical practices that one hopes to improve upon. Of primary importance to the uncanny-valley theory is the idea that these uncanny encounters may identify a subconscious violation of human norms. It is argued that the uncanny valley might, in fact, be “symptomatic of entities that elicit a model of a human other but do not measure up to it” (MacDorman & Ishiguro, 2006, p. 1).

If, as Mori suggests, an animate/inanimate entity (read: teacher) appears to be sufficiently nonhuman, then its functional human characteristics will be observed and associated while it simultaneously generates a sense of pathos from the observer. If, however, that entity appears almost human, it will trigger the normative expectations of the human “other,” and at that point,

its nonhuman characteristics will be discerned, giving rise to the sense of strangeness or uncanniness. In other words, an entity, object, or person can or might become stuck inside the uncanny valley and is then judged as either an object trying to pass as a human being and doing a poor job of it, or instead is observed and judged as a human being possessing some sort of unnatural or uncanny characteristic, which causes a nonfitting cognitive relationship to occur. This triggers a perceptual and existential uncertainty as well as predictive coding errors, i.e., a mismatch between a prior expectation and reality in the observer. These, in turn, generate and perpetuate instances of cognitive dissonance to occur.

Another possible trigger for the uncanny-valley effect to occur is one that professor Roberts (2012) identifies and attributes to applied evolutionary psychology. He postulated in 2012 that uncanny situations or encounters may activate a cognitive and/or evolutionary mechanism that evolved to protect humans from potential pathogens by generating an uncanny or disgust/repugnance response. Roberts (2012) writes, "The more human an organism looks, the stronger the aversion to its defects, because (1) defects indicate disease, (2) more human-looking organisms are more closely related to human beings genetically, and (3) the probability of contracting disease-causing bacteria, viruses, and other parasites increases with genetic similarity" (p. 155). These responses, he argues, were precipitated by conflicting perceptual cues, which occur when an individual perceives antipathetical cues to category membership such as irregular or unusual movement or possession of some other unusual visible features. He also posits that this cognitive conflict or dissonance would manifest as psychological discomfort or uncanniness and thus concurred with the cognitive dip that Mori had previously identified as the uncanny valley.

Roberts and Mori are not alone in their consideration and evaluation of the importance of understanding the impact of the uncanny valley and its accompanying cognitive dissonance. Subsequent studies support their earlier observations and findings, and one study in 2015 by Mathur and Reichling, "Navigating a Social World with Robot Partners," even found that the time that subjects took to gauge a robot face's human-or mechanical resemblance peaked for faces deepest in the uncanny valley, suggesting that perceptually classifying these faces as "human" or "robot" posed a greater cognitive challenge. While the findings suggest that perceptual confusion coincided with the uncanny valley, they did not fully offset the effects of the uncanny valley, suggesting that perceptual confusion alone is not the sole mechanism at work behind the uncanny-valley effect and that the uncanny experience that leads to it is not merely one of strangeness or alienation.

Instead, as professor Royle, (2003) at the University of Sussex argues, it includes an internal "crisis of the proper; it entails a critical disturbance of what is proper (from the Latin *proprius*, 'own'), a disturbance of the very idea of personal or private property, including the properness of proper names, one's so-called 'own' name, but also the proper names of others, of places, institutions and events" (p. 1). Royle further extrapolated these concepts in his book "The Uncanny" published in 2003, informing readers that "the uncanny has to do with a strangeness of framing and borders, an experience of liminality [from the Latin word "*līmen*," meaning "a threshold"]. It may be that the uncanny is a feeling that occurs only to oneself, within oneself, but is never one's own. It may thus be construed as a foreign body within oneself, even the

experience of oneself as a foreign body, the very estrangement of inner silence and solitude” (Royle, 2003, p. 2).

Based on the previously cited data, one could then argue that this estrangement from self, as well as that from the perceived unnatural animated “other” and its subsequent uncanny-valley cognitive dissonance effect, must also by sociolinguistic necessity and default be intertwined with language. If, as Chomsky claims, there can be no self and no identity without language, and if identity, which is a recognized and significant part of educational success, is undermined by the effects of the uncanny and the uncanny valley, then by necessity because of the impact on society at large, this phenomena must become a focus area in the arenas of pedagogy, pedagogical reform, and culturally responsive teaching, just as it has been relevant as a focus area since the mid-19th century in the fields of critical, literary, philosophical, and political reflection.

Discussion

Marx, Nietzsche, Heidegger, Wittgenstein, and Derrida recognize that everything that has to do with notions of alienation, revolution, and repetition trace back to the original Jentsch essay “*das Unheimlich*.” Despite these men’s consideration and incorporation of the uncanny into their respective fields, there does not appear to exist any literature that addresses the uncanny or the uncanny-valley effect (UVE), including its role, application, and implication on 19th- century educational and pedagogical policy, nor and perhaps more importantly, its potential impact, and relevance on 21st- century global education.

To bring the uncanny and the UVE phenomena into pedagogical relevance successfully, one might first consider conflating Jentsch’s and Freud’s theories of the uncanny with that concept of the “other”, i.e., cultural misrepresentation and its impact, initially posited by Said (1978) in his text *Orientalism*. When these ideas are juxtaposed, one recognizes that they seem to function as mirror images: one construct identifying and deconstructing uncanniness in terms of one’s internal gaze and personal disassociation from the dominant culture paradigm, while the other construct identifies and deconstructs uncanniness and “othering” in terms of external gaze and disassociation from the dominant culture paradigm. Both constructs address issues that significantly impact or inhibit successful learning by students, who by dint of these phenomena exist on the periphery of their respective dominant sociocultural, economic, or linguistic groups. Although Jentsch, Freud, and Said imagined and introduced these concepts, none of these men seem to have presupposed that these theories might someday prove pivotal when applied to future globalized pedagogical theory, or as is increasingly *de rigueur*, improving culturally responsive teaching methods.

One person who has considered the possible implications and impact of the uncanny on an increasingly mobile and globalized world, albeit thus far limited solely to the world of architecture and environmental space, is Anthony Vidler, Dean of the Irwin S. Chanin School of Architecture at The Cooper Union, New York, and author of “Essays in the Modern Unhomely.” Vidler (1992) recognizes in his writing that the uncanny and its effects have become “inextricably bound up with thoughts of home and dispossession, the homely and unhomely, property and alienation, through these, the uncanny becomes a metaphor for a fundamentally unlivable modern condition.” Vidler further emphasized that “Estrangement and unhomeliness

have emerged as the intellectual watchwords of the [twentieth] century, given periodic material and political force by the resurgence of homelessness generated sometimes by war, sometimes by unequal distribution of wealth” (Vidler, 1992, p. 9).

Although Vidler’s awareness and writing about of the uncanny and its effect on livable and unlivable space is both fascinating and substantive, it does not adequately address the impact that changing geopolitical, socioeconomic, and cultural conflict, within which the uncanny is encapsulated, has on the learning and assimilation process of students who are suffering from this uncanniness or who are “othered” as a direct result of those variables that Vidler identifies.

Because there is arguably little chance that the intracultural and intercultural disparities that fuel these aforementioned estrangement and unhomeliness-causing global conflicts will decrease in occurrence, one can reasonably anticipate based upon current global patterns that North American and European demographics will continue to become increasingly diverse. In the same vein, it is likely that this increase in immigration and diversity will fuel increased domestic conflicts as these new arrivals, made up predominately of previously colonized peoples who suffered generations of restrictive economic and cultural policies meant to perpetuate and superimpose Western might and thought upon the Saidian “other,” arrive in the so-called modern world only to discover that the uncanny, the UVE, and their “otherness” stymies or inhibits their acceptance by the dominant group, while simultaneously inhibiting their children’s future assimilation into the dominant culture and adoption of its value systems.

Although current generations of North Americans and Europeans may not be directly aware of nor are they responsible for the genesis of these problems, they and their progeny will be better served if and when they recognize that the inherent Western practice of forced imposition of the foreign dominant body on the self, as well as the expected adoption of subjugation and subordination of the anima proper, only further exacerbates and disenfranchises minorities, newly arrived immigrants, and those socioeconomically differentiated others. Taking this into consideration, one recognizes that one cannot mandate, require, or risk putting new pedagogical protocols into effect blindly, lest one discover that free will has been eliminated, supplanting one system of control for another, producing little more than a modern day clockwork orange or person who “has the appearance of an organism lovely with colour and juice but is in fact only a clockwork toy to be wound up by God or the Devil or (since this is increasingly replacing both) the Almighty State” (Burgess, 1962, p. ix). Instead, one must recognize that education is a means to encourage and develop the opportunity for each learner in his or her own way to live a moral, creative, and productive life, one not deprived of free will.

Therefore, one could argue that there is an increased necessity for the Academy to begin addressing the gap that exists between recognizing and understanding uncanny theory and the praxis necessary to minimize or mitigate the subsequent UVE. The objective, of course, would be the successful discovery of new pedagogical practices that would provide resolution or extenuation. To achieve this end, what is needed in an increasingly globalized and transient world are education and policy professionals who will advocate tirelessly for culturally responsive teaching reform and who hail from the selfsame uncanny minority or subordinate sociocultural groups as the students they hope to serve. It is these rising minority to majority professionals who will best address and mitigate the effects of the uncanny and UVE phenomena

in other students, regardless of age, whose own learning was or is impacted, restricted, or denied by current prejudicial, hegemonic, monolithic, and educational policies or dictums.

Conclusion

Ultimately, it is not enough for the Academy to merely nod in acquiescence at the need for improved multiculturally responsive education. Instead, its members must actively consider and seek out alternative causes and solutions to the very real possibility and likelihood that predominately Anglo-occupied and directed classrooms and learning environments, conducted in increasingly technocentric institutions, are fostering and fueling the metastization of the uncanny and the UVE at a faster rate than at any other time in history. Provided that this is the case, then the onus of how best to instruct or educate those parties that hope to assimilate successfully into the new respective culture of their choice, despite being inhibited by an uncanny-valley cognitive dissonance deficit, will fall to educators and politicians who will increasingly have to consider, and ultimately decide, what best practice looks and sounds like.

To mitigate the uncanny valley's negative effects, current educators will first have to recognize the prevalence and existence of the uncanny and the UVE within their respective classrooms and learning institutions. Once educators understand that their own physical appearances, classroom environments, and the very language they use are all factors that impact the manifestation of the uncanny, they can begin to minimize the presence of the UVE and its accompanying cognitive dissonance. If there is any hope of resolving, amending, or mitigating the uncanny and the UVE, the teachers and the environments in which they work must be more representative and reflective of the students they are instructing, and teachers must be educated about how the physical, cultural, and linguistic divergences that exist, be they the result of recent immigration, minority status, or socioeconomic other, impact the relationship between themselves and their respective students.

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Translating Idiomatic Expressions from English into Arabic: Difficulties and Strategies

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Abstract

Translation is the process of rendering aspects and features of a target text semantically, culturally and pragmatically into another language. However, translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions has been a challenge for translators as they are culture-bound and involve many cultural elements. This study aims at investigating difficulties encountered by Omani undergraduate students majoring in English language teaching and literature when translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expression from English into Arabic. Additionally, it attempts to identify and demonstrate some of the strategies that they used to translate and overcome such challenges and suggest what could be done to help them handle such challenges and improve their translation skills and competencies. A translation test along with a short survey was administered to 60 Omani undergraduate students majoring in English language and literature at the department of English Language and Literature in a public college in Oman. Reliability and validity for both the translation test and questionnaire were established. The mostsalient challenges difficulties reported by students and the most frequently coping strategies that they were used as strategies in translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions and handling them were presented. Some of the study's recommendations and key pedagogical implications were also highlighted and discussed.

KeyWords: Arabic culturally-bound expressions, difficulties, English, idiomatic expressions, Omani undergraduate students, strategies, translation

1.1 Introduction

Translation is considered an essential tool that enables people all over the globe to share information, news, culture, literature and sciences among others. Nevertheless, translation is not as an easy task particularly translating idioms and culturally-bound expressions as their translation requires knowledge of both languages, their culture, and knowledge of strategies that are appropriate for rendering and conveying the intended meaning (Dweik&Thalji, 2016). Language and culture are inseparable twins and understanding the culture can be the gateway to understanding the language and vice versa. Idioms are culture-bound and the majority of them have cultural associations, which make them peculiar and difficult to understand and translate (Howwar, 2013). Thus, translators are obliged to pay careful attention to cultural aspects and meaning when translating from one language to another. Translating and rendering cultural elements of the source texts into the target language is significantly important. The translator should replace the textual materials with their equivalent in all levels. In this respect, Catford (1965) states that "translation is the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language" (p.20). This definition suggests the importance of translating cultural elements in translation in general. This claim is also supported by Newmark (1981) who stresses the importance of cultural elements when translating culturally-bound expressions and idioms. Newmark states that "translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and / or statement in one language by the same message and / or statement in another language." (p.7). Nida (1964) also adds that "the role of translator is to facilitate the transfer of the message, meaning, and cultural elements from one language into another and create an equivalent response to the receivers." (p.13). He further suggests that the message from the source language is shaped and embedded by its cultural context in which it was created. Having competence in actively using idiomatic and fixed expressions is not an easy task and cannot be easily achieved (Baker, 1991, p.77). The cultural role in translation is apparent and it has to be considered by translators when translating idiomatic expressions (Min, 2007, p. 215). These cultural elements have their own implications when translating idioms from English into Arabic due to the differences between the two languages and this would definitely make the process of translating idioms a demanding and difficult task for translators. The present study intends to investigate difficulties faced by Omani undergraduate students majoring in English language and literature when translating idiomatic expressions and the strategies that they adopted to translate idioms and how they handled these challenges.

2. Statement of the Problem and Significance of the Study

This study, which is conducted in the Sultanate of Oman, intends to investigate the difficulties encountered by Omani undergraduate students majoring in English language and literature when translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions and the strategies that they employed to translate them and overcome such challenges. Idioms are viewed as one class of figurative expressions which occur in all expressions of "at least two words which cannot be understood literally and which functions as a unit semantically" (Beekman and Callow 1974 as cited in Al-Shawi, 2013, p.140). "Idioms are considered as part and parcel of mastering any language and they are a prominent natural part of everyday discourse since they reflect cultural and linguistic boundaries and enabling communication between different cultures" (Howwar, 2013, p.1). However, they constitute a great difficulty for translators. Despite the development in the field of translation theory and application, translating idiomatic and culturally bound expressions is still considered as a serious challenge for translators as well as foreign teachers and

learners (Howwar, 2013, p.1). Idioms are difficult to learn because they are not literal and they do not mean what they say (Mcpartland (19981) as cited Hussien et al. 2000, p.24). The meaning of an idiom is not the sum of the meaning of its parts or its constituents (Hussien et al. 2000, p. 26). A translator has to render the meaning of an idiom over and above the meaning of the words that constitute it. Translator's awareness of an idioms-related meaning and the difficulties that might be encountered and the suitable strategies for translating idioms are of utmost importance in successful idioms translation. Translation strategies are necessary because they usually enable translators to overcome difficulties that might be encountered in the process of translation (Dweik&Thalji, 2016). To the best of the researchers' knowledge, research that investigates difficulties encountered in translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions and strategies used to overcome such difficulties in the Omani context is scant. This is expected to contribute to the significance of the present study and its findings and potential implications. Therefore, it is necessary to find ways and strategies to help students and translation practitioners overcome such arising problems and difficulties in translating idiomatic expressions. Two major salient difficulties have been frequently reported in the literature. Firstly, lack of equivalence in the target language as languages vary and they express meanings using different linguistic means such as fixed and frozen expressions, idioms, etc. Therefore it is very hard to find equivalents in the target language. Secondly, the existence of idioms that have similar form but different meaning in two languages might be a source of difficulty in translation (Baker, 1992). The process of translating idiomatic expressions becomes even tougher when a translator embarks on translating a stretch of culturally-bound expressions which include cultural, scientific, literary elements (Adiel&Ahmed, 2016, p37). The difference between English and Arabic also could be one of the factors that contributes to the difficulty in translating idiomatic expressions as Arabic is a semitic language which is quite distant from English which is an-Indo-European language and this may hinder effective rendering of meaning. Having a solid foundation in both cultures -awareness of both the target and the source language will enable the translator to catch the implied meaning of idiomatic expressions (Al-Shawi & Mahadi, 2012).

3. Objectives of the Study and Research Questions

The objectives of the study are twofold: Firstly, to investigate the difficulties that Omani undergraduate students encountered when translating some idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions from English into Arabic. Secondly, to identify the strategies that they use to respond and handle such challenges and what could be done to help students overcome such challenges and foster their translation skills in general and translating idiomatic expressions in particular. The study seeks to answer the following questions: What difficulties do Omani undergraduate students majoring in English language encounter when translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions? How did they respond and handle these difficulties? What could be done to help them overcome such difficulties?

4. Methods

A sample of 60 students was randomly selected from the final year students from the Department of English language and Literature, Rustaq College of Applied Sciences in the Sultanate of Oman. All of the students are Omanis and they have been educated under the same educational system and they have many things in common. Most of them are male students. They have been studying English since their primary schooling. The instruments, which were used to collect the data, were a translation test and a short survey.

4.1 Translation test

The translation test was created by the researchers to specifically test students' difficulties with idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions and the strategies that they used to handle these difficulties and what could be done to help them to further improve their translation competencies and skills and overcome such challenges. The test was validated by experts in translation and all ambiguous items were modified and some examples were reworded. The test consists of 14 sentences which contain four types of idiomatic expressions. The researchers followed the semantic classification of idioms suggested by Fernando and Flavell (1981). The sentences were ordered according to the four categories of idiomatic expressions, namely, three transparent idioms (which have a very close meaning to the literal one), three semi-transparent idioms (which carry metaphorical sense that could not be known only through common use), three semi-opaque idioms (in which the figurative meaning is not joined to the words of the idiom), and four opaque ones (the meaning of the idiom is never that of the sum of the literal meaning of its components) respectively (Leah, n.d). Students were asked to translate these sentences and report the difficulties that they faced and strategies that they used to handle these difficulties. The test reliability was established by using test-retest means to whether the time allocated for this particular test was enough and to determine the clarity of test instructions and questions. The test was administered to five students who share the same characteristics of the participants. The test was administered by the translation teacher who explained the purpose of the study and responded to all queries and questions regarding the test instructions and items. The questionnaire consists of two parts: part one includes a list of strategies which were used to translate idiomatic expressions and the students were asked to tick against the strategies that they used to translate those sentences in the translation test. Part two includes some open ended-questions where students were asked to report the difficulties that they encountered in translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions and state why certain translation strategies were used more than the other, and which strategies did they use more frequently to handle these difficulties.

5. Notes on Idiomatic and Culturally-bound Expressions

The purpose of this section introduce a theoretical background to the present study on issues such as idiomaticity in both English and Arabic, definitions of idioms, difficulties encountered in translating idioms, strategies used in translating idioms, and reviews of some previous studies and findings from both empirical and non-empirical studies on difficulties encountered by Arab learners when translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions.

5.1 Idiomaticity in English

Cultural idiomaticity is deeply inherited in human languages and it differs from one language to another (Ajaaj & Mohammed, 2014). Idiomaticity is considered a common feature in all languages and its appreciation is the cornerstone of learning and mastering a given language. Idiomatic expressions have semantic, syntactic and pragmatic complexity which poses a great challenge for learners and translators (Aldahesh, 2013, p.23). An idiom is defined as " an expression which functions as a single unit and whose meaning cannot be worked out from its separate parts" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, 246). For example, the meaning of each word in the idiom "it rains cats and dogs" has nothing to do with the meaning of the idiom as a whole.

Moreover, Barkema (1996) defines idioms as " lexicalized expressions with idiosyncratic meanings" (p.127). Larson (1984) defines idioms as " a string of words whose meaning is

different from the meaning conveyed by the individual words". They are translated non-literary as their meaning cannot be predicted from their constituents (Ajaaj& Mohammed, 2014, p.1). The majority of idioms are used interchangeably between spoken and written discourse but they are mostly associated with spoken discourse and therefore, sixty to seventy percent of idioms are associated with spoken language (Maxos, 2003, p.4). The main features of idioms are: idioms are all in all metaphorical and cannot be understood directly; they should not be taken literally as their meaning lies on their constituents rather than individual words; their syntactic form is usually fixed and cannot be changed or described as ungrammatical; their meanings are also invariable and they are mainly cultural and informal (Ghazala, 2003, p.204). They are classified in different ways such as according to grammatical category or parts of speech, according to the concepts or emotion portrayed, according to the image they convey such as body parts, food idioms, and according to their semantic category idioms may occur in such forms: slang, proverbs, allusions, similes, dead metaphors, social formulas and collocations. Additionally, Ghazala (2003) categorizes them into five major types: full and pure idioms, semi-idioms, proverbs, popular sayings and semi-proverbial expressions, metaphorical catchphrases and popular expressions (p.24). Therefore, idioms acquisition and translation constitute a great difficulty for foreign learners and translators due to several factors. Translating idioms and culturally-bound expressions is not an easy task. "Translating idioms is difficult as it is central" (Trosborg, 1997, 109). Larson states that idioms should be translated with great care and the translators must figure out the meaning of the idioms that they intend to translate and then look for an equivalent which can express the whole meaning. Translators should avoid translating idioms literally or word for word translation (Newmark, 1988, p.125). Therefore, idioms should not be translated in isolation; rather translators should search for the real meaning conveyed by that particular idiom and consider the cultural connotation as well.

5.2. Idiomaticity in the Arabic language

The Arabic language is an extraordinary rich and complex language. Idioms constitute a significant part of it and they abound in classical Arabic, modern standard Arabic as well as in all of the various dialects across the Arab world. Although old Arabic dictionaries written in the middle ages incorporated a fairly large number of idioms with detailed definitions of their meanings, lexicographers did not have a specific term to describe this linguistic phenomenon. However, in the last a few decades, several comprehensive dictionaries of Arabic idioms emerged such as "A dictionary of idioms in modern Arabic" by WafaKamel(2007) and the term "ta'beeratistelaheya" is now commonly used to describe idiomatic expressions.

Gazalah (2003) describes idioms as mainly informal, but this might not be a universal property of idioms. The Quran, considered by Arabs to be the highest form of Arabic, makes extensive use of idioms. Mustansir Mir (1989), in his book "verbal idioms of the Quran", stresses, "verbal idioms are a significant component of the Quranic vocabulary" (p. 2). The sayings of prophet Mohammed, which are considered a standard to measure the correctness of the language, contain some idioms. For example, he said "the upper hand is better than the lower hand" and he meant that it is better to be a giver of charity rather than a receiver who takes beggary as a habit. Nonetheless, the properties of Arabic idioms are not very dissimilar from other languages. First of all, it is difficult to understand the meaning of the idiom by looking at its constituent parts. Secondly, Arabic idioms are generally metaphorical. For example, the Quran uses the idiom يخفض جناحه which literally means "lower your wing" but the metaphorical meaning is "be humble and

kind". In addition, Arabic idioms have a fixed structure and the constituents cannot be substituted. In the previous idiom, the verb "yakhfodh" cannot be replaced by another verb. Moreover, Arabic idioms contain cultural and historical elements that cannot be understood by people of other cultures. For example, رجع بخفي حنين (literally: he came back with the shoes of Hunian). In summary, Arabic idioms cannot be translated literally and careful attention must be paid to the cultural elements.

Although Arabic is a Semitic language, it is not always difficult to find an equivalent for English idioms in it. A large number of Arabic idioms have similar meanings to their English counterparts but they have dissimilar forms. For example, the Arabic idiom يصيب كبد الحقيقة (literally: to hit the liver of the truth) is an equivalent of the English idiom "to hit the nail on the head". Moreover, some Arabic idioms have the same meaning and the same form as their English equivalent. To take but one example, the Arabic idiom يبلع لسانه has the same form and meaning as the English idiom 'to swallow your tongue' which means to keep silent. However, translators need to be careful because some idioms in the source language may have a very close counterpart in the target language which looks similar on the surface but is totally or partially different. A case in point is the idiomatic expression "to eat your words" which means to admit that you were wrong about something. However, in some Arabic dialects, if someone "eats some letters or words", it means they speak very quickly or they stutter and because of that some letters or words are not uttered. Another example is the idiomatic question has the cat got your tongue? It is used in English to urge someone to answer a question and contribute to a conversation, particularly when their failure to do so becomes annoying. A similar expression is used in French with a totally different meaning; donner sa langue au chat ('to give one's tongue to the cat'), meaning to give up, for example when asked a riddle. Therefore, translators need to consider these kinds of superficially identical idioms which have rather dissimilar meanings because idioms have individual collocational patterns (Baker, 1991, pp. 79-80). In short, to find a suitable equivalent, which is similar in form and meaning or only in meaning, is not an easy task and it requires a deep knowledge of both languages and cultures. The following section will tackle this issue in depth.

5.3 Difficulties in translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions Idioms constitute a problematic area for both foreign learners and translators. When translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions from one language to another, translators usually encounter many hurdles and difficulties in stylistic, cultural and even religious ones which are hard to overcome (Smadi, 2015, p.124). Strakšienė (2009) claims that one of the problems that translator faces in translating idioms is the lack of equivalence on the idiom level. All languages have idioms but it is not easy to find equivalent in the target language that corresponds to the idiom in the source language both in meaning and form. There are several difficulties which have been reported in the literature with regard to translating idioms and the reasons behind those difficulties. The two interrelated difficulties which may encounter translators when translating idioms are: the ability to recognize and interpret an idiom correctly on one hand, and success in looking for the most suitable equivalent in the target language. Baker (1991, pp.80-85) states that the main difficulties involved in translating idiomatic expressions are: first, idiomatic expressions may have no equivalent in the target language. The way languages use idioms to express different meanings and notions vary from one language to another and that constitutes a great difficulty for translators. The difference of languages in the social and religious cultures might be a cause of

difficulty when translating from English into Arabic (Al-Shawi&Mahadi, 2012, pp. 141-146). Therefore, lack of equivalence in the target language can be a source of difficulty. Idioms and culturally-bound expressions contain culture-specific items which may be untranslatable in some cases. For example, the idiom “feels blue” cannot be understood by Arabic speakers because the color “blue” is never associated with sadness or depression as in American culture. Second, the conventional use of idiomatic expressions is mostly in spoken discourse and it is a matter of style, however, language such as Arabic and Chinese make a sharp distinction between written and spoken discourse in using idioms and they avoid using idioms in a written text mode which is associated with a high level of formality. This kind of differences between language and their use of idiomatic expressions could be a source of difficulty for translators (Baker, 1991, p, 84). There are several studies which have been conducted in the Arab world to investigate difficulties encountered by students when translating idioms and culturally-bound expressions from English into Arabic.

In this regard, many findings were reported such as incapability of translating English idioms correctly due to the lack of idiomatic and pragmatic competence; negative transfer from Arabic; the loss of some shade of meaning; unintelligibility through the use of literal translation; misunderstanding of the meaning in the sentence; students being unconscious of idioms; students’ unfamiliarity with idioms; wide guessing of meaning; poor translation strategy awareness; limited ability to interpret unfamiliar idioms (Hussien et al. 2000; Bataineh&Bataineh 2002; al-Hassan 2007; Badawi, 2008; Kohil 2009; Memaz 2009).

5.4 Strategies used in translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions

Idioms translation strategy is defined by Baker (1992) as "... strategy of finding an idiom of similar meaning and similar form in the target language may seem to offer the ideal solution, but that is not necessarily always the case" (p.72). Loescher (1991 p.8) defines translation strategy as "a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem faced in translating a text, or any segment of it". Baker (1991) suggests four main strategies which can be used by translators to translate idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions. These strategies are: using an idiom with similar meaning and form (total equivalence); using an idiom with similar meaning but different form (partial equivalence); translation by paraphrasing, and translation by omission (pp.85-93). As for the first strategy, total equivalence in form and meaning, this kind of matching can only be arrived at certain occasions, when the source and the target languages belong to the same family and they have cultural similarities. However, there are some English idiomatic expressions which have equivalent in the present-daily Arabic and they are transparent in their meaning and form. For example, to shed crocodile tears **يبيكي بدموع التماسيح** this is considered as transparent idiom and meaning and form are similar to greater extent. Regarding the second strategy which is partial equivalence, this involves translating the source language expression (SL) idiom into its equivalent in target language idiom conveys the same meaning, but has different form. Therefore, translator's cultural background competence and awareness is really important here to enable him/her to find equivalent idioms with similar meaning and function in the target language (TL). For example to carry coals to Newcastle **بيبع الماء في حارة السقاين** these are considered as partially equivalent as they differ in form but they convey the same meaning and function. This type of strategy is useful in translating semi-transparent idioms. Concerning translating by paraphrasing, this strategy involved giving a brief explanation of the meaning behind idiomatic expression being used in the source language (SL). This is usually used when the translator is encountered

with idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions in the source language (SL) which have no corresponding idiomatic expression in the target language (TL). This strategy is most common and widely used strategy for translating idioms when match cannot be found in the target language (TL) due to the difference in stylistic preferences of the source and target languages. For example, to let the cat out of the bag, يذيع سرا – يفشي سرا this is considered as paraphrasing to the meaning of the idiom in the source language by the equivalent in the target language. Additionally, translation by omission, this involves omitting the idiom in the target text as its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons. The meaning could be compensated elsewhere in the target text (Baker, 1992, pp.85-93). Finally, translation by using notes: This strategy is usually used when there no close match between the SL and when the translator fails to find equivalent and this is quite common in translating religious texts. Eftekhari (2008, p. 5) points out that "employing 'notes' in translation both as a translation strategy and procedure seems to be essential to foreign language readership could benefit from the text as much as the ST readers do". There is a plethora of empirical and non-empirical research which has been conducted to investigate strategies used in translating idioms and culturally-bound expressions such as (New Mark, 1998; Gaber, 2005; Maxos 2003; Badawi, 2008; Balfaqeeh 2009; Farahani&Ghasemi 2012; Al-Shawi&Mahadi 2012; Shojaei, 2012). The vast majority of these studies dealt with strategies employed in idioms, proverbs and culturally-bound expressions. The most frequently used strategies in translation are paraphrasing, borrowing, literal translation, guessing strategy, equivalence, deletion, using notes, consulting others, and using parallel idiom in the target language.

6. Findings and Discussion

This section introduces the findings of the study and provides a discussion of these findings in relation to studies reviewed in the literature. The analysis of data has given the researchers useful insights into the type of difficulties that Omani students faced when translating English idioms and the translation strategies they used to handle these difficulties.

It has been pointed out in the literature that lack of equivalence constitutes one of the main difficulties in translating idioms (Baker, 1992). Nevertheless, the findings of this study reveal that the major difficulty when translating English idioms into Arabic is not the lack of equivalence, but it is in the linguistic ability that enables a translator to find a suitable equivalent. Analysis of the data shows that Arabic idioms of similar meaning were provided to 12 out of the 14 English idioms that students were asked to translate. The study shows that finding a suitable equivalent is not an easy task since many students could not recall Arabic idioms that have similar meanings to their English counterparts. It has been found that this difficulty is more salient when translating opaque idioms than any other types of idioms. None of the students attempted to provide an equivalent to the idiom 'don't spill the beans' and only two out of the thirty students managed to provide an equivalent to 'kick the bucket'; three students found a suitable equivalent to 'butterflies in my stomach'; and only four students succeeded in finding a similar Arabic idiom to translate 'bury the hatchet'. One of the surprising findings is that this inability to find a suitable equivalent, although it is more encountered when translating opaque idioms, it can also occur when translating a transparent idiom. None of the respondents managed to find a suitable equivalent to the English idiom 'you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours', although half of them managed to paraphrase its meaning accurately and succinctly. Those who attempted to provide an equivalent mentioned the Arabic idiom "wahedahbewahedah" which would be a

suitable equivalent to the English idiom “tit for tat” but not for the aforementioned idiom. Since there are several idioms in classical Arabic that convey the same meaning, this difficulty is caused by lack of linguistic knowledge of the mother tongue. As one of the surveyed students indicated, “we need to learn Arabic idioms first in order to be able to translate English idioms”.

As for the translation strategy that most students used to handle this difficulty, paraphrasing the meaning of the idiom was the most common and has been utilized more than 200 times. This finding is consistent with Baker’s (1992) claim that paraphrasing is widely used when translating idioms. Students used paraphrasing to translate all types of idioms, but significantly more when translating the meaning of opaque idioms. Students were capable of finding similar Arabic idioms for several transparent, semi-transparent, and semi-opaque idioms. For example, 24 out of 30 provided an idiom of dissimilar form but similar meaning for the idiom ‘do not beat around the bush’ and 11 students managed to provide an equivalent to “break the ice”. Moreover, 10 students were able to mention the right equivalent for “The law of the jungle”. These findings clearly show that finding a suitable equivalent is more arduous when translating opaque idioms. As mentioned before, paraphrasing is usually used to handle this difficulty. Nonetheless, the effectiveness of it varies from one idiom to another. Analysis of the data shows that when students paraphrased the meaning of transparent, semi-transparent, and semi-opaque idioms, they were more successful than when translating opaque idioms. For example, several students translated the idiom ‘butterflies in my stomach’ as ‘abdominal pain’ or ‘hunger’ and a number of students associated ‘kicking the bucket’ with ‘anger’. However, 29 out of 30 students succeeded in paraphrasing accurately the meaning of ‘raining cats and dogs’. A number of the surveyed students mentioned that the cultural-specificity of some idioms make them very difficult to understand and this explains why it was difficult for them to paraphrase them meaning accurately. Their responses correspond with Howwar’s (2013) description of idioms as being culture-bound and having cultural associations that make them peculiar and difficult to understand and translate. Another strategy that has been used by students when they encounter difficulties is to translate by omission. This strategy is used when it is difficult to paraphrase the meaning. Although this strategy was used 61 times, students who omitted the idiom or part of the idiom could not always compensate the meaning of the idiom elsewhere as some translators do (Baker, 1992). This led to abridged and mutilated translations that lacked the effect, which the idiom had in the source language. The reason why some students omitted the idiom might be their inability to understand it. This is confirmed by their responses to the question about the challenges they faced. Most of them stated that one of the challenges is that they cannot understand the meaning of some idioms, let alone translate them.

Furthermore, this study reveals an interesting finding regarding idiom translation which has not been much discussed in the literature. The analysis of the data shows that some English idioms might cause students to recall Arabic idioms which have dissimilar form and meaning. In more than 10 occasions, students provided idioms of dissimilar form and meaning which they inaccurately assumed were equivalents to the English idioms. For example, when translating the idiom ‘scratch my back and I’ll scratch yours’, they mentioned “wahedahbewahedah” which means ‘tit for tat’. The reason why some students misinterpreted the meaning of some idioms might be their reliance on the context to understand the meaning. When asked about the strategies they used, several students mentioned that they looked at the context to understand the meaning

of the idiom. However, the complexity of some idioms requires more than looking at the context that may or may not be helpful in decoding the meaning.

Moreover, literal translation is another strategy that students used when they could not find a suitable equivalent. Surprisingly, despite the many differences between the Arabic and English language, literal translation could sometimes convey the meaning of the idiom. This finding is not consistent with Howwar's (2013) claim that idioms can never be translated literally. In fact, a literal translation of the idiom 'you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours', and 'flog a dead horse' did not produce meaningless translations. The Arabic reader is still able to grasp the meaning although the effect is not the same. Nonetheless, in some cases, the literal translation was not effective as in the case of 'break the ice', 'it is raining cats and dogs', and 'kick the bucket' since it led to unintelligibility.

In conclusion, the difficulties that students faced are their inability to find a suitable equivalent, misinterpretation of the meaning of the idiom, using literal translation which does not convey the meaning, or omitting the whole or some parts of the idiom and not compensating it elsewhere. As for the strategies used to handle these difficulties, paraphrasing, literal translation and translation by omission are the most common strategies.

7. Conclusions, Recommendations and Implications

The findings of this study suggest a number of pedagogical implications. First, although the context is extremely important for interpreting the meaning of idioms, it is not enough to rely on it as it that might lead to misinterpretation. Some students mentioned that they relied on context and that explains why several of them paraphrased inaccurately the meaning of some idioms. Moreover, teachers need to raise students' awareness that idioms are culture-bound, yet it is not always difficult to provide a functional equivalent of many idioms. Furthermore, students' need to know that although paraphrasing is a good translation strategy, providing an idiom of similar meaning and form can be more effective in conveying the meaning. In this study, students relied on paraphrasing even when equivalents existed in their mother tongue. In addition, since literal translation can sometimes convey the meaning of the idiom, teachers need not to discourage them from using it in the absence of equivalents. Nonetheless, Arab students should use their knowledge of their mother tongue to judge whether the translation is intelligible or not. A literal translation of 'scratch my back and I will scratch yours' does not lead to unintelligibility while a literal translation of 'it rains cats and dogs' does. Finally, although omitting some parts of the idiom may be desirable in certain situations, the meaning should be compensated somewhere else in the text in order to avoid abridged and mutilated translations.

Given the findings presented, it could be recommended that culture translation should be taught to undergraduate students to expose them to the cultural differences between languages and which could translation significantly. First, students should avoid using paraphrasing techniques as much as possible. This only recommended when there is no equivalent in the target language. Second, students should be trained on the effective strategies usually used for translating idiomatic expressions. Third Students should avoid using literal translation when translating idiomatic expressions and should use specialized dictionaries in idiomatic expressions. Finally, idioms and culturally-bound expressions should be considered as a part and parcel of foreign

language and translation instruction in order to help students to be familiar with them and understand their exact and diverse meanings and connotations.

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AppendixA

An Investigation into Difficulties Encountered and Strategies Employed by Omani Students when Translating Idiomatic Expressions from English into Arabic

This survey intends to investigate the difficulties that Omani undergraduate students majoring in English often encounter when translating some idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions from English into Arabic, and the strategies they use to handle these challenges. You are kindly requested to answer the questions in this questionnaire to the best of your knowledge and ability and to provide the researcher with useful ideas and suggestions to overcome such difficulties and improve students' translation strategies and skills. You may be assured that your responses will remain confidential and will be used for research purposes only. Your identity will not be disclosed when reporting my research findings. You may use resources such as internet and dictionaries if needed.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Gender:

Male

Female

Part I: Translate the following expressions and idioms from English into Arabic and tick the strategies that you have used while translating.

No	English Idiomatic Expression	
1.	The child wasn't really hurt, but she shed crocodile tears anyway.	Transparent Idiomatic Expressions
2.	<i>I do</i> have some information you might <i>be</i> interested in, but what can you offer <i>me in</i> return? You scratch <i>my</i> back and I'll scratch yours.	
3.	I was brought up on the streets where the law of the jungle applied, so I soon learnt how to look after myself.	
4.	<i>John and David were both a bit uneasy when they first met at the conference, but they broke the ice with coffee before they began discussing business.</i>	Semi-Transparent Idiomatic Expressions
5.	<i>If you want to ask me, just do; don't beat around the bush.</i>	

6.	Those e-mails complaining about your boss can land you in hot water .	Semi-Opaque Idiomatic Expressions
7.	You shouldn't worry about Sara's taking over that reporter's job - she already knows the ropes .	
8.	<i>There's no way they'll be playing at the park, it's raining cats and dogs out there!</i>	
9.	When John could stand no more of Mary's bad temper, he threw in the towel and left.	
10.	He keeps trying to get it published, but I think he is flogging a dead horse .	
11.	I used to get butterflies in my stomach before the school tests	Opaque Idiomatic Expressions
12.	There is a surprise party for James on Wednesday. Please don't spill the beans .	
13.	Didn't you hear? He kicked the bucket - had a heart attack, I think.	
14.	John and Tom buried the hatchet and they are now good friends.	

Part II: Which of the following strategies did you use to translate these idiomatic expressions?

No.	Translation Strategies Used	Put them in Order
1.	Using parallel idioms in the target language (TL)	
2.	Literal translation	
3.	Google Translator	
4.	Paraphrasing the idiom	
5.	Word-for-word translation	
6.	Babylon Translator	
7.	Using an idiom of similar meaning and form	
8.	Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form	
9.	Translating by omission	
10.	Borrowing and glossing	
11.	Using notes	
12.	Others please specify.....	

Part III: Answer the following questions.

Q1: Why did you use some strategies instead of other ones?

Q2: Which strategy would you generally prefer to use and why?

Q3: What challenges did you encounter when translating these idiomatic expressions?

Q4: Which strategy did you use to handle those challenges?

Q5: Any comments or suggestions?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Acquisition of Modern Standard Arabic by Speakers of Different Arabic Colloquial Varieties: Resumption in Object Relative Clauses *¹

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Abstract

It is often claimed that there are no native speakers of Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) due to possible effect of late age of first exposure (AoE) and possible effect of the acquired colloquial variety of Arabic, which is considered as the first language (L1). This empirical study examined the impact of AoE and knowledge of the L1 on the ultimate attainment of resumption in MSA object relative clauses. 147 adolescent participants from Egypt, the Levant, and the gulf regions, were recruited to examine their underlying knowledge of resumption in MSA through completing an Acceptability Judgment Task. Using ANOVA and planned comparisons, the differences in participants' judgments to resumption were evaluated across 5 groups corresponding to different AoE and the colloquial varieties they speak. The analysis of the data showed no significant effect of AoE nor of the L1, and post hoc tests showed no significant differences between the groups of participants. These results were discussed in relation to theories on L1 influence and to the critical period hypothesis.

Keywords: critical period hypothesis, first language influence, modern standard Arabic, resumption, second language acquisition

Introduction

This article aims to make an empirical investigation of Arabic speakers' underlying ultimate knowledge of Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) to see whether this knowledge is of a first language(L1) or of a second language(L2) type. The motivation for this research comes from the frequent claim in the literature that there are no native speakers of MSA (e.g., Kaye, 1970; Maamouri, 1998). This claim perhaps can be supported by the fact that Arab children do not acquire MSA naturally at home and their exposure to MSA starts only at the primary school when their innate ability to acquire language natively is assumed to be no longer available or to have started to deteriorate(Al-Dannan, 2010). Another support for such a claim comes from the fact that Arab children have already acquired and speak the local colloquial form by the time they start learning MSA at primary school. Because there are some differences between the colloquial forms and MSA across all linguistic domains(e.g., Altoma, 1969; Ayari, 1996; Maamouri, 1998; Khamis-Dakwar, 2011), this may lead different speakers to develop different MSA end-state grammars; which is a characteristic of a second language. However, as far as the researcher knows, there is a clear scarcity of empirical works in the literature that discuss Arabs' acquisition of MSA, investigate their underlying knowledge of it, and confirm or disconfirm claims about whether there are native speakers of MSA.

This research was conducted to examine the underlying end-state knowledge of MSA resumption in object relative clauses, which is represented differently in the native grammars of colloquial varieties of Egypt, the Levant, and the Gulf regions. If MSA is acquired natively, then the underlying end-state grammar of MSA object relatives is expected to be uniform in these different regions despite the syntactic differences between the colloquial varieties. This is based on the widely accepted assumption that all acquirers of the same first language or dialect achieve the same steady-state grammar (Guasti, 2002; White, 2003; Meisel, 2011). On the other hand, if MSA is learned or acquired as an L2, then the underlying steady-state grammar is expected to be represented differently, based on the assumption that L2 speakers differ from each other in their ultimate attainment, even in the case of speakers with the same L1 who have acquired the same L2 (White, 2003; Meisel, 2008).

This study should lead to answers to the following interrelated questions:

- I. Do Arabs across the Arab world represent 'uniform' (L1-type) or 'variant' (L2-type) versions of MSA end-state grammar?
- II. If variation in attainment exists, is it an effect of different age of first exposure to MSA?
- III. If variation in attainment exists, is it an effect of the differences between the colloquial varieties (the L1s)?

Background

Effect of AoE

Many of the studies on second language acquisition support the claim that age of first exposure to the acquired language has effects on how complete the outcome grammar will be. These studies, however, can be divided into four groups depending on their findings of whether or not there is a cut-off point before which native-like attainment is possible or guaranteed. Studies in the first group (e.g., Oyama, 1979; Patkowski, 1980) suggest that

native-like attainment is possible for those who start learning any time during the critical period. The second group includes studies like Selinger et al. (1975), Shim (1993), and Meisel (2008), which report that native-like attainment is only possible before a certain age during the critical period (9, 5, and 3;7 respectively), and a decline or variation of performance is noted thereafter until the end of the critical period. The third group of studies does not specify an age before which native-like attainment is possible or guaranteed; but they suggest that there is a general negative correlation between age and attainment that ends at puberty pointing to the end of the critical period (e.g., Johnson & Newport, 1989; Johnson, 1992). Finally, the fourth group consists of studies like Birdsong & Molis (2001), Stevens (1999) and Bialystok & Hakuta (1999) which report that the rule of 'younger is better' is true across the life span.

As of the L2 studies outlined so far suggest that a critical period applies in L2 acquisition, however, this proposal has been empirically challenged. A number of studies have found that native-like proficiency is apparently attainable even when L2 acquisition begins later than age 12; i.e., after the closure of any proposed critical period (e.g., White & Genesee, 1996; Cranshaw, 1997). In general, nonetheless, these studies and the others of the like (e.g., Neufeld, 1977; 1979) have been criticised as not sufficient for refuting the idea of a critical period in second language acquisition. Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (2003), for example, argue that the cases of successful late starters of L2 in attaining native-like accents or knowledge are very limited in number, and cannot be considered as counterevidence for critical period existence in second language acquisition. In addition, they maintain that to count learners as 'native-like', they should behave in a native-like manner in all the domains of the language, not only in one particular domain like phonology. Thus, further research is needed to ascertain the validity of such claims.

L1 Influence

The issue of L1 influence on the grammar of a second language has been the topic of much research throughout the past few decades. L1 influence has been studied from a variety of perspectives and within a variety of approaches, and it has undergone significant reconceptualization over the years (for an overview, see, e.g., Odlin, 1989; 2003; Ellis, 2008). However, many studies during the past two decades have shown clear evidence of L1 transfer in second language acquisition (e.g., Hulk, 1991; Vainikka & Young-Scholten, 1994; 1998; Bohnacker, 2006; Gil & Marsden, 2010; Gil et al., 2011).

One common position that most researchers take about the L2 initial state is that L2 learners transfer their L1 grammar either fully or partially when they start acquiring the target language (see, White, 2000). These researchers, though, have different claims in relation to how L2 learners restructure their L1 knowledge to converge on the target language grammar and whether or not they will be completely successful in this task when reaching the end-state of L2 acquisition. Schachter (1990), for example, concludes from her study that "native language has a significant effect on knowledge of one principle of Universal Grammar [i.e., Subadjacency] in post-puberty-acquired second language grammars", (Schachter, 1990, p. 116). She maintains that only universal grammar (UG) principles that have been instantiated in first language acquisition constitute an internal knowledge source for L2 learners. This internal knowledge (i.e., L1-based instantiations of UG) together with the external evidence

(i.e., L2 input) will guide the process of acquiring a second language and constrain much of the form of its grammar. According to Schachter, this predicts that L2 learners will fail to acquire the features of L2 grammar, which are not provided by the L1 grammar and are not made evident by L2 positive input.

In a similar vein, Bley-Vroman(1989), in his Fundamental Difference Hypothesis, argues that L1 knowledge defines the grammar that is possible for adult L2 learners. According to him, the difference between the attainments of children versus adults in acquiring a second language is due, in part, to the fact that UG is no longer available to adults after the closure of the 'putative' critical period, and, hence, L1 knowledge, together with general problem-solving systems, takes the role of guiding adults' acquisition process. Bley-Vroman posits that adult L2 learners reconstruct much of the original scheme of Universal Grammar, which is not available after the critical period, by observing the native language. He adds that because of the L1 providing an indirect knowledge of UG, plus being 'incomplete' and 'accidental', "one can expect some partial success, little chance of perfect success, and some considerable individual variation" (Bley-Vroman, 1989, p. 53).

The Full Transfer/Full Access model, developed by Schwartz & Sprouse(1994), affirms the view that the native language has an impact on L2 ultimate attainment; but not by taking the place of UG. According to this model, L2 learners start their L2 acquisition with the final state grammar of L1 acquisition. Then, based on L2 input, and by having access to UG, the learners will start restructuring all the features of L1, which fail to represent L2 data, and keep those which apply to both languages as they are. However, this model does not guarantee a full convergence on the grammar of the target language. This is because L2 learners, unlike L1 acquirers, start with previously set values; it may be that the data needed to force restructuring simply do not exist, or that the needed positive L2 data are highly obscure, complex, or rare (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1996, p. 42). Under this model, the starting point of acquiring a language as an L1 or an L2 differs, and the outcome of these two acquisition processes are likely to differ: "the final states of L2 acquisition do not systematically replicate the final state of L1 acquisition"(Schwartz & Sprouse, 1996, p. 42), and this is due to distinct initial states of the two processes.

Sorace(1993)concludes that the L1 determines what type of competence L2 learners will reach at the end of the acquisition process. According to her study, even near-native speakers of the second language who are at the most advanced stage of second language acquisition will not, most likely, attain a native-like competence; their underlying competence may be either incomplete (lacking some L2 grammatical properties) or divergent (certain L2 properties are presented differently) from the native competence of the target language. This feature of incompleteness or divergence is argued to be due to L1 influence.

The focus of research on L1 transfer has shifted recently from investigating transfer of knowledge of a single linguistic domain or part of it to investigating transfer at the linguistic interfaces (e.g., Slabakova, 2008; Sorace & Serratrice, 2009; White, 2009). To this point, structures at external interfaces, such as syntax-pragmatics, have been claimed subject to transfer more than structures at interfaces between internal domains of the grammar like syntax-semantics or syntax-morphology (e.g., Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006; Sorace & Serratrice,

2009). While transfer at external and internal interfaces has been attested in the literature (e.g., Gabriele, 2010; Haznedar, 2010; Oh, 2010), the issue of which is more vulnerable to transfer is not resolved yet (White, 2009). Ionin and Zubizarreta (2010), in an introductory paper to selected articles discussing the issue of L1 transfer at the linguistic interfaces, point out that these articles provided evidence for the following claims. L1 knowledge of structures at both external and internal interfaces is subject to transfer more than knowledge of purely syntactic structures (see, Montrul, 2010). Also, it is possible to recover from negative transfer of knowledge of at least structures at the syntax-semantics interface (see, Oh, 2010).

Resumption in Object Relatives

One common way to form a relative clause in Arabic is by moving a *wh*-phrase (or a null operator) from the extraction site to [Spec-CP], leaving a bound gap behind:

1. العون الذي قدمته للعراق ...
 ?al-9awn-nu [CP l-aðii_t [IP qaddamta-Ø_t li-l-9iraaq-i]] ...
 the-aid-nom which (you) offered to-the-Iraq-gen
 'The aid that you have offered to Iraq ...'

An alternative strategy is the resumption strategy. In relatives formed by this strategy, a resumptive pronoun is inserted in the extraction site as a variable bound by the *wh*-phrase, which is also directly inserted in [Spec-CP] position:

2. العون الذي قدمته للعراق ...
 ?al-9awn-u [CP l-aðii_t [IP qaddamta-**hu**_t li-l-9iraaq-i]] ...
 the-aid-nom which (you) offered-it to-the-Iraq-gen
 'The aid that you have offered to Iraq ...'

Relative clauses formed this way are claimed to be immune to locality constraints (see, e.g., Borer, 1984). This is because, by assumption, the resumption strategy does not involve movement; both the relativised element and the resumptive pronoun are claimed to be directly generated in their relevant positions.

In MSA, it is not always the case that both strategies are available when forming a relative clause. The availability of such optionality depends, for example, on whether or not the relative clause in question is definite or indefinite, and on the grammatical position of the relativisation site. However, both strategies appear to be available when extracting from the object position in a definite relative clause; a resumptive pronoun seems to vary with gaps in filling this extraction site (e.g., Aoun et al., 2010). The following sentence is an example of this case:

3. احترق البيت الذي بنيت (ه)
 ?iHtaraqa l-bayt-u l-aðii banaytu-(**hu**)
 burnt the-house which (I) built-(**it**)
 'The house which I built has burnt'

MSA uses relativisers of two types; relativisers of the first type denote specific referents in terms of gender and number, and relativisers of the other type can be used with any referents of any gender or number (Ryding, 2005). Example relativisers of the former type

include *allaḏii* الذي for masculine singular, *allatii* التي for feminine singular, *allaḏaani* اللذان for masculine dual, *allataani* اللتان for feminine dual, *allaḏiina* الذين for masculine plural, and *allaatii* اللاتي for feminine plural. The second type relativisers are *man* من for animate referents of any number or gender, and *maa* ما for inanimate referents of any type and number.

In contrast, the colloquial dialects use only one relativiser *illi* ‘that’ for all types of referents. Also, these dialects seem to differ in relation to allowing gaps in object relatives. Alresaini (2012) stated, based on a corpus-based study, that resumptive pronouns are essential in definite object relatives in Colloquial Levantine Arabic (CLA) and Colloquial Egyptian Arabic (CEA). Colloquial Gulf Arabic (CGA), on the other hand, is found allowing an option of resumptive pronouns or gaps to fill in the extraction site in definite object relatives, just like MSA. This difference between the dialects will be used as the dependent variable when examining knowledge of resumption in MSA definite relative clauses.

Finally, it is argued that resumptive pronouns add a portion of meaning to the sentence (Galal, 2004); they add specificity and more clarity to the reference of the relativised element (Alresaini, 2007). Consider the following examples:

4. سيجدُ عادلُ المرأةَ التي يُحب
sayajidu Adel-u ?al-mar?at-aallatiiyuHib
will-find Adel-nom the-woman-acc that (he) love
‘Adel will find the woman that he loves’
5. سيجدُ عادلُ المرأةَ التي يُحبُّها
sayajidu Adel-u ?al-mar?at-aallatiiyuHibbu-ha
will-find Adel-nom the-woman-acc that (he) love-her
‘Adel will find the woman that he loves’

Doron (1982) and Sells (1984) point out (using equivalent examples from Hebrew) that only in sentence (5), the reference of the object relativised element, *?al-mar?ah* ‘the-woman’, must refer to a particular individual woman that Adel loves. However, in (4), where the resumptive pronoun is lacking, this relativised element can refer to a particular woman, as in (5), or have a more generic reference to unspecified woman of particular properties. Also, the proposal that resumptive pronouns add clarity to the meaning of the sentence can be confirmed when considering examples like (6) where resumption helps for disambiguation:

6. هذا الولدُ الذي ضَرَبَ* (ه) موسى
haḏaa l-walad-u ?allaḏiiDaraba-*(hu) Musaa
this the-boy-nom that hit-3ms-him Musaa-nom
‘This is the boy that Musaa hit’

The sentence in (6) is ambiguous without the resumptive pronoun: the relativised element, *?al-walad* ‘the-boy’, could be misinterpreted as the agent due to lack of overt nominative case marking on *Musaa* and due to the shared ϕ features in *?al-walad* ‘the-boy’ and *Musaa*. In such examples, the resumptive pronoun in the relativisation site is required to

disambiguate the meaning of the sentence by making it clear that the agent is Musaa and the theme is ?al-walad ‘the-boy’.

Method

Participants

147 speakers of MSA participated in this study, who are native speakers of one of the following varieties of colloquial Arabic: Colloquial Levantine Arabic (CLA); Colloquial Gulf Arabic (CGA); and Colloquial Egyptian Arabic (CEA). Their age ranged between 12;0 and 18;9 (mean age 14;6). 60 of the participants started being exposed to MSA as early as from age 2 up to age 6, in preschools, which use MSA as the only medium of teaching and communication. The remaining 87 participants started being ‘properly’ exposed to MSA from age 6 when they enrolled in primary schools, and this is the normal case for most other speakers of Arabic.² The participants of the study were divided into five groups depending on two factors: age of first exposure to MSA (AoE), and the colloquial variety of Arabic that they natively speak (CV). The groups included (i) E-CLA group – 30 speakers of CLA with early exposure to MSA (before age 6), (ii) L-CLA group – 27 speakers³ of CLA with late exposure to MSA (after age 6), (iii) E-CGA group – 30 speakers of CGA with early exposure to MSA, (iv) L-CGA group – 30 speakers of CGA with late exposure to MSA, and (v) L-CEA group – 30 speakers of CEA with late exposure to MSA. It was not possible to recruit speakers of CEA with early exposure to MSA (before age 6) due to the fact that there are no preschools in Egypt that apply the MSA immersion program. Yet, having the L-CEA group is beneficial to compare their performance in this experiment with the performance of the participants in L-CLA & L-CGA groups to test for the L1 influence.

The age of first exposure to MSA was identified by the age of starting school because using MSA is almost limited to schooling environment in the Arabic speaking countries (Al-Dannan 2010). Also, when recruiting the participants of the study, the criterion of requiring minimum 5 years of exposure to MSA was adopted to ensure testing the end-state grammar. This criterion is common in the field and has been adopted by many researchers (e.g., Patkowski, 1980; Johnson & Newport, 1989; Johnson, 1992; Shim, 1993). Table 1 provides detailed information about the groups of participants and from where they were recruited.

Table 1 Information about the participants in the experimental study

Groups	No.	CV	AoE	School	MSA Preschools
E-CLA	30	CLA	Early	3 secondary schools in Harasta City of Syria	Al-Azhaar Arabiyyah Kindergarten
E-CGA	30	CGA	Early	A secondary school in Dammam City of Saudi Arabia	Al-Bassam Kindergarten
L-CLA	27	CLA	Late	A secondary school in Harasta City of Syria	N/A
L-CGA	30	CGA	Late	A secondary school in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia	N/A
L-CEA	30	CEA	Late	A high school in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia ⁴	N/A

Finally, all the participants in this study passed a proficiency test designed for Advance Level. The test was developed by a non-profit organization in Saudi Arabia called 'Arabic-For-All'.

Materials

The participants in this study were administered an acceptability judgment task (AJT) that was designed to assess the participants' underlying knowledge of resumption in object relative clauses. The task was composed of 60 sentences in total which included three types of sentences: i) 10 sentences with object relative clauses repeated twice, once with resumptive pronouns and once without them; ii) 20 sentences as distractors, 10 of which are clearly grammatical and the other 10 are clearly ungrammatical; iii) 20 sentences on another syntactic phenomenon, not reported in this paper. Examples of the relevant test sentences include what follows:

(1) Object Relatives with Resumption [10 sentences]

qara?a maajid-un l-kitaab-a l-aðiištaraa-**hul**-?usbuw9-a l-maaDii
readMajid-nom the-book-accthat-s.m. (he)bought-**it**the-week the-past
'Majid read the book that he bought last week'

(2) Object Relatives without Resumption [10 Sentences]

qara?a maajid-un l-kitaab-a l-aðiištaraa-**Ø**l-?usbuw9-a l-maaDii
read Majid-nom the-book-accthat-s.m. (he)bought-**Ø**the-week the-past
'Majid read the book that he bought last week'

The distribution of the test items was randomised and counterbalanced. All the test sentences were declaratives except for two sentences of the ungrammatical distractor type which were questions with the question word ungrammatically remaining in situ. The length of the sentences was between 6-9 words long with the majority being 7 words long. The sentences in general were straightforward using simple vocabulary and structures.

Procedure

Several data collection sessions were conducted in each school during the school day. Each school kindly dedicated a quiet room for data collection like the school library, a free classroom, or a computer lab. In this task, groups of three participants viewed single sentences on a laptop screen and listened to these sentences simultaneously. The participants were asked to judge individually whether the sentence they saw and heard was grammatically acceptable or not by choosing one option for each sentence from a four-point scale ranging from 'Very strange, Unacceptable' to 'Perfectly good, Perfectly acceptable'. A fifth option of 'Can't decide' was also available. The scale used was presented in a form as in Figure 1:

Very strange. Unacceptable.	A bit strange. Not really acceptable.	Fairly good. Acceptable.	Perfectly good. Perfectly Acceptable	Can't decide
-2	-1	+1	+2	X

Figure 1 The scale used to judge sentences in the AJT

Each sentence in this task showed on the screen for 10 seconds only and then the next sentence appeared. Also, the participants were not allowed to go back and change their decisions about previous sentences. This procedure of attempting to obtain quick responses without allowing a long time of thinking was followed to ensure assessing the participants' knowledge of the grammar and not their knowledge of MSA formal rules (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Half of the participants in each of the five groups were shown the test items in a different order from that shown to the other half.

Before starting the test, the participants did a pre-test training session to acquaint themselves with the test format and the rating scale. This session included three sentences that are irrelevant to the syntactic variables under study in this task. The actual test started with two distractor sentences, one grammatical and one ungrammatical, to give the participants a chance to familiarize themselves with the rating system and the test format. The test also ended in the same way to avoid random answers due to possible boredom or lack of concentration, which may be caused by, for example, rushing to finish. The actual test lasted for approximately 10 minutes.

Scoring

Any choice of +1 or +2 on the rating scale was considered to indicate acceptance, and any choice of -1 or -2 was considered to indicate rejection of that test sentence. Responses of 'Can't decide' did not occur in this data. Once all the items were scored following this scoring scheme, judgments for sentences with object relative clauses were checked to compare each participant's response to a sentence with resumption versus the same sentence without resumption. If both sentences were accepted, these are given the **value 1** to indicate that resumption is optional for this pair. If the sentence with resumption is accepted and the same sentence without resumption is rejected, these are given the **value 2** to indicate that resumption is obligatory for this pair. The third possible scenario is that the sentence with resumption is rejected and the same sentence without resumption is accepted; this pair was given the **value 3**, to indicate that resumption is not accepted in object relative clauses in that item. The fourth possible scenario is when both sentences are rejected, and in this case, these were given the **value 4** to indicate that rejection has occurred for reasons other than resumption.

All pairs of sentences which received values bigger than two were excluded from the analysis and considered as random errors and were treated as noise. This is because value 3 indicates that at least overt resumption is not possible where the fact is that it is possible in all the varieties of Arabic, standard and nonstandard. Also, value 4 indicates that rejection is for an irrelevant reason and thus data of this type were irrelevant to the test. Finally, values of 1 or 2 were counted for each group to indicate how much resumption is perceived as optional or obligatory in object relative clauses.

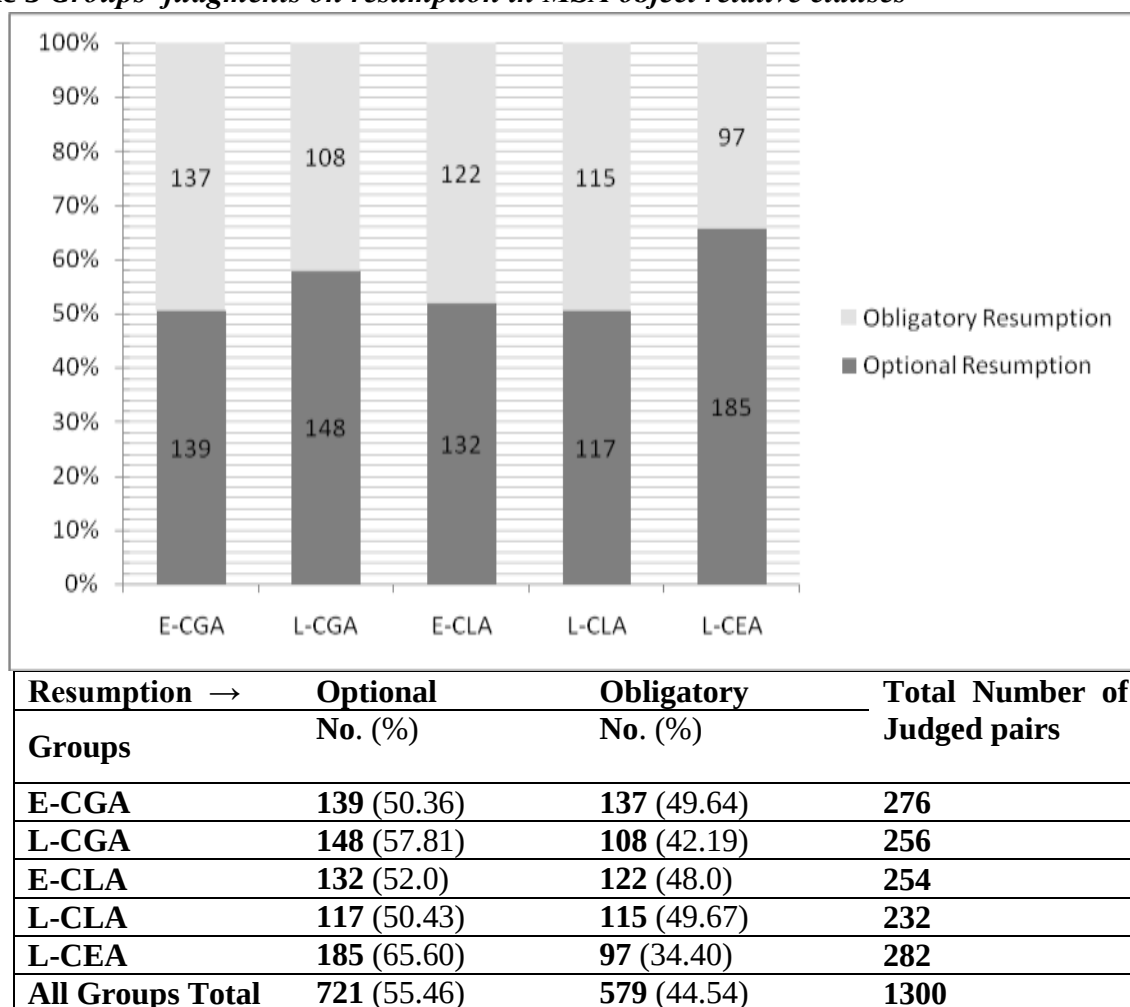
Results

Table 2 shows the results of the 147 participants' judgments of these 10 pairs of sentences in terms of resumption in MSA object relative clauses.

Table 2 Total judgments on sentence pairs of resumption in MSA object relative clauses

Resumption →	Optional	Obligatory	Not Allowed	Irrelevant	Total	No. of Judged Pairs
Sentence Pairs N (%)	721 (49%)	579 (39.4%)	47(3.2%)	123 (8.4%)	1470	

It was expected that groups with early exposure to MSA would treat resumption in MSA object relatives as optional regardless of the colloquial variety they speak. Also, it was expected that the colloquial variety (the L1) would have some effect on how the groups with late exposure to MSA would treat resumption in MSA object relatives. Based on this, it was expected that L-CLA and L-CEA participants would judge resumption in this study as obligatory, given that it is obligatory in the colloquial varieties they speak, and the L-CGA participants would continue to treat resumption as optional in MSA object relatives as it is optional in their colloquial variety. Table 3 shows the results of judging resumption by group.

Table 3 Groups' judgments on resumption in MSA object relative clauses

By looking at the figures in Table 3, these expectations do not seem to be supported. The Egyptian speakers, for example, achieved the highest rate of treating resumption in MSA object relatives as optional (65.6%) despite the fact that speakers of the same colloquial variety did not produce a single object relative clause without resumption in the colloquial corpus-based study (see, Alresaini, 2012). Also, there seems to be little difference between the judgments given by colloquial Levantine Arabic speakers with Early and Late exposure to MSA; the participants in both groups have judged resumption in half of the relevant test items as optional and as obligatory in the other half. Finally, although resumption in object relatives is optional in the colloquial Gulf variety of Arabic, as it is in MSA, the judgments given by the speakers of this variety do not seem to be different from the CLA speakers' judgments. In fact, the CGA speakers with late exposure to MSA treated resumption in MSA object relatives as optional more than those who had earlier exposure to MSA; 57.81% vs 50.36%, respectively. Statistical analyses were conducted to measure the effect of AoE and CV (the L1) separately by making various specific comparisons and manipulating groups of participants. These analyses are presented in the following two subsections.

Statistical Analysis: Effect of AoE

To check if early AoE has helped the participants to acquire a more native-like knowledge of resumption in MSA object relatives, data of groups with the same CV but different AoE were tested by two separate independent sample t-tests. This included comparing E-CGA with L-CGA and E-CLA with L-CLA participants' scores on optional resumption. The results of this test showed that there was no significant difference between the E-CGA and the L-CGA participants (E-CGA mean = 49.6, sd = 25.3, N = 30; L-CGA mean = 58.4, sd = 24.4, N = 30; the 95% CI for the difference in means is -21.72, 3.99; $t = -1.38$, $p = .173$, $df = 58$). Comparison between E-CLA and L-CLA also did not disclose a significant difference (E-CLA mean = 51.8, sd = 26.7, N = 30; L-CLA mean = 49.3, sd = 27.9, N = 27; the 95% CI for the difference in means is -12.00, 16.98; $t = .344$, $p = .732$, $df = 55$).

Statistical Analysis: Effect of CV (L1)

To verify if the colloquial variety (the L1) has an effect on the participants' knowledge of resumption in MSA relative clauses, data from groups with the same AoE but different CVs were entered into statistical tests. An independent sample t-test was conducted in SPSS Statistics 19 to compare between the E-CGA and the E-CLA scores in optional resumption. This test showed no significant difference between these two groups (E-CGA mean = 49.6, sd = 25.3, N = 30; E-CLA mean = 51.8, sd = 26.7, N = 30; the 95% CI for the difference in means is -15.70, 11.19; $t = -.335$, $p = .739$, $df = 58$).

This result was expected by the hypothesis here as it was assumed that earlier age of first exposure to MSA would help the participants to acquire a more native-like knowledge of resumption in MSA relatives and reduce the effect of the L1 if it exists. In fact, the L1 influence was expected to be found with the participants who had late exposure to MSA. A one way ANOVA was conducted in SPSS Statistics 19 to compare between L-CGA, L-CLA, and L-CEA groups in terms of their scores in optional resumption. The test showed that groups with late exposure to MSA but different CVs had no significant effect on data ($F(2,84) = 2.857$, $p = .063$). Tukey HSD and LSD post hoc tests showed that L-CLA and L-CEA groups are significantly different ($p = .050$ & $.019$, respectively). This difference,

however, cannot be due to L1 influence given that resumption in object relatives in both colloquial varieties is obligatory. The descriptive statistics for this test are given in Table 4.

Table 4 Descriptive statistics for optional resumption scores of groups with late exposure

Groups	No of Participants	Mean	Sd	95% CI for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
				Lower	Upper		
L-CGA	30	58.4	24.4	49.3	67.6	20.0	100.0
L-CLA	27	49.3	27.9	38.3	60.4	.0	90.0
L-CEA	30	65.5	24.5	56.4	74.7	20.0	100.0
Total	87	58.1	26.1	52.5	63.6	.0	100.0

General Statistical Effect of Independent Variables & Statistical Group Comparisons

The data of judging resumption as optional in MSA object relatives were entered into a Univariate Analysis of Variance using the software IBM SPSS Statistics 19 to measure the effect of the colloquial variety (the L1) and the age of first exposure to MSA on the participants' performance statistically. This statistical test showed that there was no significant effect of either the colloquial varieties (CV) or the age of first exposure to MSA (AoE) on judging resumption in MSA object relatives. For CV: $F(2,142) = 2.237$, $p = 0.111$; for AoE: $F(1,142) = 0.447$, $p = 0.505$. The interaction of CV and AoE was not significant either ($F(1,142) = 1.418$, $p = 0.236$).

Further statistical analyses were conducted to compare the means of the five groups on judging resumption in MSA object relatives as optional. This was done using a One Way ANOVA in SPSS Statistics 19 with the groups as the factor and optional resumption as the dependent variable. The ANOVA showed no statistical effect of different groups on data ($F(4,142) = 2.163$, $p = 0.076$). The descriptive statistics are given in Table 5.

Table 5 Descriptive statistics for groups' scores on judging resumption as optional

Groups	No of Participants	Mean	Sd	95% CI for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
				Lower	Upper		
E-CGA	30	49.6	25.3	40.1	59.0	11.1	100.0
L-CGA	30	58.4	24.4	49.3	67.6	20.0	100.0
E-CLA	30	51.8	26.7	41.9	61.8	.0	100.0
L-CLA	27	49.3	27.9	38.3	60.4	.0	90.0
L-CEA	30	65.5	24.5	56.4	74.7	20.0	100.0
Total	147	55.1	26.2	50.8	59.3	.0	100.0

Results of Acceptance & Rejection by Test Item

To check if there were certain test sentences that got accepted or rejected more than the other sentences, the rate of acceptance and rejection was calculated for each test sentence and presented in Table 6. As explained before, any sentence judged as +2 or +1 was considered to indicate acceptance whereas choices of -2 or -1 were considered to indicate rejection of that particular test sentence. Responses of 'Can't Decide' did not occur in this data.

The figures in Table 6 show no big differences between the groups of participants in terms of accepting or rejecting a certain test sentence. Also, these figures show that object relative clauses with resumptive pronouns were generally more accepted than those without resumptive pronouns. The average of accepting object relatives with resumptive pronouns by all the participants is 88.5% (range: 66.0% - 95.9%) compared to 52.2% (range: 36.1% - 94.6%) as the average of accepting these sentences without resumptive pronouns. This reflects the expected preference for resumption in object relatives.

Table 6 Rate of acceptance and rejection of test sentences with object relative clauses

Typ e	Items	Judgments	E-CGA	L-CGA	E-CLA	L-CLA	L-CEA	Total
Relative Clauses with Resumptive Pronouns	T1A0 1	Acc. (%)	No. 28 (93.3)	29 (96.7)	29 (96.7)	25 (92.6)	30 (100)	141 (95.9)
		Rej. (%)	No. 2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	2 (7.4)	0 (0)	6 (4.1)
	T1A0 2	Acc. (%)	No. 29 (96.7)	29 (96.7)	28 (93.3)	26 (96.3)	29 (96.7)	141 (95.9)
		Rej. (%)	No. 1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	1 (3.7)	1 (3.3)	6 (4.1)
	T1A0 3	Acc. (%)	No. 26 (86.7)	21 (70.0)	24 (80.0)	20 (74.1)	22 (73.3)	113 (76.9)
		Rej. (%)	No. 4 (13.3)	9 (30.0)	6 (20.0)	7 (25.9)	8 (26.7)	34 (23.1)
	T1A0 4	Acc. (%)	No. 23 (76.7)	15 (50.0)	15 (50.0)	18 (66.7)	26 (86.7)	97 (66.0)
		Rej. (%)	No. 7 (23.3)	15 (50.0)	15 (50.0)	9 (33.3)	4 (13.3)	50 (34.0)
	T1A0 5	Acc. (%)	No. 29 (96.7)	28 (93.3)	24 (80.0)	25 (92.6)	29 (96.7)	135 (91.8)
		Rej. (%)	No. 1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	6 (20.0)	2 (7.4)	1 (3.3)	12 (8.2)
	T1A0 6	Acc. (%)	No. 27 (90.0)	22 (73.3)	26 (86.7)	24 (88.9)	28 (93.3)	127 (86.4)
		Rej. (%)	No. 3 (10.0)	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	3 (11.1)	2 (6.7)	20 (13.6)
	T1A0 7	Acc. (%)	No. 30 (100)	25 (83.3)	27 (90.0)	25 (92.6)	30 (100)	137 (93.2)
		Rej. (%)	No. 0 (0)	5 (16.7)	3 (10.0)	2 (7.4)	0 (0)	10 (6.8)
	T1A0 8	Acc. (%)	No. 29 (96.7)	27 (90.0)	27 (90.0)	23 (85.2)	29 (96.7)	135 (91.8)
		Rej. (%)	No. 1 (3.3)	3 (10.0)	3 (10.0)	4 (14.8)	1 (3.3)	12 (8.2)
	T1A0 9	Acc. (%)	No. 29 (96.7)	30 (100)	25 (83.3)	23 (85.2)	30 (100)	137 (93.2)
		Rej. (%)	No. 1 (3.3)	0 (0)	5 (16.7)	4 (14.8)	0 (0)	10 (6.8)
	T1A1	Acc.	No. 27	30 (100)	29	23	29	138 (93.9)

0		(%)	(90.0)		(96.7)	(85.2)	(96.7)	
	Rej.	No.	3 (10.0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	4 (14.8)	1 (3.3)	9 (6.1)
T1B0	Acc.	No.	10	13	10	7 (25.9)	16	56 (38.1)
	(%)		(33.3)	(43.3)	(33.3)		(53.3)	
1	Rej.	No.	20	17	20	20	14	91 (61.9)
	(%)		(66.6)	(56.7)	(66.6)	(74.1)	(46.7)	
T1B0	Acc.	No.	14	18	17	17	18	84 (57.1)
	(%)		(46.7)	(60.0)	(56.7)	(63.0)	(60.0)	
2	Rej.	No.	16	12	13	10	12	63 (42.9)
	(%)		(53.3)	(40.0)	(43.3)	(37.0)	(40.0)	
T1B0	Acc.	No.	11	11	12	11	19	64 (43.5)
	(%)		(36.7)	(36.7)	(40.0)	(40.7)	(63.3)	
3	Rej.	No.	19	19	18	16	11	83 (56.5)
	(%)		(63.3)	(63.3)	(60.0)	(59.3)	(36.7)	
T1B0	Acc.	No.	12	8 (26.7)	6 (20.0)	10	17	53 (36.1)
	(%)		(40.0)			(37.0)	(56.7)	
4	Rej.	No.	18	22	24	17	13	94 (63.9)
	(%)		(60.0)	(73.3)	(80.0)	(63.0)	(43.3)	
T1B0	Acc.	No.	10	14	12	10	16	62 (42.2)
	(%)		(33.3)	(46.7)	(40.0)	(37.0)	(53.3)	
5	Rej.	No.	20	16	18	17	14	85 (57.8)
	(%)		(66.6)	(53.3)	(60.0)	(63.0)	(46.7)	
T1B0	Acc.	No.	6 (20.0)	12	15	7 (25.9)	16	56 (38.1)
	(%)			(40.0)	(50.0)		(53.3)	
6	Rej.	No.	24	18	15	20	14	91 (61.9)
	(%)		(80.0)	(60.0)	(50.0)	(74.1)	(46.7)	
T1B0	Acc.	No.	12	11	9 (30.0)	12	19	63 (42.9)
	(%)		(40.0)	(36.7)		(44.4)	(63.3)	
7	Rej.	No.	18	19	21	15	11	84 (57.1)
	(%)		(60.0)	(63.3)	(70.0)	(55.6)	(36.3)	
T1B0	Acc.	No.	15	12	14	8 (29.6)	12	61 (41.5)
	(%)		(50.0)	(40.0)	(46.7)		(40.0)	
8	Rej.	No.	15	18	16	19	18	86 (58.5)
	(%)		(50.0)	(60.0)	(53.3)	(70.4)	(60.0)	
T1B0	Acc.	No.	28	30 (100)	26	25	30 (100)	139 (94.6)
	(%)		(93.3)		(86.7)	(92.6)		
9	Rej.	No.	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	2 (7.4)	0 (0)	8 (5.4)
	(%)							
T1B1	Acc.	No.	28	28	26	20	28	130 (88.4)
	(%)		(93.3)	(93.3)	(86.7)	(74.1)	(93.3)	
0	Rej.	No.	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	4 (13.3)	7 (25.9)	2 (6.7)	17 (11.6)
	(%)							

Although the general rate of acceptance of relative clauses without resumption is low, the last two sentences (T1B09 & T1B10) achieved a remarkably higher rate of acceptance (94.6% & 88.4%, respectively, compared with <58% on the other T1B tokens). The relative clauses in these two sentences were with the relativisers *maa* and *man*, respectively, which have different characteristics from the other relativisers used in the rest of the test sentences.

As explained in section 1.3, MSA uses different relativisers depending on the gender and the number of the referent like *ʔallaḏii* for masculine singular, *ʔallatii* for feminine singular, *ʔallaḏiina* for masculine plural, etc. However, *maa* and *man* do not have these gender and number specifications and can be used with referents of any gender and number. One difference between these two relativisers though is that *maa* is used with inanimate referents whereas *man* is used with animate referents. The test items results here seem to suggest that relative clauses using these two relativisers are more accepted in MSA than with other relativisers when the resumptive pronoun is absent.

Discussion

The research questions of this study seek to answer whether Arabs across the Arab world represent ‘uniform’ (L1 type) or ‘variant’ (L2 type) versions of MSA end-state grammar, and if variant, whether this is due to age of first exposure to MSA (AoE), influence of the colloquial dialect (the L1), or both. Briefly, the results of this study showed that participant groups of distinct AoE and L1 were found not significantly different in terms of performance acceptability judgment task (AJT), which aimed to assess the participants’ MSA competence of resumption in object relative clauses. Also, the results showed that there was no statistical effect of the two independent variables: AoE and the colloquial dialect.

Is MSA Competence of L1 or L2 type?

It is assumed in this study that E-CLA and E-CGA participants had acquired MSA as a second L1 along with the colloquial dialect. This is because they started acquiring MSA naturally via immersion when they were 2 or 3 years old while their acquisition of the colloquial dialect was still in process. In contrast, participants of the other groups with relatively late exposure to MSA (at age 6) are assumed to have acquired MSA as an L2 at least due to their knowledge of the previously acquired dialect when they started acquiring MSA.

Contrary to the hypothesis of this study, the data presented in the previous section strongly point to the suggestion that the participants with late exposure to MSA, who represent the majority of Arabic speakers across the Arab world, succeeded in acquiring a native-like (uniform) MSA competence, despite their late exposure to MSA and the variant colloquial dialects they speak; at least in relation to their ultimate knowledge of resumption in MSA object relative clauses.

These empirical findings do not support the acquisition theory-based expectation that L2 acquirers will not achieve native-like competence due to lack of access to UG (if it is assumed that the critical period had declined or come to its end before age 6) and/or due to L1 influence (e.g., Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1990; Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994; White, 2003). If it was true that L2 acquirers had no or only partial access to UG due to end of the critical period (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1990), the current findings could perhaps be explained by the fact that even the late acquirers of MSA in this study started acquisition at age 6 which is still early and may be within the age boundaries of the critical period during which access to UG is still available, and their innate ability is still active. If, however, full access to UG is available for L2 acquirers anyway regardless of AoE, as the FT/FA model by Schwartz & Sprouse (1994) assumes, then the participants in this study may have managed to

restructure their transferred L1 grammar to converge on native knowledge of the target language before reaching the end-state stage of acquiring MSA.

The syntactic phenomenon investigated was not expected to be salient in the L2 input due to the fact that it is optional in MSA and one of the two options is always available in the L1 grammar. Also, exposure to input was almost entirely limited to the written form of MSA for the *late* acquirers. Yet, if the participants are to be assumed to have managed to restructure their L1 grammars, they must have encountered clear and obvious cues in the MSA input during their acquisition process, which helped them to acquire the MSA syntactic structure under study. This, however, does not necessarily mean that speakers of MSA with *lateAoE* have managed to restructure all the properties of their L1 grammar and acquire a full native-like competence of MSA. In fact, speakers of MSA may have failed to restructure other grammatical properties of their L1 that were not covered by this study, due to obscure or insufficient input. Therefore, further research is needed to investigate acquisition of other syntactic structures as well to confirm or disconfirm the present findings.

Moreover, there are further reasons why this finding that speakers of different dialects represent native-like competence in MSA cannot be considered to be conclusive based solely on the data presented here. As Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (2003) suggest, it is essential to assess the learners' ultimate attainment in other sub-components of the target language as well, to come to a final conclusion about native-like attainment. The empirical data presented in this study assessed knowledge of grammatical competence within certain linguistic domains, whereas further empirical evidence must be sought in other linguistic domains (e.g., phonology) to heighten the validity of the current finding and reach a final conclusion about whether or not speakers of MSA have actually attained a comprehensive native-like proficiency. Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (2003) claim that close investigation of early L2 acquisition may reveal at the level of subtle details that the subjects are different from monolingual native speakers. Such a claim implies that differences between observed native-like and actual native competence may be missed when investigating general attainment of specific structures in a single linguistic domain. This possibility becomes even more probable with cases like the case of acquiring MSA for which there are no monolingual native speakers to compare with.

Although, in general, resumption was treated as optional in the present experimental study; the rates of obligatory resumption were still relatively high: up to 50% in some cases. This contrasts with descriptive grammars of MSA. According to these descriptive grammars, these two syntactic phenomena are optional not obligatory in MSA. Moreover, such judgements cannot be attributed to L1 influence as they occurred in data of participants who speak dialects that are not different from MSA with regard to resumption (CGA). Also, participants of groups with early as well as late exposure to MSA produced this type of data, which factors out the effect of AoE. Despite the fact that performance of the study's participants was uniform across the variant groups, existence of such data suggests that the MSA competence developed by these participants may be different from the competence of monolingual native speakers of MSA if they exist. Another explanation of the existence for such data could be that MSA has undergone some change, and descriptive grammars simply do not reflect the current version of it. The latter explanation though is less appealing, as

analysis of judgments by test items did not reveal clear patterns of judgment regarding specific test items as unacceptable without resumption or agreement. Unfortunately, it is not possible to investigate these explanations further because (by hypothesis) monolingual speakers of MSA do not exist.

The Critical Period and the Effect of AoE

The data of the current study showed that participants with AoE of 6 or before have managed to attain a uniform L1-type knowledge of at least the syntactic phenomenon under investigation. If a critical period exists for second language acquisition, this suggests that the participants of the current study were at the optimal phase of the critical period when they started acquiring MSA. Since all the participants in this study started acquiring MSA at age 6 or earlier, and they performed in a uniform manner, the present data cannot point to the end of the optimal phase. Future research may include participants with later AoE and make correlation analyses between AoE and attainment to contribute with specifications on when the optimal phase of the critical period starts and comes to an end.

The results of the current study contrast with Meisel's(2008) and Shim's (1993) results in relation to the end of the optimal phase. This is because the participants with late AoE in this study started acquiring MSA later than age 3;7 and age 5 and, yet, they managed to perform in a uniform manner that is comparable to that of the participants with early AoE to MSA. Although it is not clear from analysing this data alone when the optimal phase comes to its end with the case of speakers of Arabic dialects acquiring MSA, this extended optimal phase, compared to what Meisel and Shim reported, can be explained by the typological closeness between the Arabic dialects and MSA. This is in analogy to Birdsong & Molis's(2001) explanation of the extended optimal phase effects on their participants' performance compared to the results of Johnson & Newport (1989). Birdsong & Molis(2001) argue that because there is a great deal of similarity between Spanish (L1) and English (L2), compared to Korean and Chinese (L1) and English (L2) in Johnson & Newport (1989), even participants who arrived relatively late in an English speaking community could successfully master L2 properties. Similarly, in a partial replication of Johnson & Newport (1989) but with Spanish and Chinese learners of English, Bialystok & Miller (1999) found that the typological similarities between Spanish and English could be a reason for the slightly delayed age effects noted for the Spanish learners, compared to the Chinese learners. This applies even more so to the situation of the participants of the current study. Although there are differences between the colloquial dialects of Arabic and MSA, there are, at the same time, a large number of similarities between them across all the linguistic domains, compared to L1-L2 pairings in Meisel's (German-French) and in Shim's (Korean-English) studies. This may have helped the participants of the current study to have extended the period of optimal sensitivity to MSA input that shows specifications on the syntactic phenomena under investigation helping them to acquire these phenomena successfully.

Meisel(2008; 2009; 2011), following Seliger(1978) and Schachter(1996), argues that there are several sensitive periods within the critical period. According to him, the grammatical domains should not be expected to be affected during a single age period. Because past research has pointed out that different areas of grammar do not develop simultaneously, Meisel argues that "the critical period is better understood as a cluster of

sensitive phases during which the LAD [the language acquisition device] is optimally prepared to integrate new information into developing grammars” (2011, p. 205). In fact, he argues that even acquisition of properties within a single grammatical domain might not be affected during a single age period, as development of properties of a single grammatical domain may occur at different age periods. Moreover, Mesiel(2011) assumes that each sensitive phase during the critical period should be viewed as starting with a relatively short onset followed by an optimal period followed by a declining period toward a gradual offset.

If this assumption is correct, then it is safe to claim that at least the sensitive period for acquiring resumption in MSA object relative clauses had not faded out by the age of 6. In fact, it is safe to claim that the optimal period of this sensitive phase had not passed by this age. This is evident by the fact that participants with AoE at age 6 or before managed to acquire this syntactic phenomenon and perform in the task of the study in a uniform manner. By adopting this assumption about critical periods, the possibility of finding age related effects on the acquisition of other syntactic phenomena or the acquisition of other phenomena in different grammatical domains is not excluded; it is possible that the sensitive phase(s) for acquiring those phenomena could be over by the age of 6. Thus, further research is needed to confirm or disconfirm the major finding of this study in relation to the ultimate attainment of acquiring MSA starting at age 6.

The Effect of the Colloquial Dialects (the L1s)

The data of this study showed that the variant colloquial varieties of Arabic, which the participants speak as their L1, had no significant effect on the results. Keeping in mind the conclusion that participants who started acquiring MSA at age 6 did not miss the optimal phase of the sensitive period for acquiring the investigated syntactic phenomenon, it might be appropriate to claim that all the participants had full access to UG when acquiring MSA, regardless of which model of transfer in L2 acquisition is considered. In addition, the fact that participants performed in a uniform manner despite the variant colloquial dialects they speak suggests that they were successful in restructuring their variant L1 knowledge to converge on a uniform MSA grammar. This also leads to the conclusion that despite the fact that exposure to MSA was almost limited to the written form for the late acquirers, the required MSA input for restructuring L1 knowledge of the syntactic phenomena under study must have been adequately available to these participants together with their full access to UG.

Montrul(2010) claims that L1 knowledge of structures at both internal and external linguistic domain interfaces is subject to transfer more than L1 knowledge of purely syntactic structures. This claim places further emphasis on the assumption here that the participants with late AoE had at least transferred their L1 knowledge of resumption in object relative clauses when they started acquiring MSA, but they also managed to restructure this knowledge to a uniform representation of MSA. This is because acquiring resumption in MSA relative clauses can be claimed to involve knowledge from more than one linguistic domain as well. Resumption in object relatives can be claimed to be at the syntax-semantics interface if resumptive pronouns are viewed as adding more specificity to the reference of the relativised element (see Alresaini, 2007).

Oh (2010) concludes that it is possible to recover from negative transfer of L1 knowledge at the syntax-semantics interface. The results of the current study support Oh's (2010) conclusion. As mentioned earlier, L-CLA and L-CEA participants were successful in acquiring MSA properties of resumption in object relative clauses. If it is assumed that these learners had transferred their dialects' grammars, then they seem to have managed to restructure from these grammars that allow only base-generation strategy to form object relatives with resumptive pronouns to a grammar that allows both this base-generation strategy and a movement strategy to form this type of relatives with a gap filled with a trace instead of a resumptive pronoun depending on whether more specificity is needed.

Conclusion

This paper discussed the findings of an experimental study investigating whether participants with exposure to MSA at age 6 succeeded in acquiring a native-like competence in MSA. It was concluded that these participants have managed to attain native-like end-state knowledge of at least resumption in object relative clauses. However, further investigation of other phenomena in the syntactic domain and other linguistic domains is required for a comprehensive assessment of the ultimate attainment of MSA by learners who start acquisition at age 6. The paper also discussed the critical period and effect of the AoE on the ultimate attainment of the target language. It was argued that starting to acquire MSA at age 6 does not affect negatively the ultimate attainment of at least knowledge of resumption in object relative clauses. It seems that participants who start at this age do not miss the optimal phase of the relevant sensitive period. Further research with a wide range of AoEs is needed to determine specifications of the age boundaries of the sensitive period or the critical period as a whole. This paper also discussed the effect of the colloquial dialects on the end-state grammar of MSA. The participants seem to have managed to restructure their transferred L1 knowledge due to full access to UG and the adequate availability of the relevant MSA input. Thus, L1 knowledge was found not to have a significant effect on the results.

Notes

1. This paper is an extract from my PhD thesis titled: 'Acquisition of Modern Standard Arabic by Speakers of Different Arabic Colloquial Varieties' (2012), at the University of York, UK.
2. Children in normal situations may hear MSA on TV or Mosques, for example, before they go to the primary school, but the amount of exposure varies from one child to another, and for most, there is no chance to communicate by using it.
3. This group was originally planned to include 30 participants like the other groups, but the researcher had to leave Syria due to the growing political conflict in the country in April 2011, leaving behind the remaining 3 participants.
4. It was planned to collect data for this group from Egyptian students in Egypt in January 2011, but the data collection trip was hindered first by delay of sponsoring funds and then the Egyptian Revolution started and made it impossible to go to Egypt at that time. The members of this group, though, were Egyptians who had come with their families who work for a temporary time in Saudi Arabia, but they had had their primary and secondary education in Egypt.

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The X-Factor Profile Characteristics of English Language Teachers in Non-Native Setting

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Abstract

Phrases such as 'learning English is fun' or 'English is fun' are often heard when one speaks about learning English especially in a context where English is not the mother tongue of the learners. What about when the focus shifts to English language teachers on the other hand, who are non-native speakers of English? The focus on the teacher other than the curriculum, syllabus, material and pedagogy needs considerable attention in promoting effective English language learning. What are the profile characteristics of an English teacher that can help most importantly first boost the students' motivation and interest to learn English. Studies have explored in general the characteristics of effective language teachers but to what extent has it identified the 'X' factors. This paper addresses a discussion on the the profile characteristics of specifically non – native English language teachers. It focuses on the relevance of the 'qualities' of English language teachers' in relations to English teacher attributes specifically. We gathered the views and opinions of English language instructors teaching English at one of the local higher institutions who are non-native and who have had twenty years' experience in the field of ELT (English Language Teaching) on what they believe is the X factor characteristics profile of an English language teacher.

Keywords: profiling, characteristics, English language teachers, non-native

1.0 Introduction

‘Profiling’ is defined as ‘the use of personal characteristics or behaviour patterns to make generalizations about a person’. ‘Characteristics’ in general refers to attributes, feature, quality, traits, facet, mannerism, habit, idiosyncrasy or what is at times referred as the ‘x-factor’. Sofian, (2007) lists the characteristics of language teachers which incorporate their interest, preparation of good lesson plans, punctuality, consistency, modesty as well as good control of classroom management. A study by Shishavan & Sadeghi (2009) on characteristics of an effective English language teacher as perceived by Iranian teachers and learners of English state that “that teachers and learners of EFL may have overlapping and at times divergent perceptions on desirable qualities of a good language teacher” (p. 136).

While some understanding of teacher characteristics exists in the teaching profession, the particular elements that constitute a more comprehensive and balanced profile of a teacher, in particular, an English language teacher, has been less explored. In fact there have not been many attempts at determining a profile of English language teachers as initiative towards boosting non-native speaking students’ interest and motivation and that contributes to effective English language learning. This profile of English teachers is relevant to the present day, and within the local non-native speaking context with specific reference to non-native speaking teachers; second language speaker (L2) teachers.

Profiling of English language teachers’ characteristics is also necessary given the scope of duties or the demands facing them. English language teachers need to have similar characteristics as teachers in general, but also those that are specific to language teaching. For example, there are general elements to be given emphasis in the teaching of the English language such as the curriculum, the syllabus, the teaching approach and the teaching and learning materials, to name a few. Much attention is in practice given in teacher training colleges to teacher professionalism in general ways or qualification for ‘how to be a teacher’. This will include for instance, a teacher’s classroom management, a teacher’s questioning technics and others that relate to how the teacher carries out a lesson. However, the specific English language teacher’s self-characteristics, meaning the teachers’ behaviour, traits and attributes have not been determined or addressed a great deal especially so for L2 teachers teaching L2 students.

What is the characteristic profile of an English language teacher? What would be an even more significant question would be the ‘X-factor characteristics profile of an English language teacher’, thus the professionalism of English language teachers? An ‘X- factor’ is defined as i) a variable in a given situation that could have the most significant impact on the outcome and ii) a noteworthy special talent or quality. The question of quality is an important one as it comprises important elements such as traits of the teachers. An action research conducted on students with very poor level of skills in English found that several traits of language teachers that helped to enhance motivation for learning English were identified by the students accordingly (Othman et.al, 2011, 2014; Ya’acob A et. al 2013). Among the traits identified were teachers who were ‘interesting’ (“teachers not boring”), teachers who have ‘no favoritism’, teachers who are ‘sporting’ and teachers ‘who are ‘good’ and ‘not aggressive’. Since learning language needs to be fun and meaningful, these traits figured predominantly in the views of the respondents in the above study. These views also provide insights to the relevance of determining traits as one of the characteristics of an English teacher.

This paper discusses the characteristics that would contribute to the profiling of quality English language teachers. The main aim is to promote teachers' professionalism in their language teaching career. It focuses on the relevance of the 'qualities' of English language teachers' in relation to the attributes that English language teachers specifically should have as opposed to attributes of just teachers in general. It reviews some of the elements of teacher characteristics derived from works carried out on teacher profiling. This is done to arrive at an understanding of the subject of teacher characteristics and its relation to effective teaching and learning and to provide a platform from which to advance the idea of English language teacher profiling. A framework proposed by Gabrielatos (2002) is used for this purpose because of its relevance to the discussion on teacher characteristics and teaching effectiveness. The views and opinions of language instructors on the X factor characteristics profile of an English language teacher were also obtained from instructors who have had twenty years' experience in the field of ELT (English Language Teaching) in one of the local public universities. The question posed to the instructors was in regard to what they understood about the profile of teachers (in general) and the profile of English language teachers.

2.0 Framework of Effective Language Teachers

This part of the paper starts by looking at the Framework of Effective Language Teachers proposed by Gabrielatos (2002), as illustrated in Figure 1.0. The framework illustrates the relationship between three elements namely, methodology, language and personality. The framework forms the basis of the term 'person - who- teaches ' (Julian Edge, 1999). This framework is adopted by Gabrielatos (2002) to illustrate further the context of 'person - who-teaches –language’.

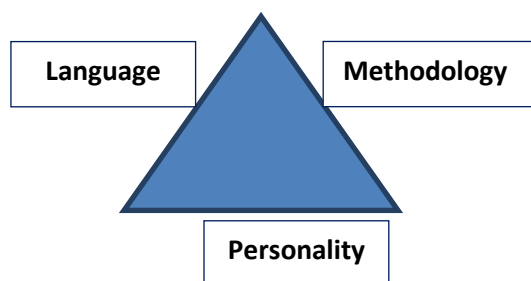


Figure1.0: Framework of Effective Language Teachers

Source: Gabrielatos (2002)

Each side of the triangle represents each element of language teaching. The broader the space indicates the broader the effectiveness of a teacher. It proposes that when the development of each element is balanced among the three, the level of effectiveness would be higher. This means that the when equal perimeter of the sides of the triangle would reflect a balanced development. Observations carried out by Gabrielatos (2002) suggest that a balanced side corner of this framework is very important. It is even more important that all three elements are above the ' threshold ' level.

According to Gabrielatos (2002), when knowledge of the language is rather limited, what is delivered by teachers can be less accurate. When teaching methods are not appropriate,

learning takes a longer time and leads to reduced motivation to learn the language among students. Further, when students find it difficult to use the language, there is, indirectly, less opportunity for language use in the classroom which will then lead to students losing interest in learning. This triangle is an impression of a rather complex relationship of characteristics of language teachers. However, it is a valid initial platform upon which to identify the basic elements that make up the characteristics profile of language teachers in general and English language teachers specifically in contributing to the effectiveness of the teaching and learning of English language in the classroom.

2.1 Effective English Language Teaching

Language is a complex entity. Given the diversity in the context of the use of language, it is not surprising that learning a foreign language is usually not quick or easy. Gabrielatos (2003) argues that a language teacher should have knowledge of the language being taught and teaching methods as well as possesses good personal qualities. For example, there is a need for teachers to have qualities such as patience, an open mind and good communication skills. Even in the context of limited infrastructure or physical facilities or insufficient materials, the teacher still needs to continue teaching. In fact, teachers need also to consistently ensure the effectiveness of teaching and learning in the classroom language skills.

There are two general views on the scope of the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of language teaching. Gabrielatos (2002) places emphasis on three matters related to teaching effectiveness based on the framework in Figure 1.0. In his view each side of the triangle illustrates elements that form the overall frame of reference of the effectiveness of an English language teacher. This is as shown in Figure 2.0.

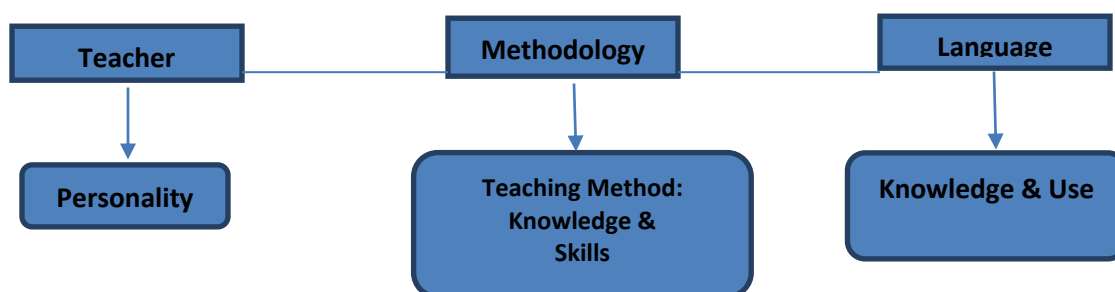


Figure 2.0: Elements of Effectiveness of Language Teacher Teaching of English

Source: Gabrielatos (2002)

2.2. Personality

Some key aspects contribute to the element of personality. These aspects include teacher self-awareness, interpersonal skills, ability to observe, to think critically, use of the experience, sensitivity to context, attitude towards change, development, diversity, quality of co-operation, power, work, perception of learning, teacher / student, student development.

2.3. Teaching Method

In terms of teaching method, teachers need to be aware of diverse views regarding the methods of teaching itself. They also need to look at existing teaching materials and be able to evaluate the appropriateness of the materials in class. Teachers need to be aware of existing theories and relate them to the materials designed and lessons planned for effective teaching and learning. It is also important to think of the problems that are likely to arise for students or teachers and be able to figure out how to address these problems. Other than that, teachers need to also initiate action research in class to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching and learning.

2.4 Language

Language element includes several key aspects including the teachers' skills and knowledge, concern for language, views on language, use of own language, views on the implications of language analysis and their perceptions on the students' level of language proficiency. Gabrielatos (2002) finds that these aspects may overlap. For example, teacher perception or knowledge can influence his or her teaching method. Teacher's level of self-consciousness or 'self-awareness' may also affect teacher's level of awareness towards what he believes to be effective language teaching.

2.5 The Concept of Effective Teaching

Teachers and school leaders are the most important school-based drivers of student outcomes (Malaysia Education Blue Print 2013). They are the ones responsible for ensuring that effective teaching and learning takes place in the classroom. Effective teaching & learning is defined as the process of teaching and learning and the quality of the processes that can develop human potential to the optimum level in terms of psychomotor, cognitive and affective domains. Dato 'Dr. Abdul Shukor Abdullah (1999) had stated that effective teachers demonstrate quality teaching and learning. He stresses that an effective teacher is a teacher who always tries to improve the quality of teaching and who is capable of promoting the development of student personality that encompasses a variety of personal values such as good morals, virtues, competence and adaptability to any given situation. He referred to the Policy Statement on Standards for Quality Education in Malaysia, (2001), which focused on a number of principles that contribute to the quality of teaching of a teacher. Among them are:

- a. varied approaches, methods and techniques that involve students actively
- b. use of support materials that are relevant to the current level of achievement, potential and progress of students;
- c. continuous evaluation and improvement of R & D.

He concludes that effective teaching by teachers not only include aspects of the curriculum, but also covers a wider scope such as leadership style, the culture of science and thinking, classroom management, motivation and encouragement and leadership curricula in the workplace. In relation to the profiling concept advanced in this paper, this view can be seen to relate to the framework proposed by Gabrielatos presented earlier where the main question is what constitutes a balanced triangle for a teaching staff in general and a language teacher specifically? A question to ask further is how can a language teacher determine what is required to achieve a high level of effectiveness in his or her teaching? Which element or elements should be given priority?

Taat (2012) argues that in relation to effective teaching and learning, teaching' is the process of delivering knowledge, information and skills to students whilst 'berkesan' (in Malay) to mean 'effective' is something that brings an impact. According to him, effective teaching is described as teaching that is capable of achieving the targeted outcomes or objectives or at the very least teaching that results in better student. Al - Kailany and Iyad (1986) propose that teachers should opt for methods that can have a profound impact not only on the understanding of students but also affects the soul of the students. Miller (1990) on the other hand, suggests that every teaching must first be preceded with a plan.

All the above arguments place emphasis on the responsibility of the teacher and which is applicable to the context of language teaching and learning. This included contexts where there are differing variables at play such as a language teacher who teaches in schools as compared to teachers who teach students at tertiary level. In fact, there may exist a difference between teaching English as a second language and teaching English as a foreign language to international students.

3.0 Profile of Characteristics of English Language Teachers

3.1 Personality and Professionalism of Teachers

Western countries often emphasize the characteristics of teachers in general in relation to the teaching of a foreign language. Nik Hashim et.al (2014) propose a few examples of these characteristics such as the need for teachers to enhance students' interests, the need to use effective teaching methods and materials and to plan language activities. However, he also puts forth the views of Zhang & Watkins (2007), who question whether there is the possibility of overlooking the 'human aspect' of teaching such as in giving a supportive and caring atmosphere as well as the necessary academic competence, promoting good personal qualities and morality and facilitating student learning.

Many in the teaching profession are aware that teachers should be highly competent in teaching and at the same time have appealing personalities to ensure effective student learning. However, to what extent does a teacher's personality affect teaching style? Zamriat. al (2009) suggest that it does to a certain extent. For example when personal examples are given during teaching, a friendly rapport between teacher and students can be created. The writers also believe that teachers who use this approach normally form exemplary behaviour and exhibit ways of thinking for students. They often oversee, guide and provide directions for students on how to do tasks. These teachers encourage their students to make observations and then to emulate the approaches that have been used or shown by the teacher. Though one may argue that this personal model teaching style is perhaps more appropriate for pupils at the school level, it is from experience that such teaching style is feasibly necessary for effective teaching at tertiary level. It is of equal importance too that such teaching styles are adopted in the teaching of English language whether it is English as a foreign language or English as a second language.

3.2 Professional English Language Teachers

What is understood by the term professionalism of teachers? This is a question often raised when the subject of professionalism of teachers is discussed. Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (10th edition) defines professionalism as the conduct, aims or qualities that characterize or mark a profession or a professional person. Dewan Eja Pro (2004) on the other

hand outlines several criteria for professionalism which include attributes and skills for performing a particular task expected of a professional. The question is how far is the subject of professionalism of a teacher considered or questioned when doing teacher profiling? In addition, what is meant by the 'professionalism of English language teachers' as compared to professionalism of Malay language teachers or any other foreign language teachers? In this context the pedagogical aspect undoubtedly plays a very important role. Pedagogies need to change according to the needs and developments in the field of education. Enhancement of the knowledge and skills of teachers in line with the latest developments in science and engineering, for example, may be necessary and the use of the latest applications related to teaching need to be considered in order to enhance the professionalism of teachers.

Teacher professionalism also involves the subject of teaching materials and teaching aids. Effective teachers need to be concerned, for example, about use of equipment and courseware in teaching. A teacher who has good knowledge of pedagogy often places a high degree of emphasis on using up-to-date materials and those that are appropriate to the maturity level of the students. Also important is the appropriateness of teaching aids for maintaining the students' interest in learning a foreign language. In this case, conventional teaching aids can also be used effectively, but the use of computers has often been important and helpful. However, the method of teaching and how these teaching aids are used or implemented in class requires pedagogical maturity and high level of professionalism As Othman, (2006) states "diversifying the use of teaching aids should be done by a teacher to maintain a high level of student interest". (p 63)

To maintain a high level of student interest can however be a big challenge for teachers especially when the students see no real interests or need to learn a foreign language, or believe that learning a language would not bring any benefit to them. An example of such a case is when learning a language is a graduation requirement. There are also instances when speaking a foreign language is not required outside the campus since the existing language can still be spoken and readily understood by others. Another phenomenon relates to the context of foreign students where they find that they could still function in English because it is a second language in Malaysia. Likewise, Arab students from the Middle East are still able to speak in Arabic because there is a population of Arab-speaking individuals in Malaysia. Thus, to maintain a high level of student interest in learning a language is not easy.

Borg (2006), in his study to identify characteristics of foreign language instructors finds that methodology is one of the features that primarily distinguishes foreign language subject teachers from teachers of other subjects such as economics or history . He believes that teaching English for example requires a progressive approach for teaching and learning. This is true for Bahasa Melayu teachers. Variation in the use of teaching aids and teaching materials such as use of songs in class is encouraged, although doing this can be a challenge when implemented in cultures that are not interested in singing as an activity. Choosing an appropriate song can therefore be difficult. In the teaching of English, teachers have made use of children's songs with simple melody, or melodious folk songs as these are more appropriate as teaching materials.

4.0 perspective of English Language Teachers

The teacher respondents provided input involving key characteristic elements of teachers. Initially the respondents defined ' the characteristics of teachers ' along the lines of years of teaching experience, areas of expertise and interest in teaching. However, gradually, other aspects they believed to contribute to the effectiveness of teaching and learning were raised, as will be described below.

4.1 Teaching philosophy

Based on feedback given by teacher respondents, teaching philosophy is one element that defines a characteristic of a teacher. Emphasis is given to a teaching philosophy that sees learning as a lifelong experience. In adherence to this philosophy, the teacher often would make use of 'realia ' in the classroom or, if ' realia ' cannot be brought into the classroom, he or she would place students in a suitable environment outside the classroom. The respondents see language as being a lifelong skill whereby students will need to take whatever knowledge about the language and skills required for use outside of the classroom in real life setting. Therefore teachers of English will need to be forward thinking and create whatever environment is necessary for students to use the language as preparation later on in their lives.

Teaching philosophy is also seen as having the knowledge of the science of teaching and learning. According to a language instructor interviewed, it is important for teachers to hold on to concepts such as ' behaviourism ' or ' constructivism ' to provide them with direction in teaching and learning the language. A teacher should be clear about the teaching and learning principles he or she brings into the classroom. Without that knowledge, learning outcomes specified will not be easily achieved. In this case the practices of the instructor are not likely to be in tandem with the philosophy of teaching and learning. The subject of philosophy or the science of teaching and learning is broad and encompasses many aspects. The question facing English language teachers is how these concepts can be applied to the teaching of the English language in practical ways.

4.2 Realistic and practical

There is a need for teachers to be realistic and practical in his or her practices. For example, teachers need to be aware that reference books and textbooks provided for the purpose of teaching and learning in the classroom are only as a guide. It is the responsibility of the teacher to assess whether any of the existing textbooks or instructional materials is appropriate for students. Therefore, teachers need to be able to think and act sensibly during the teaching and learning process in the classroom and make decisions accordingly, such as when to use a particular teaching aid or how much of it should be exploited in the classroom. Existing teaching materials is one element that sets the parameters for teaching and learning, but they must bring about benefits to the students and not the teachers.

4.3 Role of Auditor

A teacher should act as an 'auditor' in a sense that they should be able to assess the classroom learning situation, including the students' emotions during the learning process. In doing so, teachers would be able to see if there is a need to vary the teaching approaches used or materials used. In other words, teachers need to be flexible rather than rigidly following one particular method or approach. Here the emphasis should be on student -oriented approach

(student oriented) and material- oriented. The teacher in the role of the auditor must be able to identify students' progress and achievement during the learning process. If a student has achieved the objectives specified, instructors could enhance the student's achievement further by setting other objectives to provide other learning opportunities for students.

4.4 As a Role Model

Teachers should be a role model to students in terms of skills and appearance, language use and the way he or she communicates and interacts with students. In this case, the personality of the teacher plays a role. There is also a need for teachers to be a resource for information, a 'coach ' and counselor. Ability to act as counselor is an important characteristic of a teacher. The position of teachers as role models can help build students' personalities.

4.5 Language Competence and Knowledge

Language teachers must have a good level of language competence and the linguistic knowledge of the language being taught. In other words they must have command of the language and are adept at using the language themselves. For example, not only is it important for language teachers to demonstrate the correct pronunciation and intonation in his or her teaching, they need to also have the ability to identify pronunciation problems among students and find an appropriate technique or method to address the problem. With this knowledge and competence, lessons can be planned in more organized ways important aspects of any learning units can be identified. In addition, knowledgeable teachers are able to formulate examination questions appropriate to the learning objectives. There is also knowledge of the culture of the language. In this case, the knowledge of the language itself may not be sufficient in English language teaching. Respondents spoke about knowing the culture such as the culture of the language in terms of the manner and style of speaking. This aspect is not restricted to pronunciation alone, but more of the English teacher getting into character and to be able to speak with the correct facial expressions and mannerism of a native speaker of English.

4.6 Accountability

A high level of accountability is another element which is said to form the profile of teachers. According to the respondents, accountability on the part of the teachers helps students become more conscientious and persistent in learning. One of the reasons for this is that instructors who take responsibility for student learning are willing to provide learning support for students in all their academic endeavours. One way of doing this is attending to students' needs when an assignment is given such as explaining and giving examples and guidelines to make the assignment clear to the students. In addition, monitoring students' progress and performance for the purpose of providing the necessary guidance and assistance is also necessary.

4.7 Personality

Personality is defined as attitude, interest and patience that make up the characteristics of a teacher. The ability to adapt one's teaching according to the needs of the students is dependent on the personality of the teacher. For example, a teacher who only focuses on only the syllabus prescribed regardless of whether the student has achieved the level of understanding required can be said to lack the personality for teaching. Voice delivery, intonation and appropriate mannerisms in class play a part too towards boosting spirits or passion for learning. Teachers who ignore student involvement (engagement) in what should be a two-way learning

process can hinder the effectiveness of learning. Thus, there are particular traits that language teachers should possess. Besides being understanding, respondents believe that English language teachers should be 'exuberant and enthusiastic' 'vivacious' and 'communicative' in order to create lively and meaningful exchanges in class. They also need to be lively so as to sustain students' interest in class. Closely related to these personal qualities are the teacher's interpersonal skills seen to be important towards creating good teacher-student relationship and ultimately better language learning for the students. One of the skills subsumed under interpersonal skills is tact. English language teachers should possess the necessary strategies and communication skills to correct students' errors and provide improvement measures without demotivating the students in any way. In other words, teachers' classroom discourse is not to be taken for granted in classrooms.

4.8 Teaching strategies

Respondents are also in agreement that English language teachers should have a variety of teaching strategies to help develop students' skills in using the language. In this sense, the professional qualities of the teacher play a big role. Nonetheless, respondents also believed that English language teachers should also be innovative in their approaches in that they are willing to vary their strategies according to students' needs, current thinking and current ways of learning. For example, reading in the 21st century is no longer restricted to hardbound copy of text, but is now more widespread to cover reading carried out online where hypermedia materials and other sources of input have become available to the students for their language learning purposes. Respondents believe that in cases like this, the teacher has to be open and accepting of current changes and innovate accordingly. In this regard, both the professional and personal qualities /personality of the language teacher are seen to be important.

5.0 Discussion

The paper illustrates that differing views exist regarding the characteristics of English language teacher, but it is possible to see a general pattern across these views. Many of the characteristics mentioned can be said to be professional in nature such as knowledge and command of the language, knowledge of teaching strategies and approaches and the ability to provide the necessary learning support for students. However, one can also see emphases placed on personal qualities/personality as important characteristics of English language teachers. The views obtained from the Malaysian language teachers illustrate this quite clearly. Since the 'survey' of the teachers was exploratory in nature, and largely perception-based, it is too early to say at this point if in the Malaysian context personal qualities are key or dominant characteristics of English teachers. The findings however can be said to be in line with other studies on teacher qualities carried out by Al-Khairi (2015), and to some extent Borg (2006) where personality and personal qualities appeared quite significantly in the discussion on the characteristics of an English language teacher. It has to be said also that the findings in this paper provide interesting direction for further research and important insight towards establishing a profile of English language teachers, as it is relevant to the Malaysian context. As Borg (2006) argues, the concept of language teachers' characteristic is 'multidimensional' thus discussing or determining 'key distinctive characteristics' of language teachers would have to be 'grounded in particular language teaching contexts' (Borg, 2006 p. 25).

Gabrielatos' (2002) theory on achieving a balance among the three elements that comprise effective language teachers will need to be confirmed through more focused study of teacher characteristics. For instance there is indication that this balance can be achieved such as in cases where variation in teaching strategies needs to be accompanied by willingness to change and innovate, in cases where using instructional materials need to be done in sensible ways. There are also times when methodological considerations need to go in tandem with the changing times, thus the need to be reflective and adaptable.

6.0 Conclusion

The characteristics profiling of language teachers in general and English language teachers specifically are significant toward contributing to the effectiveness of language teaching and learning. Gabrielatos' theory (2002), which highlighted the triangulation of the three elements of Language, Method and Personality synchronises the perceptions on characteristics profiling of language teachers gathered from experienced teachers themselves. In particular, the characteristic features of English language teachers take into account the need for the teachers to be versatile and adaptable in providing a learning context that is beneficial for students.

There is a need to communicate to teachers the importance of recognizing the profile of teacher characteristics, as advanced in this paper, and its relevance to effectiveness in teaching and learning, including English language teaching. The implication for teacher training colleges is quite significant because if identifying teacher characteristics could bring about better teaching and learning, teacher training colleges should give emphasis on teacher characteristics profiling to focus on building teacher characteristics toward training or developing better language teachers. More focus should be given to elements of personality, commitment and accountability of language teachers. In the teaching and learning of Malay language as a foreign language to foreign speakers, besides personality and the others, knowledge of the culture and characteristics of the foreign learners are also necessary. These characteristics should be appropriate with, if not adapted to the maturity of foreign students in general and cultural diversity likely to affect the personality of the foreign students.

The subject of 'Profiling' advanced in this paper is still at the preliminary stage. Further feedback, for instance, needs to be obtained from a larger number of respondents to provide a better view of the characteristic elements of a language teacher. The feedback reported in this paper seems general as well, but does hold promise in terms of recognizing the idea of the 'characteristic English language teacher'. The results obtained thus far commensurate with theory, but more evidence is obviously needed to give a balanced view of the existing profile. There is also a need to consider elements that could differ from existing findings such as language teachers and teaching in the 21st century, especially with respect to the English language.

While this paper puts forth the relevance of the 'profiling characteristics' of English language teachers with supporting views and opinions of teachers in the Malaysian context, its relevance should extend to the region of ASEAN (The Association of Southeast Asian Nations) too where English is mainly taught by the local non-native English speaker teachers. The

awareness of the need to be competent in communicating the lingua franca at international arena is indispensable among the citizens of ASEAN especially the youth of ASEAN countries.

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The Effect of Study Habits on English Language Achievement

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Abstract

This study aimed to identify the study habits used by English as Second Language Level three students in the Community College of Qatar (CCQ). It also aimed to find out if there is any difference between the subjects' achievement in reading, writing and grammar as measured by their accumulative averages in the three mentioned language subjects due to their study habits. For the purpose of the study, the subjects' averages were categorized into three levels: low, moderate, and high, according to the successful achievement criteria used in CCQ. The researcher designed a five-Likert questionnaire that included six dimensions of study habits: where to study, how to study, when to study, concentration and memory, management and procrastination, and test anxiety. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 50 students which comprised 37% of a total population of Level 3 female students. Frequencies and percentages to describe demographical variables, means and standard deviations, and one Way ANOVA test were used on the obtained data. The descriptive results showed that the following habits were widespread among students: preparing all study stuff (pencils, pens, highlighters, notebook, book, before starting to study); studying the tough subjects when being most alert; underlining or highlighting the most important ideas on the material being studied; arriving at classes on time (not late); starting with the teachers' handouts when studying, expecting the questions of the test paper in advance. The ANOVA test showed that there are significant differences in the level of students' marks due to concentration and memory in favor of the high achievers. The abstract should be in one single paragraph.

Key words: college students, exam habits, learning, psychology, study habits, study skills

Introduction

Research revealed that there are many factors that influence students' achievement as measured by their averages. These factors can stem from students themselves or associated with external issues as the instructional strategies or school environment (Nuthana and Yenagi, 2009; Al-refaai, Abdul Rab, Saiful Islam, 2013; Abo Moghli, 2013; Mushtaq and Khan, 2012; Anwar, 2013). Working on the same issue, Thomas et al. assert that "The act of studying involves a complex interaction of different variables" (cited in Okpala, Comfort, and Richard, 2004). These variables vary from factors that are related to students themselves and others that concern the environment surrounding the students. Ichado (1998) points out that the environment in which the students come from can greatly influence their performance academically in the school. Nonis and Hudson (2010: 230) mention that

the study habits or strategies that students use to learn, such as paying attention in class, being on time, taking good notes, completing homework in a timely manner, and reading the study material before a lecture are likely to impact their performance. (p.230)

Nuthana and Yenagi (2009) examine the causes of poor academic performance among university undergraduates. Some of these identified factors are student's intellectual ability, poor study habits, achievement motivation, lack of vocational goals, self-concept, low socio-economic status of the family, poor family structure and so on. The students' families and teachers are important external factors impacting their learning. Teaching strategies, parents' support count a lot in students' success. On the other hand, students' motivation, age, self-confidence, aptitude, intelligence, learning styles, attitudes, level of proficiency, level of anxiety, first and other languages learnt, the learning goals, the learner's self-awareness, personality factors, cultural background, gender, learner's personal background, setting and task, learner's beliefs about language learning and cognitive styles, and their study habits influence students' achievement in a way or another (Ellis 1994; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Wharton, 2000). One of the previously-mentioned variables that this current study aimed to explore is the effect of ESL students' study habits on their achievement in different language skills. This study was conducted on a sample of students enrolling in Level 3 in the English Language Center in the Community College of Qatar.

Literature Review

There are different definitions of study habits in educational and psychological previous literature. Business Dictionary.com. (2016) defines study habits as "the behaviors used when preparing for tests or learning academic material." The dictionary gives an example to illustrate this definition: "A person who waits until the very last night before an exam and then stays up all night trying to cram the information into his head is an example of someone with bad study habits." Good (1973) defines the term study habits as: "The student's way of study whether systematic, efficient or inefficient etc" (cited in Chaudhry, 2006:37). Chaudhry (2006:37) points out that good study habits are perceived to be the determinants of the academic performance. Similarly, Garcia (2006), and Crede and Kuncel (2008) highlight a positive relationship between study habits and academic success.

Study habits are classified in research into poor and good habits (Anwar, 2013). Using the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes (SSHA) developed in 1969 by Brown, Holtzman, and Magno (2010:40) studied the effect of four study habits on school students. These habits included:

1. Delay and avoidance: students complete their assignments on time and use their study time wisely
2. Work Methods: effective use of study skills
3. Teacher Approval: students' opinions about teacher classroom behavior and methods.
4. Educational Acceptance: student approval of educational objectives, practices, and requirements

Other researchers list other study habits that may affect students' achievement. Chan, Yum, Rocky, Jegede, and Taplin, (1999) have studied the factors and the study habits that affect low-achievers and high achievers university students. Their research revealed some differences in students' study habits that affect students' achievement, such as the location for studying, the time for studying, the duration they spend in studying, the organizational characteristics, and strategy of studying as thinking aloud or reading silently. Other researchers state many benefits of good study habits. For instance, Apps 1982, Reed 1996, and Rooney and Lipume (1992) (cited in Bajwa, Gujjar, Shaheen, and Ramzan, 2011:176) note that sound and persistent study habits have many advantages: "they reduce test anxiety, enhance student's ability, improve his performance and develop confidence in him." O'Hara (2005) observes that instructors often think of a good student as honest, polite, regularly present in classes and someone who arrives at classes on time, participate in class discussions and asks questions, asks for extra help, does his/her assignments on time and is prepared for tests. In their research, Nonis and Hudson (2010: 231) show that "the relationship between ability and student performance was stronger for students who spent more time studying outside of class than for students who spent less." Researchers distinguish between four concepts: study habit, study attitude, study method, and study skill. To Crede and Kuncel (2008), study skills refer to the study strategies and managing studying time, whereas study habits refer to the routines that the learner does regularly when he studies in an environment that is appropriate to learning. Garcia (2006) argues that "study habits" is a wider term than study skills. Study habits "constitute the overall approach of studying", whereas study skills are the techniques of applying these habits (cited in Alrefaai, Abdul Rab, and Saiful Islam, 2013:14).

Literature also reveals a great difference between good study habits and bad study habits. Researchers classify study habits according to how influential they are to students' academic achievement. On a sample of senior secondary school students, Anwar (2013) investigated correlation between the subjects' study habits and academic achievement of senior secondary school students. The investigator has also compared the influence of good and poor study habits on the academic performance of her subjects. A study Habit Inventory (SHI) was employed to determine the study habits of the students. The findings revealed positive relationship between academic achievement and study habits and the degree of relationship is high. It was also found that the academic performance of students having good and poor study habits differ significantly and good study habits result in high academic achievement.

Iqbal and Shezadi (2002: 60) conducted a research on “Study habits of female students of the university” and concluded that female students of all the departments lack good study habits as well effective study skills.

In a study to identify the difference between the study habits of students from Formal and Non-Formal systems of education in Pakistan, Bajwa, Gujjar, Shaheen, and Ramzan (2011) selected Five hundred students in The Islamia University of Bahawalpur and 500 students from the Bahawalpur region of the Allama Iqbal Open University to answer a forty item five–Likert questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into seven clusters i.e. (Time management, Class attendance and participation, General study strategies, Exam preparation, Goal setting and motivation, Textbook reading and Note taking. The analyzed data revealed that students of formal system are significantly better on time management. Students of non-formal system are significantly better on class attendance and participation, on general studying strategies, on general setting and motivation, and on textbook reading. In contrast, students of formal system are significantly better on exam preparation and note taking.

Abid Hussain’s experimental study (2006) examined the effect of guidance services on students’ study attitudes, study habits and academic achievement. The researcher developed a guidance program for secondary school students explore the effectiveness of guidance services on improving students’ study attitudes, study habits and academic achievement. The results of the study indicated that the guidance services have significant effect on all these factors.

Abid Hussain (2006) cited a research study conducted by Russell and Petrie (1992) that aimed to find out the relationship between study habits and student attitude and academic performance (cumulative GPA) of college students. Findings of this study indicated a positive correlation between study attitude, study habit and academic achievement.

Onwuegbuzie (2001) also conducted a series of studies to find out relationship between study habits and academic success. The studies reported positive relationship between study habits and academic success.

In a study in Jordan, AbuMughli (2013) investigated the most important factors that affect the academic achievement of community college students. The researcher designed three questionnaires for students, teachers, and deans. The results revealed many findings, one of which related to students’ ineffective study habits.

Alrefaai, AbdulRab, and Saiful Islam (2013) attempted to describe the general study habits of major EFL students in King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia, and their relationships with students’ GPA, gender and certain social factors. The sample consisted of 440 students (219 male and 221 female students). The participants completed a 33-item questionnaire. The results indicated that the majority of students study in a haphazard, disorganized way and they just cram before exams. Students who attend their classes’ regularly on time and participate in classroom activities were better achievers than their counterparts. Also, there is a highly significant correlation between society and peers encouragement and certain study habits, such as, punctuality and participation, effort, and preparation for exam. This

study was concluded with a number of practical suggestions, the most important of which is the students' need for guidance.

Purpose of the study

In the current study, the researcher aimed to identify the study habits used by Qatari female students enrolling in Level 3 English as a second language foundation program in the Community College of Qatar. It also aimed to investigate the potential correlation between the subjects' study habits and their average in three language subjects: reading, writing, and grammar. In the academic year of 2015-2016, the CCQ English Language Center offers four successive levels. Students are placed in a particular level according to their scores in the compass placement test, their scores in TOFEL, or IELTS.

More specifically, the purposes of the study are

1. Describing the study habits that are commonly-used by the female students enrolling in Level 3 in the ESL foundation program in the Community College of Qatar.
2. Comparing the study habits of low, moderate and high achieving students.
3. Suggesting study habits to improve the students' achievements based on the potential study findings.

Hypothesis of the Study

There are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the mean scores of the students' achievement (low, moderate, and high) due to their study habits.

Definitions of terms

Study habits: "Yourdictionary.com" defines study habits as the behaviors used by learners when preparing for tests or learning academic material. The same website states the following example of study habits, "A person who waits until the very last night before an exam and then stays up all night trying to cram the information into his head is an example of someone with bad study habits." Good (1998) defines study habits as the way of study whether systematic, efficient, or inefficient.

Low, moderate, and high achievers

According to the standard of the successful achievement in Community College of Qatar, the low achievers are operationally identified as those students whose average in level 3 is 69 and below. Moderate achievers are those whose averages in level 3 are between 70 and 79. High-achievers are those whose averages in level 3 are between 80 and 100.

Limitations of the study

The study was limited to the study habits used by the female students enrolling in the third level in the ESL foundation program in the Community College of Qatar. This means that the results of this study may not be generalized to male students or to other female students in other levels.

Statement of the problem

There is a widespread dissatisfaction among CCQ instructors about the students' accumulative averages in reading, writing, and grammar. There are also instructors' complaints that students procrastinate doing their homework, use mobile for chatting during the class period,

do not take notes during the class, are absentminded, refuse to write on the whiteboard, are reluctant to participate in the class activities, and depend totally on their teachers' handouts. More importantly, a great number of students get stressed and anxious when exams are approaching and many of them refer to cheating as a way to pass the exams. All these factors prompted the researcher who has been a reading instructor in CCQ for four years to probe students' study habits and investigate the relationship between these habits and students' achievement.

Significance of the study

The findings of this study will hopefully be beneficial to students of all levels in general and ESL college learners in particular, ESL instructors, and curriculum designers as well. Based on the results of the study, students would be recommended on the best study habits that will improve their achievement. Instructors would advise or even train their students on the study skills that contribute to their success. Curriculum designers may include some study habits as strategies in the specific outcomes of their planned curriculum and include some in the textbooks or handouts.

Study Methodology

This study is a descriptive study in the sense that a survey has been used to collect data from the sample of the study in order to determine the status of the subjects with respect to the study variables. For this study, the aim was to identify the subjects' study skills that contribute to their success or lead to their failure. To achieve this purpose, the researcher designed a survey instrument and administered it to the research sample.

Study Population and sample

The study population consisted of all female students enrolling in the morning classes in Level 3 ESL Foundation program in the Community College of Qatar-CCQ, and they were (160) students. The study used primary data collected by the main researcher. The study sample constituted (37%) from the students enrolling in two level three classes of the English Language Center. It was a convenient sample as it was chosen from the two classes the researcher was teaching. These classes included 50 students. The study instrument which was a questionnaire designed by the researcher was administered to the students enrolling in these two classes. The questionnaire was translated into Arabic so that the study subjects can understand the items properly. The questionnaire was administered at the end of the second term of the academic year 2015/2016. The study participants' accumulative averages in the three subjects: writing, reading, and grammar were calculated by the researcher who was a member in the classes' cohort teachers. Then these averages were categorized into three groups: low, moderate, and high according to the successful achievement criteria used in CCQ. The response rate was (83.3%). Table 1 shows the grades of the study sample:

Table 1. Level of the Grades of the study sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	low	33	66.0	66.0	>69
	Moderate	9	18.0	18.0	70-79
	High	8	16.0	16.0	80-100
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Data Collection

Quantitative approaches use a systematic standardized approach and employ methods such as surveys, and in this study, the researcher relied on collecting data by the study sample responses to a questionnaire.

The study instrument

To build the questionnaire, the researcher referred to primary and secondary resources. The researcher utilized different Journal articles through literature review to gather as many factors that influence the study habits of ESL learners. Items of previous questionnaires on study habits were adapted to meet the culture and the specific status of the study subjects. The following questionnaires were the resources that helped the current researcher to design the study instrument:

1. Palsane Sharma Study Habit Inventory (PSSHI) which was designed in eight dimensions of “time management, physical condition, ability to read and note, learning motivation, memory holding, exams, and health.”
2. Virginia Gordon’s University Survey: A Guidebook and Readings for New Students.
3. Study habits questionnaire by Prentice Hall, G. Martin, & J. G. Osborne.
4. Study skills Questionnaire designed at University of Houston.

The questionnaire designed for the current study consisted of two sections”

- Section One: Grades Level (Low, Moderate, and High).
- Section Two: The study habits and it contains 70 items in distributed into six dimensions:
 - Where to study
 - When to study
 - How to study
 - Management and procrastination
 - Concentration and memory
 - Test Anxiety

Validity of the study instrument

To test the questionnaire validity, it was submitted to a jury of six reviewers of ESL instructors to verify the sincerity and clarity of its items, to take their opinions, and to re-word some of its items as necessary. Modifications were achieved in response to the jury’s opinions.

Reliability of the study instrument

To calculate the stability of the study instrument, the researcher used the equation of internal consistency using test Cronbach's alpha shown in table (2). The test results where the values of Cronbach alpha for all variables of the study and identification of generally higher (60%) which is acceptable in the research and studies, which gives the questionnaire as a whole the reliability coefficient ranged between (0.63-0.76%), as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Cronbach's alpha for the study fields

Variables	Statements	Cronbach Alpha
Where to study	9	0.76
When to study	12	0.68
How to study	14	0.63
Management and procrastination	13	0.76
Concentration and memory	12	0.68
Test Anxiety	10	0.63
All Questions	70	0.77

Source: prepared by the researcher

Data analysis techniques

To answer the study questions and a statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the collected data and test the research hypotheses. The following statistical techniques and tests were used in data analysis:

1. Cronbach's Alpha reliability (a) to measure strength of the correlation and coherence between questionnaire items and highlights the stability of consistency with which the instrument is measuring the concept and helps to assess the 'goodness' of the measure.
2. Frequencies and percentages to describe demographical variables.
3. Descriptive Statistical Techniques: these included means and standard deviations. These techniques were used to illustrate respondents to study fields.
4. One Way ANOVA test.

5- The research type scale included five Likert scale as follows:

Never	seldom	Sometimes	often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

Relative importance, assigned due to:

$$\text{Class Interval} = \frac{\text{Maximum Class} - \text{Minimum Class}}{\text{Number of Level}}$$

$$\text{Class Interval} = \frac{5 - 1}{3} = \frac{4}{3} = 1.33$$

- The Low degree from 1.00- 2.33
- The Medium degree from 2.34 – 3.67
- The High degree from 3.68 – 5.00

Statistical Analysis and Results

Descriptive Analysis of the Study Variable

(Level of "Where to study")

The researcher used the arithmetic means, standard deviation, item importance and importance level as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Arithmetic Mean, SD, Item Importance and Importance Level of where to study descending order.

No	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	Item Importance	Importance Level
7	I prepare all my stuff (pencils, pens, highlighters, notebook, book, before I start to study.	4.56	0.70	1	High
1	I make sure that the place where I want to study is properly lighted, heated and ventilated.	4.52	0.74	2	High
8	I prefer sitting in the front desks in class (not at the back).	4.32	0.84	3	High
4	I study in a place free from auditory or visual distractions as television, internet, radio.	4.28	0.78	4	High
6	I keep the desk or tabletop area where I study clear of anything except the material of the subject I am currently studying.	4.12	0.82	5	High
3	I sit on a chair and a desk which I arrange to avoid strain and fatigue	4.10	0.76	6	High
5	I understand more when listening to music.	4.08	0.70	7	High
2	I study while I am lying on the sofa or bed.	3.88	0.77	8	High
9	I prefer not to write on the whiteboard myself	3.84	0.68	9	High
Total		4.19	0.26		High

It is clear from Table 3 that the mean of this dimension (Where to study), ranged between (4.56 – 3.84), where the whole dimension earned a total mean of (4.19), which is a level of High. Item (7) (I prepare all my stuff (pencils, pens, highlighters, notebook, book, before I start to study) earned the highest mean reaching (4.56), with standard deviation (0.70), which is a high level.

Item (9) (I prefer not to write on the whiteboard myself) came in last Place. It earned a mean of (3.84), and a standard deviation (0.68), which is a high level.

(Level of When to study)

The researcher used the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, item importance and importance level as shown in table 4.

Table 4. Arithmetic Mean, SD, Item Importance and Importance Level of when to study descending order.

No	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	Item Importance	Importance Level
20	I study the tough subjects when I am most alert.	4.40	0.88	1	High
19	I take a break from studying to reward myself not because I feel fatigue	4.00	0.95	2	High
18	I set goals for my studying as: I have to finish unit 1 and 2 before I take a break.	3.80	1.23	3	High
15	I use my "most alert" times for studying (I avoid wasting my best times in the lounge (drinking coffee, on Facebook, etc.)	3.68	1.20	4	High
16	I study for one hour continuously.	3.64	1.37	5	Medium
13	I study at night	3.56	1.01	6	Medium
10	I review my class notes day by day after the teacher explained the material	3.44	1.15	7	Medium
17	I take a break based on some amount of material I finish studying (a number of pages, writing two paragraphs) rather than on a basis of time (studying for 30 minutes or an hour)	3.44	1.26	8	Medium
21	At the start of each week, I carefully plan my study schedule for the week.	2.76	1.04	9	Medium
12	I like to study in the early morning before I go to college.	2.72	1.44	10	Medium
14	I study only at the weekend	2.40	1.09	11	Medium
11	I only study in class or during my breaks at college.	1.88	0.94	12	Low
Total		3.31	0.39		Medium

It is clear from table 4 that the mean of this dimension (when to study), ranged between (4.40-1.88), where the whole dimension earned a total mean of (3.31), which is a medium level relatively. Item (20) (I study the tough subjects when I am most alert) earned the highest mean reaching (4.40), with standard deviation (0.88), which is a high level.

Item (11) (I only study in class or during my breaks at college) came in last place. It earned a mean of (1.88), and a standard deviation (0.94), which is a low level.

(Level of "How to study")

The researcher used the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, item importance and importance level as shown in table 5.

Table 5. Arithmetic Mean, SD, Item Importance and Importance Level of how to study

No	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	Item Importance	Importance Level

25	I underline or highlight the most important ideas on the material I am studying.	4.48	0.89	1	High
34	I learn more when the teacher use visual aids as videos, power point, colored board markers, realia, etc.	4.44	0.84	2	High
24	I use my pen or pencil to write notes or draw graphic organizers at tree maps on the margins of the page.	4.10	1.02	3	High
32	I do my studying alone not in conjunction with a friend.	3.94	1.20	4	High
28	I try to expect the questions that the teacher would ask in the exam while I am studying for the exam.	3.70	0.89	5	High
31	I participate in class and ask questions when I do not understand something.	3.56	1.11	6	Medium
33	I learn more when the teacher engaged us in group work or games.	3.54	1.20	7	Medium
27	I take rough and quick notes in the class and write them more neatly and more fully later.	3.50	1.11	8	Medium
23	I like to eat snacks while I am studying.	3.42	1.34	9	Medium
26	I make questions on what I am studying.	3.24	1.06	10	Medium
22	When I am working a project or homework, I break it down into steps and smaller tasks, each of which requires no more than an hour or two.	3.18	1.14	11	Medium
35	I like to study with a friend, so I discuss with her the new lessons while we are in the cafeteria.	2.80	1.12	12	Medium
29	At the beginning of the term, I prepare a schedule when to study every course.	2.70	1.27	13	Medium
30	I prepare in advance the next lesson that the teacher will explain.	2.36	1.14	14	Medium
Total		3.50	0.39		Medium

It is clear from table 5 that the mean of this dimension (How to Study), ranged between (4.48 – 2.36), where the whole dimension earned a total mean of (3.50), which is a medium. Item (25) (I underline or highlight the most important ideas on the material I am studying) earned the highest mean reaching (4.48), with standard deviation (0.89), which is a high level.

Item (30) (I prepare in advance the next lesson that the teacher will explain) came in last Place. It earned a mean of (2.36), and a standard deviation (1.14), which is a medium level.

(Management and Procrastination)

The researcher used the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, item importance and importance level as shown in table 6.

Table 6. Arithmetic Mean, SD, Item Importance and Importance Level of Management and Procrastination descending order.

No	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	Item Importance	Importance Level
36	I arrive at classes on time (not late)	4.00	1.26	1	High
38	I devote sufficient time to each of my courses.	3.82	1.10	2	High
43	I submit my assignments and homework on time with no delay.	3.82	1.34	3	High
37	I attend all classes (not absent)	3.70	0.93	4	High
48	I take initiative in group activities.	3.56	1.30	5	Medium
46	If I miss a lecture, I ask my teacher for re-explanation or ask my friend to lend me her notes or to explain to me	3.24	1.38	6	Medium
47	I work consistently throughout the course before the exams get too near, I will then be able to take revision steadily.	3.22	1.22	7	Medium
39	I prepare a "to do list" daily and prepare a daily schedule for my study.	3.06	1.19	8	Medium
44	I do more work on the subjects I like the most and less work on the subject I like the least.	3.06	1.19	9	Medium
41	I start doing my major course assignments days before the submission deadline.	2.88	1.35	10	Medium
45	For the exams, I study from my book and handouts rather than from my own notes I wrote during classes.	2.76	1.38	11	Medium
40	I only study a day before the exam.	2.56	1.37	12	Medium
42	I start doing my assignments and projects a only day before the deadline.	2.54	1.37	13	Medium
Total		3.25	0.38		Medium

It is clear from Table 6 that the mean of this dimension (*Trainer*), ranged between (4.00 – 2.54), where the whole dimension earned a total mean of (3.25), which is a level of Medium. Item (36) (I arrive at classes on time (not late) earned the highest mean reaching (4.00), with standard deviation (1.26), which is a high level.

Item (42) (I start doing my assignments and projects only a day before the deadline) came in last Place. It earned a mean of (2.54), and a standard deviation (1.37), which is a moderate level.

(Concentration and memory)

The researcher used the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, item importance and importance level as shown in table 7.

Table 7. Arithmetic Mean, SD, Item Importance and Importance Level of Concentration and memory descending order.

No	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	Item Importance	Importance Level
55	I find the teachers' handouts useful for revision.	3.92	1.37	1	High
60	I am confident of my level of concentration in class.	3.66	1.21	2	Medium
58	I recite the material aloud many times to memorize it.	3.42	1.39	3	Medium
52	I like to review my notes ten or five minutes before the exam.	3.36	1.47	4	Medium
56	If I like my teacher, it is easier to learn from her/him if her / his actual teaching is not all that good.	3.30	1.59	5	Medium
57	Quick sessions with friends are a good way of revising	3.20	1.39	6	Medium
59	While studying, I keep track and never have daydreaming or be absentminded.	2.98	1.25	7	Medium
51	During an evening's work I prefer to stick to one subject rather than to change about and do two or three subjects.	2.78	1.17	8	Medium
53	I like to draw the teacher's attention to me just by speaking and asking even if the questions are silly.	2.62	1.40	9	Medium
49	I have short attention span so I got absent – minded in class very quickly	2.54	1.15	10	Medium
50	When I study, I only read the main points but not the details.	2.42	1.18	11	Medium
54	In group work, I keep silent and do not share my ideas.	2.20	1.44	12	Low
Total		3.03	0.43		Medium

It is clear from table 7 that the mean of this dimension (*Concentration and Memory*), ranged between (3.92 – 2.20), where the whole dimension earned a total mean of (3.03), which is a medium level. Item (55) (I find the teachers' handouts useful for revision) earned the highest mean reaching (3.92), with standard deviation (1.37), which is a high. Item (54) (In group work, I keep silent and do not share my ideas) came in last Place. It earned a mean of (2.20), and a standard deviation (1.44), which is a low level.

Item (55) (I find the teachers' handouts useful for revision) earned the highest mean reaching (3.92), with standard deviation (1.37), which is a high level.

(Test Anxiety)

The researcher used the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, item importance and importance level as shown in table 8.

Table 8. Arithmetic Mean, SD, Item Importance and Importance Level of Test Anxiety descending order.

No	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	Item Importance	Importance Level
63	When studying, I expect and imagine the questions in the test paper in advance.	3.60	1.12	1	Medium
61	I ask the teacher about the material that the exam will cover	3.56	1.23	2	Medium
67	I take time to understand the exam questions and instructions before starting to answer.	3.56	1.28	3	Medium
70	I start answering the easy questions then the difficult questions	3.54	1.28	4	Medium
66	I have anxiety when the exam date is approaching.	3.46	1.40	5	Medium
62	I ask the teacher how the exam is to be graded.	3.44	1.09	6	Medium
65	I usually get a good night's sleep and rest prior to a scheduled exam.	2.64	1.22	7	Medium
64	I study the exam only a day before the exam	2.40	1.32	8	Medium
68	During the exam, I ask to go to the bathroom many times.	2.14	1.25	9	Low
69	I find cheating in anyway a good way to pass my exams.	2.14	1.46	9	Low
Total		3.05	0.43		Medium

It is clear from table (8) that the mean of this dimension (Test Anxiety), ranged between (3.60 – 2.14), where the whole dimension earned a total mean of (3.05), which is a medium level. Item (63) (When studying, I expect and imagine the questions in the test paper in advance) earned the highest mean reaching (3.60), with standard deviation (1.12), which is a medium level.

Item (69) (I find cheating in anyway a good way to pass my exams) came in last Place. It earned a mean of (2.14), and a standard deviation (1.46), which is a low level. This explains that the test anxiety was in the medium level among the students in CCQ.

Hypothesis Test:

The current study hypothesis is:

“There are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the mean scores of the students' achievement (Low, moderate, and high) due to their study habits.” To test this hypothesis the researcher used Means and Standard Deviation and the One Way ANOVA test to ensure the statistical significant differences in students' marks based on factors as shown in tables 9 and 10.

Table 9. The means and standard deviations of students of all levels

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
When to study	low	8	3.24	0.44
	Moderate	9	3.29	0.40
	High	33	3.33	0.38
	Total	50	3.31	0.39
How to study	low	8	3.71	0.45
	Moderate	9	3.40	0.31
	High	33	3.47	0.39
	Total	50	3.50	0.39
Management And procrastination	low	8	3.29	0.45
	Moderate	9	3.25	0.43
	High	33	3.24	0.35
	Total	50	3.25	0.38
Concentration and memory	low	8	3.43	0.30
	Moderate	9	2.97	0.38
	High	33	2.95	0.43
	Total	50	3.03	0.43
Test anxiety	low	8	3.30	0.80
	Moderate	9	3.02	0.28
	High	33	2.99	0.33
	Total	50	3.05	0.43
Where to study	low	8	4.22	0.31
	Moderate	9	4.15	0.24
	High	33	4.19	0.26
	Total	50	4.19	0.26

Table 10. One Way ANOVA test to identify the variety in the study based on factors affecting the students' marks

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

When to study	Between Groups	.062	2	.031	.199	.820
	Within Groups	7.355	47	.156		
	Total	7.417	49			
How to study	Between Groups	.455	2	.228	1.538	.225
	Within Groups	6.953	47	.148		
	Total	7.408	49			
Management and procrastination	Between Groups	.017	2	.008	.056	.945
	Within Groups	6.910	47	.147		
	Total	6.927	49			
Concentration and memory	Between Groups	1.479	2	.739	4.504	.016
	Within Groups	7.716	47	.164		
	Total	9.194	49			
test_anxiety	Between Groups	.610	2	.305	1.665	.200
	Within Groups	8.614	47	.183		
	Total	9.225	49			
Where to study	Between Groups	.024	2	.012	.174	.841
	Within Groups	3.266	47	.069		
	Total	3.290	49			

Table 10 shows that there is a significant difference in the level of students' marks due to Concentration and memory where the (F) value was (4.504) and this value was significant at the level of (0.05), and there is no significant difference in the level of students' marks due to other factors (where to study, When To study, How to study, Management and procrastination, Test Anxiety), where the (F) Value was (0.199, 1.538, 0.056, 1.665, 0.174) respectively and it's not significant at level (0.05).

Table 11. Scheffe Test for multiple Comparison

(I) average1	(J) average1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
low	Moderate	-.01768-	.15236	.993
	High	-.47254*	.15967	.018

Moderate	low	.01768	.15236	.993
	High	-.45486	.19688	.080
High	low	.47254*	.15967	.018
	Moderate	.45486	.19688	.080
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.				

It is clear from table11 that the differences were in favor of the high level group of students. this explain that the standard of interacting with studying based on concentration and memory affect students' marks specially in the high level.

Findings and discussion

The current study revealed the following main findings: Students enrolling in English as a Foreign Language Foundation Program in the Community College of Qatar preferred to prepare all their stuff: pencils, pens, highlighters, notebook, book, before they start to study. However, they did not prefer to write on the whiteboard. They study the tough subjects when they are most alert, whereas they stated that they did not like to study in class or during their breaks at college.

Concerning the way they used to study, almost all study subjects pointed out that they underline or highlight the most important ideas on the material they are studying. In contrast, they denied the importance of preparing in advance the next lesson that the teacher will explain. Jones (2006) stated that selective underlining is an important study skill and habit that students should be trained to use. Jones added that this strategy teaches students to highlight/underline only the key words, phrases, vocabulary, and ideas that are central to understanding the reading. As for management and procrastination, a great number of the study subjects stressed the fact that they believe in the benefit of arriving to classes on time (not late). Unexpectedly, they admitted that they start doing their assignments and projects only a day before the deadline. Several studies have found a moderate to strong negative correlation between academic procrastination and academic performance (Van Eerde, 2003). The results of the current study are consistent with what many school principals pinpointed. Those in Ridgefield District School (2013) noticed that arriving to class on time dramatically improves student learning. As for procrastination, Real (2011) cited in Alrefaai, Abdul Rab, and Saiful Islam (2013) stated that procrastination and cramming the night before the exam will put the brain at a risk. Students need to reduce their mental stress for their memories to be encoded in their neurons. Concerning the students' concentration and memory, a majority of the study subjects emphasized that they find the teachers' handouts useful for revision. This result is consistent with the result of a study conducted in medical education by Wongkietkachorn, Prakoonsuksapan, and Wangsaturaka (2014) who stressed that stopping to give students handouts will make studying harder for them.

Test anxiety may have a deleterious impact on test performance, academic success and overall well-being (Bonaccio and Reeve, 2010). Thus, the questionnaire used in the current study highlighted some items relating to the impact of test anxiety on students' study habits. A large number of the study subjects stressed the importance of expecting and imagining the questions in the test paper in advance. This finding is compatible with what the exam experts at York

University considered as important tips for students' success. They emphasized that practicing previous exam questions help students to expect the types of questions and the important points they will be asked about.

To the researcher's amazement, study subjects are not in favor of cheating. This came as a contrary to the generalized belief among CCQ instructors that cheating is a critical issue that needs radical solution. Firananda (2012) admitted that cheating should not be done by students as it harms themselves and others.

Concerning the interaction between students' study habits and their GBA, the results show that concentration and memory correlate with students' marks specially those of the high level of achievement. This means that students who concentrate in the classroom and are always alert achieve better than other students. There are numerous opportunities for unwanted distractions to impede academic goal attainment. Academic success requires continuous striving in the face of distractions (e.g., paying attention in class, completing homework assignments, studying, concentrating during a test) (Parks-Stamm, Gollwitzer and Oettingen, 2010).

Unexpectedly, the results of this study revealed that there is no significant correlation between the study habits relating to *where to study, when to study, how to study, management and procrastination, test anxiety* and the students' achievement. This is incompatible with the results of the study conducted by Chan, Yum, Rocky, Jegede, and Taplin, (1999) who investigated the study habits that affect low-achievers and high achievers university students. Their research revealed some differences in students' study habits that affect students' achievement, such as the location for studying, the time for studying, the duration they spend in studying, the organizational characteristics, and strategy of studying as thinking aloud or reading silently. In the current study showed a significant correlation between procrastination and management and students' achievement in grammar, writing and reading. High achievers usually do their home assignments on time, whereas their peers of low achievers always delay and postpone studying to the last minute.

Conclusion

The findings of the current research highlight certain implications to students and teachers that will likely help in the teaching-learning process. Based on the present study, it is advisable that teachers should encourage students to plan and prepare in advance for their study. Teachers also need to reinforce some habits that help students learn better such as underlining or highlighting the important details while they are studying. In addition, teachers can create activities to help students be alert in class as this research proves that this alertness is an important factor in students' high achievement. Students can also be trained on certain habits and strategies as note-taking, expecting exam questions, and group work. On the other hand, students who used to procrastinate and postpone doing their homework or studying for the exam to the day before the exam should constantly be warned against this habit as it leads to low achievement. Teachers need to utilize different strategies to make their students more enthusiastic to learn. Implicit instructions and explanations on the best study habits will definitely be beneficial to students. Brochures and announcement boards will contribute to drawing students' attention to specific effective study habits (Abid Hussein, 2006).

In conclusion, the findings of this study will be beneficial to the study subjects in particular and to all college students in general.

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Small but Multi-functional: Response Tokens in Content Language Integrated Learning Interaction

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Abstract

This paper is an investigation of language use inside a content language integrated learning (CLIL) classroom at Saudi tertiary level. It examines the difference in language use between teachers and students in four subject-specific classrooms in which English is used as a medium of instruction. The study is informed by corpus linguistics (CL) and uses the principles and theoretical underpinning of conversation analysis (CA). It identifies the most frequent linguistic features of CLIL and examines their diverse interactional functions in this context. Amongst the most frequent linguistic features in CLIL are short response tokens such as “yes” and “no”. Using a micro-analytic approach to conversation analysis, a closer look at the data shows the students’ ability to use small and limited linguistic resources to accomplish multiple interactional functions such as taking the floor, taking turns and, most importantly, displaying orientation to knowledge. The data reflected the relationship between frequency and meaning construction. With regard to the difference in language use between teachers and students with regard to comes to short response tokens, the study shows some common interactional uses of response tokens between teachers and students, such as agreement, acknowledgement, response to confirmation checks and yes/no questions. On the other hand, it shows some exclusive interactional use of the same token by teachers and students. Finally, the paper emphasises the relationship of language, interaction and orientation to content knowledge in CLIL classrooms. Pedagogically, the findings have implications for teachers’ language use and for increased classroom interaction.

Keywords: classroom interaction, CLIL, conversation analysis, corpus linguistics response tokens

1. Introduction

Classroom interaction has become an increasingly important focus of research during the last five decades (Walsh, 2011). However, most of the studies in this field (Hua et al., 2007; Firth&Wagner, 2007; Lyster, 2007; Lyster&Ranta, 1997) have emphasised the importance of interaction inside classrooms for both language and content learning. Nikula et al. (2013), for instance, claim that learning happens through students' "participation in the sequentially structured discourse activities which are determined by local pedagogical designs and afford specific interactional opportunities"(p.6). Hall and Verplaetse (2000), on the other hand, highlight the importance of interactions among teachers and students in creating "intellectual and practical activities" (p.10) that contribute to how and what kind of language students learn. They also link interaction to the processes and outcomes of individual development.

Content language integrated learning (CLIL) is another area of research in which interaction has also gained a foothold. Classroom interaction has gained importance as a result of the increasing interest CLIL is receiving, particularly in Europe and Canada, where it is being viewed as a possible natural and practical approach to language and content learning (Brinton et al., 1989; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Graddol, 2006; Marsh & Wolff, 2007; Snow &Brinton, 1997; Wilkinson &Zegers, 2007). It is also used as a tool to address the educational problems that have resulted from the increasing influx of immigrants to Europe and the change in the education policy with regard to the number of languages an EU citizen should speak.

The widespread implementation of CLIL at primary to tertiary levels has led to the appearance of an enormous amount of multifaceted research orientations (Nikula et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the more work that examines the CLIL discourse, the greater the need to use combined linguistic models. It has become more important than ever to investigate the underexplored areas of this complicated discourse and to conduct empirical research that is more rigorous and robust in order to be able to draw substantial conclusions. This paper examines CLIL discourse at the tertiary level using a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to data analysis. It focuses mainly on the use of short response tokens by teachers and students in the CLIL classroom, with special emphasis on the use of "yes" as an example.

2. Response tokens and interaction

A literature review has shown that researchers vary in their definition of response tokens (RTs). This variation is mainly based on the framework within which RTs are investigated. Nevertheless, there is an agreement among scientists on the crucial role RTs play as an essential discourse feature through which co-participants display their understanding to the current speaker (Gardner, 2001). Moreover, RTs provide the speaker with information about the interlocutor's stance regarding prior talk (Kendon, 1967).

The interest in investigating RTs started with the work by Fries (1952). Since then, RTs have been investigated via different linguistic frameworks such as pragmatics, corpus linguistics and conversation analysis (Yngve, 1970; Ochs, 1988; Ameka, 1992; Zimmerman, 1993; Sorjonen, 2001; McCarthy, 2002). RTs are referred to as deictic and indexical expressions, and include interjections as well as backchannels. Previous studies have contributed greatly to the understanding of short response tokens, as well as to the understanding of their functions. The discourse-pragmatic framework, however, has been criticised for failing to examine the

sequential organisation of response tokens. It has also failed to identify their multi-functionality. Most of the studies that have used pragmatics as a framework within which to investigate response tokens (Yngve, 1970; Ochs, 1988; Ameka, 1992; Zimmerman, 1993) resulted in merely listing and grouping them according to various categories.

The advancement in corpus linguistics did not go unnoticed with regard to response tokens. Oreström (1983), Tottie (1991), Carter and McCarthy (2000), McCarthy (2002) and McCarthy (2003) used corpus linguistics to investigate short response tokens in larger, naturally occurring datasets. Although these studies were successful in identifying different types of response tokens, they failed to reflect their multiple interactional functions based on a turn-by-turn analysis.

The interest in response tokens within the broad field of CA also varies (Fishman, 1983; Goodwin, 1986; McCarthy, 2010; Dushku, 2010). For instance, using a CA framework of analysis, Schegloff (1982) draws attention to the different functions of short responses tokens such as “yeah” in mundane contexts. He confirms the multi-functions nature of response tokens, and adds that response tokens such as “yeah” do not function only as acknowledgement and confirming understanding, but can also be used to demonstrate agreement. CA, unlike other approaches to response tokens, does not treat RTs as a block to undifferentiated items. By contrast CA treats each token according to the social action it performs in a particular context. It also goes as far as to show how response tokens are understood by the co-participants, as proved by the subsequent turn (Jefferson, 1981; Heritage, 1984).

This study emphasises the importance of context in understanding the interactional function of response tokens. It is an addition to the body of work that uses CA to highlight the importance of the listener’s role in maintaining the flow of the conversation in talk-in-interaction inside the classroom.

3. Significance of the study

The interest in understanding interaction in CLIL classrooms stems mainly from the importance given to the studies that examine classroom interaction as “the medium through which learning is realized and an object of pedagogical attention” (Hall & Walsh 2002: 186-203). It has also gained in significance as the interest in CLIL has increased over the last two decades. However, there is still scarcity in the studies that investigate the finer details of classroom interaction within CLIL using a micro-analytical framework that takes social interaction as another facet of learning into account. With the exception of a few studies such as those by Dalton-Puffer (2007), Pehkonen (2008) and Nikula (1997; 2005), research on CLIL, particularly at the beginning, focuses on the products of CLIL as a learning environment rather than on the process of how learning takes place in such a context. Dalton-Puffer’s (2007) work represents a shift in research focus from the product to the process, as she takes a micro analytic approach to the context.

Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2007) and Dalton-Puffer et al. (2010) represent a comprehensive review of research on CLIL during the last decade. Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2007) also provide framework that categorises studies of CLIL as micro versus. Macro, process versus product and language versus content. Some research, they state, falls into the intersection of these

dimensions. Linares et al. (2012) investigate CLIL by combining Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and CA. The study is categorised as a process-oriented micro study, a type that Nikula et al. (2013) support because it strikes a balance between language and content in CLIL.

This paper investigates a CLIL classroom within a framework that views learning as a social act. It treats language learning in CLIL as a process rather than as an outcome. It aims to explore discourse aspects in CLIL university classrooms in the Saudi context. It also provides insight into how teachers and learners co-construct meanings in this context using RTs as an example. Using quantitative and qualitative approaches to the data, this paper reflects the relationship of language, interaction and the orientation towards scientific knowledge.

The paper shows how the differences in language use between students and teachers are manifested, projected and responded to in a step towards understanding the “interactional architecture” (Seedhouse, 2004) of the Saudi higher education CLIL.

Finally, it shows how conversation analysis and corpus linguistics can be incorporated to provide a better understanding of the macro and the micro aspects of classroom interaction in general and in the Saudi context in particular (Walsh et al., 2011).

4. Research questions

This work has been motivated by the following research questions:

1. What are the most frequent linguistic features of CLIL university classrooms in a Saudi context?
2. What are the interactional functions of the identified most frequent linguistic features of CLIL?
3. How do teachers and learners co-construct meaning in CLIL using the identified most frequent linguistic features?

4. Research methodology

The study was conducted in two phases, one qualitative using the principles of conversation analysis (CA), and the other quantitative using corpus linguistics (CL). According to Walsh et al. (2011), the use of CL and CA in an iterative way assists in understanding not only the way in which the interactants construct meaning in the educational setting, but also “the inter-dependency of words, utterances and text in the co-construction of meaning” (Walsh et al., 2011:1).

Conversation analysis, as an approach to discourse investigation, has been chosen instead of other methods, such as discourse analysis (DA) because of its ability to examine the mechanism of situated interaction in a connected discourse. While DA investigates classroom discourse as cycles consisting of three sequences (Initiation-Response-Feedback/Evaluation), CA reveals the resources the interactants use to establish intersubjectivity or mutual understanding in a step towards achieving predetermined pedagogical agendas in the classroom (Huth, 2011). Such an approach to classroom discourse makes CA a better tool to obtain for a detailed picture of the finer details of talk-in-interaction. However, because of its inability to be generalised to a larger context (Walsh et al., 2011), CA is combined with CL.

Corpus linguistics, on the other hand, was chosen in order to take advantage of the computer advancement and the flexibility of the corpus-based software to address quite sizable data in an iterative way (Walsh et al., 2011). Dealing with a relatively big data to identify patterns of interaction is a difficult and time-consuming job, let alone comparing the data to other corpora. CL enables an accurate reading of the occurrence of words and their frequencies. Moreover, it gives the researcher the ability to locate the investigated item in its actual context in big data. I believe that combining CA with CL in this study helped to provide evidence that contradicts the “scepticism towards the applicability of corpus-based techniques to issues beyond the clause boundary” (Conrad, 2002; as cited in Adolphs & Carter, 2007, p.3), as well as to indicate the importance of combining CA with other quantitative approaches. In this study, CL is used not as an end in itself, but as a tool to identify the most frequent words in a large dataset and as facilitator to locate these items in part of a second something that, as Walsh et al. (2011) highlight, is not possible when using manual processes.

Combining CA with CL is a departure from the traditional methods via which CLIL has been investigated. In fact, combining the two methods provides a better understanding of interactions inside the CLIL classroom. It highlights the macro and micro aspects of learning as a socialisation process.

5. Data collection and analysis

To answer the questions mentioned previously, 12 hours of data were collected, consisting of video/audio recordings of classes (see Table 1). The data consist of four contentsubjects taken from a Saudi university at which English is used as a medium of instruction. The result of transcribing these (12) hours is a corpus of more than 51,000 tokens. The corpus consists of a balanced number of tokens taken from subjects such as physics, chemistry, information systems and early child education (see Table 1).

Table1. *The data(Jawhar 2012)*

Subject	Number of hours
Physics	3
Early childhood Education	3
Information system	3
Chemistry	3

The corpus is called the Saudi Content Language Integrated Learning (SCLIL). SCLIL is analysed using Wordsmith Tools (Scott, 2011) and a word frequency list is generated. However, to validate the results and to ensure that the linguistic items identified are characteristic of SCLIL, the researcher used BASE, which stands for the British Academic Spoken English Corpus, as a reference corpus. The frequency feature in the Wordsmith programme was used to generate a list of the most frequent words in BASE. Following this, the keyword function is used to compare the generated list to its counterpart taken from SCLIL. The keyword function helped in showing the words that were used significantly less or more often in SCLIL in comparison to BASE.

In general, the ranking of the linguistic items identified in SCLIL is not significantly different from those in BASE. The list of identified keywords in SCLIL suggested an answer to the first research question regarding the most frequent linguistics features in CLIL. However, the list did not specify whether the identified features were used mainly by the teachers or by the

students. For this reason, two new sub-corpora were generated by isolating the students' turns from those of the teachers. The result is the sub-corpus SCLIL-T for teachers' turns and SCLIL-S for those of the students. Both corpora, SCLIL-T and SCLIL-S, were subjected to word frequency processing using the Wordsmith programme in order to identify the most frequent linguistic features in each corpus. The generated lists were modified based on relevance to the present study. They were then compared to the list generated previously from BASE using the keyword function in the Wordsmith programme. This was done to discover whether the identified items would maintain their rank when applied in a bigger context. Finally, the two lists containing the most frequent keywords in SCLIL-T and in SCLIL-S were compared to each other to generate a list of the words that were used markedly more or less by the students than they were by the teachers in SCLIL. This phase of the analysis answered the first research question with regard to identifying the SCLIL linguistic features more accurately and provided more detail regarding the users of the most frequent words.

The final list showed that there was a significant difference between the students' and the teachers' use of specific linguistic features such as response tokens.

The reason for choosing the response tokens "yes/yeah and no" was not only due to their occurrence as the second and third items on the list. In fact, "yes/yeah and no" are chosen because they are among the few interactional devices that have not received sufficient attention in the CA research despite their importance in the flow of the interaction and the contribution they make in shaping the speakers' next turn, as explained earlier. Choosing response tokens as the main focus of this paper is the departure point from which the researcher moved to the second phase of the analysis, which was based on the principles of CA. The microanalysis of the data using the principles underpinning CA provided a clearer picture of the immense interactional role that those small devices played in maintaining the flow of the interaction by performing various interactional functions based on a turn-by-turn analysis. In the light of the students' limited linguistic resources, RTs were used as the main linguistic resource to display epistemic stance, to negotiate meaning and to establish interasubjectivity.

6. The results

As explained in the previous section, dividing the corpus into two sub-corpora generated two unequal corpora with a ratio of 8 to 1 in favour of the teachers' corpus. This indicates an asymmetric relationship between the teachers and students, a common feature of teacher-led classroom interaction. However, a closer look at the distribution of turns in the corpus revealed unexpected results, as the students instigated more turns than did their teachers. The students' turns represented 57% of the total number of turns produced in this corpus. The fact that the students produced more turns than did their teachers falsifies the previous assumption and suggests the need for further investigation into the nature of these turns.

As a step towards a further understanding of the corpus, the average number of words spoken by the students in each turn was compared to that of their teachers. The results showed that, although the teachers produced fewer turns than did their students, their turns were much longer as they produced an average of 46.91 words per turn. The students, by contrast, produce an average of 4.7 words per turn (see Table 2). The teachers' turns were found to be composed of multiple units while the majority of the students' turns were singlewords. The different nature of

the teachers' and the students' turns presented an answer to the reason for the difference in the corpora size of SCLIL-T and SCLIL-S. This initial finding confirmed that which CA had established previously with regard to the teachers' tendency to extend their turns to perform multiple functions in the same turn (Seedhouse, 2004). Although this result answers the study first question, it does not reveal much about the construction of the turns or the interactional and pedagogical functions they perform. For this reason, a further analysis was conducted.

Table2. *General statistics about the data (Jawhar, 2012)*

	SCLIL	SCLIL-T	SCLIL-S
No of tokens	51.869	45.791	6.078
No. of turns	2273	976 (42.93%)	1297 (57.061%)
Means of spoken words	22.81	46.91	4.68

The micro analytical part of the analysis answered the second question in this paper regarding the interactional function of the most frequently identified linguistic features. It also provides a detailed picture of the way in which teachers and learners co-construct meaning in the SCLIL context. The investigation is limited to the response tokens "yes, yeah and no" in a turn-by-turn analysis each time they occurred.

The case-by-case analysis has shown that teachers and students use RTs to carry out different social actions such as dis/agreements, acknowledgments, responses to confirmation checks, and to answer yes/no questions. However, the findings also show that there were some social actions that were exclusive to students, such as responding to other-initiated repairs and responding to requests to display epistemic access to information. Others, exclusive to teachers, included giving positive/negative evaluations and allocating the next speaker's turn. These functions demonstrated the relationship between interaction and pedagogical focus (Seedhouse, 2004) and confirmed the teacher's predetermined institutional role. The next section presents an example of the results obtained from this dataset. It shows how CA and CL were combined to enhance our understanding of CLIL classroom interaction. The examples are taken from SCLIL corpus and they represent only one set of the multi-social actions for which RTs are used in a teacher-led institutional interaction.

6. Discussion and examples of the results

A. The general use of "yes"

The data show that there were two types of use for "yes" in this dataset. The first is its use as a freestanding token in a turn on its own. Within this set of examples, the students used "yes" more often than did their teachers (191.2 times in every 1000 words produced). In other words, the students' use of "yes" as a freestanding token in a turn on its own occurred 59.3% of the time. The teachers, in comparison, used "yes" 16.35 times in every 1000 words they produced. Of that number, "yes" was only used 5.3% of the time as a freestanding token.

The overall picture indicated the students' interactive role in co-constructing meaning in the SCLIL classroom. However, it also showed the students' tendency to use the minimum linguistic resources and the teachers' tendency to use extended turns when they responded to the students (Seedhouse, 2004).

The second dataset was related to “yes” when it was used with other components. Within this set of examples, it was also observed that the teachers used initial “yes” turns almost 44.2% of the time, compared to 55.8% of the time in the middle of the turn. When used in the middle of an extended turn, “yes” was followed by discourse markers such as “and”, “okay” and “so”(18.3%). The use of discourse markers following “yes” was mainly to perform the social and pedagogical actions of shifting the topic.

The students, on the other hand, used “yes” followed by other components to express agreement and to display access to epistemic knowledge. The following section provides detailed examples of the use of “yes” by teachers and students.

1. “Yes” as a continuer

Using “yes” as a continuer was one of the main characteristics of the students’ corpus. They used “yes” as a freestanding token during the teachers’ turn to indicate that they did not have problems understanding the on-going discussion. Using RTs as continuers is a common action of response tokens in this sequential position, namely during the current speaker’s turn. However, what is interesting about this dataset is the students’ use of “yes” during the teachers’ turn to perform more actions than to just display understanding or passing the floor (see Excerpt 1).

In fact, they used “yes” to display their epistemic stance from the on-going talk. The next excerpt (Excerpt 1) is taken from an information technology class (IT). The teacher is making an announcement by telling the students about a new trend in IT according to which the former English HTTP protocol is now written via the use of languages other than English.

Excerpt (1)

	1	T:	>See that is interesting,n+ow< if you	
	2		have to change HTTP,HTTP is	
	3		Specifically(1.1)m+aps to a protocol.	
			((teacher looking at the left side of	
			the class where S1 is setting))	
→	4	S1:		↑Yes
	5	T:	HTTP is a ↑protocol=	
	6	S1:	=↑Yes=	
	7	T:	=So n+ow that protocol in Arabic.	
	8		>would it be[I do not]know now<	
	9	S1:	Yes(0.5) [I think]	

The teacher expected this piece of information to be news to the students and that they would not have epistemic access to it (Stivers et al., 2011). He uses the yes/no question to preface the announcement. However, a student (S1) uses “yes” to display having epistemic access to the teacher’s assertion in the prior turn. The proof for this claim is found in the next turn. The student (S1) waits until the teacher’s turn comes to completion to nominate herself, takes the floor, and adds to what the teacher has just said(line 9). By contributing to the on-going topic in the same sequence in which “yes” is used initially, the student displays more than just understanding. It can also be seen here that the student did not use any “newsmaker” devices, such as “oh” or “really”, which confirms having epistemic access. Schegloff (1982) states that response tokens demonstrate understanding only when there is a problem in communication, whereby making a repair become an inevitable action.

The teacher responds to the students' use of "yes" as a continuer by proceeding with his talk using an extended turn. Following this, the student takes the floor again and adds something related to that which the teacher had said earlier. Here, by using "yes", the student is confirming her epistemic stance as knowing the information and signalling the teacher to proceed. In this type of use, the students do not overlap with the teachers to take the floor. By contrast, they wait for the teacher's turn to come to an end.

2. "Yes" as an acknowledgment

Similarly to when using "yes" as a continuer, the students used "yes" to acknowledge the teachers' assertion. In this case, their use of "yes" was followed by other components to indicate having epistemic access to the topic under discussion (Heritage, 1984). They used it towards the end of the teachers' turn and exactly at the borderline at which transition was a possibility. The next excerpt (Excerpt 2) is taken from an information technology class (IT). The teacher is informing the students that Google was sold or bided to be bought by someone. S1 latches with the teacher's turn and uses "yes" turn initially followed by a degraded assertion, using "I think" as a stance device that shows uncertainty (Aijmer, 1997).

Excerpt (2)

- 1 T: can you believe that that((sniffing))
 2 (1.0)they sold- I think Google s::old
 3 or(0.5)Google was bided to be bought
 4 out by someone else for two billion
 ((teacher moves his eye from the
 floor to the left side of the class))
 6 dollars(.) or something like That=
 → 7 S1: =Yes, I think Microsoft
 8 (0.3)
 9 T: No, they never bought it, they never
 10 got it but they were bidding at some
 11 point, I do not know was it Microsoft
 12 or was it-

In this set of examples, in which "yes" is used as an acknowledgment, it can be seen that the students follow "yes" by further talk, either in the same turn or waiting until the teacher's turn is finished to add to what the teacher had said. In this example, the students are saying, "we know what you are saying and this is the proof". The difference between the use of "yes" as a continuer and as an acknowledgment is that the students show more involvement in the case of acknowledgment.

3. "Yes" as an agreement

The teachers and students used "yes" with other components to demonstrate agreement with prior assertion. When used as an agreement device, "yes" was mainly placed in the initial position of the relevant TCU, followed by other components to display affiliation with what had been said (Pomerantz, 1984). However, the difference between teachers and students lies in what comes after "yes". The students, for instance, followed "yes" with an assessment (see Excerpt 3) that was aimed to display epistemic access to the topic under discussion (Pomerantz, 1984). The teacher's response to agreement was usually a pre-closure discourse marker followed by a shift

in the topic. The following example is taken from an early child education classroom (ECD). The teacher is talking about the importance of allocating a specific reading time for children and making it a type of routine.

Excerpt 3:

```

1      T:      ↑yes, so, that way they understand
2              that this is now ↑reading time↓, they
3              find it so special and you will see
4              kids, they even get upset because
5              someone took their spot, they get so
6              comfortable(.) in that spot,
7              ↑right(.) "this is ↑my spot for
8              ↑reading, you move"(( hand gesture))
9              (.)okay↓, ↑so, we want to have this
10             comfortable environment (.), you need
11             to expose them to new ↑books((reading
13             from the slide))(0.1) I remember I was
14             was telling you this different
15             ↑genres and there is even different
16             styles of books, can you imagine if
17             you were Tea- reading this((showing a
18             book))to students, they would be so
19             ↑excited, 'The Big Red ↑Hen' is
20             Actually a big book (0.7) big red
                ((looking at the book))
21             book, how fun is ↑that=
→ 22      S1:    =yes, [this is a very attractive] to
23             your children

```

S1 latches with the teacher and self-selects quickly by using "yes" to display alignment and agreement with the teacher's assertion in the previous turn. In fact, she goes further and adds her own assessment of the book that the teacher pointed at by adding, "this is a very attractive to your children". By self-selecting, the student displayed not only agreement, but also her epistemic access to the on-going talk. Pomerantz(1984) states that, by offering assessment, the second interlocutor displayed previous knowledge of the referent.

4. "Yes" as a response to a confirmation check

The teacher used "yes" as a response when asked for confirmation by the students. "Yes" is placed in the initial position of the relevant TCU of the second pair of a question-answer adjacency pair followed by other components (see Excerpt 4). This excerpt is taken from an IT classroom. The teacher is explaining hologram technology to the students.

Excerpt 4:

```

1      T:      ↑where you can just see me walking
2              around doing exactly what I am doing
3              in my office in Toronto (.) <while
4              [I am here>].
5      S1:      [What is] called?
6      T:      Ha? (.) hologram
7      S1:      Hologram?
→ 8      T:      yeah hologram ah:: imaging sort of
9              thing, and ah:: (1.2) you know, you
10             will hear my ↑voice, you will hear
11             everything that I am doing and (.)
12             you won't see the difference, you can
13             ↑touch me but=

```

In this excerpt, the teacher is explaining to the students how the new technology will allow them to see him in Saudi Arabia even if he is as far away as Canada. S1 overlaps with the

teacher in what she might have understood as a possible TCU to ask about the name of the new technology. The teacher answers the student's question in line 6. In line 7, the student asks for confirmation that the answer that she had heard was correct by repeating the word "hologram" with rising intonation. The teacher responds to the confirmation request by an initial "yes" turn followed by the word in question.

We notice here that, unlike the students, when the teachers are asked for confirmation, they use "yes" followed by other components to ensure that the students understand the task or the issue about which they are asking. The students, on the other hand, use "yes" as a response to a confirmation check, but as a freestanding token in a turn on its own, after which the right to speak returns to the teacher. This can be explained by the predetermined institutional role of the teacher as the source of information in the classroom.

5. "Yes" as an answer to a polar yes/no question

The teachers and students used "yes" to answer a polar yes/no question. It was placed as the second pair in a question-answer adjacency pair, as can be seen in excerpt 5. This excerpt is taken from a physics class. The teacher is doing some exercises with the students.

Excerpt (5)

```

1   T:   for B. and if there are ten of them
2       we will find the X and Y for each one
3       of them
4   S7:  [do we take ]this later sine ((for
5       confirmation))?
6   S?:  [°you just said-°]
7   S?:  '↑yes'
→ 8   T:  'Yes' So what we have for ↑B we
9       are going to find B- X equal((writing
10      on the board))(1.0) B- cos↑ine
11      ((vector)) B (0.4) which ↑is-
11   S8:  Thirty, cosine, minus thirty seven,

```

The teacher is explaining a physics problem when S7 interrupts and asks, "do we take this later sine?" Another student tries to paraphrase the question to the teacher in line 6. A third reiterates the same question in what seems to be alignment with S7 and confirmation of the source of the problem with the teacher's explanation. In line 8, the teacher responds to the student's question with a turn initial "yes". It can be seen that the students' questions to which "yes" is used as a response by the teacher are usually either content or procedurally related; thus, they are always followed by other components in order to illustrate the areas about which the students are asking.

B. Students' exclusive use of "yes"

1. "Yes" as a response to an initiated repair

In this dataset, the students used "yes" to respond to other initiated repairs in order to show acceptance of this repair. They used "yes" in the initial position of the TCU of the unit in which

the repair was carried out. They used it followed by a modified version of their original answer based on the repair introduced in the previous turn, as explained in Excerpt 6. This excerpt is taken from an early child education classroom. The teacher is asking the students why they cannot leave children to read books on their own.

Excerpt 6:

```

1      T:    okay, so why not just have them read
2          It (0.6) for themselves?
3          (0.9)
4      S1:   ↑no, because the way how(.) different
5          a::<individuals read it>, the way::
6          it is: ↑even though with the same
7          text (.) or with the text(.) or the
8          same ah:: content(0.5) but the way
9          how they demonstrate it is-
10     T:    the delivery
→ 11     S1:   Yes deliver it=
12     T:    it is the delivery and do not forget
13          also the ↑pronunciation of the words

```

The student self-selects and answers the teacher's question offering a justification of why children should not read books alone; however, she fails to use the correct term, "delivery". In line 10, the teacher offers the least favoured trajectory of repair, namely other-initiated repair (Seedhouse, 2004). Schegloff (2007:117) refers to this kind of sequential use as "post-expansion", or when expansion in the talk takes place after the occurrence of the second part of the adjacency pair, in this case the question- answer pair. The student accepts and carries out the repair using "yes" turn initially, followed by the modified answer as presented by the teacher in the previous turn.

2. "Yes" as a response to an explicit request to display epistemic access

A CLIL classroom is similar to any other classroom in which the students are expected to display having epistemic access to the topic under discussion on occasion in order for the teachers to proceed with the pedagogical agenda and to introduce a new topic. However, the teachers sometimes used rhetorical questions to accelerate the pedagogical agenda and to understand the students' positions in the on-going discussion, as can be seen in Excerpt 7.

This excerpt is taken from a physics class. The teacher is explaining the difference between two equations related to falling objects and time. In lines 1-22, the teacher uses various resources to explain the difference between the two equations to the students, including a drawing on a board and hand gestures.

In line 15, the teacher checks for understanding using the discourse marker "okay", followed by a relatively significant pause of 2.7 seconds. When students did not respond, the teacher followed the pause with an explicit request for a display of understanding "so sonow do we understand why this victor did not change size".

Although the teacher directed the question at the entire class, S4 self-selected and answered using a freestanding "yes" that was not followed by any further components that might serve as

further proof of having epistemic access to the subject being explained. This use of a freestanding “yes” was understood by the teacher to be insufficient and, consequently, requiring further explanation as can be seen in the next turn (26- 33).

Excerpt (7)

```

1      T:  equations for each set. The only
2          connection between this ((pointing
3          at the board)) and that (.) is
4          that the time is going to be the
5          same (0.5) because as the objects
6          have the same time to go <up and
7
8          down> ((hand gesture)) (.) it takes
9          that time to go ((hand gesture))
10         (0.1) horizontal, (0.5) So time in
11         this equation and time in that
12         ((point at the board)) equation are
13         the same, (0.2) other than that
14         ((pointing at the board)) there is
15         no (.) connection (.) and that
16         will make life easier, (1.0) okay
17         ((looking at the students))
18         (2.7)
19         so (.) so now do we understand ((moving
20         towards the board)) (.) why this
21         vector ((pointing at the board))
22         did not change size ((looking at the
23         Whole class))
24         (0.8)
→ 24      S4: Yes
25         (1.0)
26      T:  It stayed ((pointing at the board))
27         the same (.) while this ((point at
28         the board)) vector along the Y, (0.3)
29         ((looking towards the students)) it
30         was ((hand gesture)) going up (0.1)
31         zero and then coming ((hand gesture))
32         back, So it was <shrinking,
33         Shrinking..

```

In this excerpt, we can see that, when “yes” is used to respond to a request from the teacher to display epistemic access to knowledge, it is placed as the second pair in a question-answer adjacency pair. This pair is initiated by the teacher to ratify shared knowledge as something that had already been shared in some way. This epistemic work is associated with a larger sequence and activity, and is always relevant to continuation. Using these types of display questions is common in classrooms, as they are used as “structuring devices to drive the talk forward, introduce new topics and generally direct the focus of the interactants” (Dalton-Puffer,

2007:123). They are relevant to the continuation of the on-going talk; hence, to the acceleration of the pedagogical agenda. This type of "yes" is very common in these data.

In the same category is the students' use of "yes" to respond, as a group, to the teacher's request to display access to knowledge. This form of the use of "yes" accounted for 18% of the cases identified in the dataset. It was found that "yes" in this case was usually placed as a freestanding token in the response move in a question-answer adjacency pair. In this case, the teacher asked the students yes/no questions to guide them through the lesson in preparation to present new information. This kind of question usually takes the form of a confirmation check or a direct request to display epistemic access to shared knowledge. Usually, after obtaining the preferred positive answer the teachers were seeking, they proceeded with their pedagogical agenda. However, in the event of disagreement amongst the students, the teachers suspended the agenda and tried to solve the interactional problems before returning to the business of demonstration. The teacher's questions were usually formed using positive words, such as "good", "okay", "right" and so on.

C. Teachers' exclusive use of "yes"

1. "Yes" to select the next speaker.

It was noted in this dataset that the students tended to self-select more often than they were elected by the teachers. However, in the few cases in which teachers allocated the next speakers, the students showed an orientation towards participation by establishing a mutual gaze with the teacher or by attracting the teacher's attention by raising a hand in to request permission. The following excerpt is taken from a physics class. The teacher asks the students if they remember what was said in a previous lesson as it is related to the problem they are solving. She notices what she understands as an orientation by S2 to answer; thus, she terminates the question and uses "yes" with a gaze towards S2 in what is understood as a selection for the next turn. However, S2 was not prepared to answer the question. In fact, she was ready in herself to ask for an explanation. Caught with her guard down, S2 paused for (2.3) seconds and displayed a weak epistemic position by using three consecutive incomplete sentences, followed by prolonged hesitation markers such as "ah".

Excerpt (8)

```

1      T:    remember what we ↑said- ((look at
→ 2      S2 )) ↑yes ((distraction))
3          (2.3)
4      S2:   ah there is ↑two ah:: questions in
5          chapter- ah:: in the- about this
6          falling objects (0.5) I did not know
7          how to solve it↓

```

S2 is hesitant to show a lack of knowledge regarding the chapter they are discussing.

In this set of segments, the teacher places "yes" mainly at the end of the last TCU of his turn immediately after noticing the student's orientation to take the floor. Sometimes, however,

the teachers delay giving the turn until the end of their talk; nevertheless, they acknowledge the students' orientation by establishing a mutual gaze.

2. "Yes" as positive evaluation

In CLIL, as in other classrooms, the students' contributions are always subject to evaluation. However, it is noted that, in this context, evaluation is usually given by using "yes" to show agreement and alignment with the students, as can be seen in excerpt 9.

This excerpt is taken from an early child education classroom. The teacher is asking the students how they introduce the lesson to children.

Excerpt (9)

```

1   T:   how do you [introduce it?] (1.0)
2       ((looking at S4))
3   S4:   [((XXXXX ))]
4   T:   What did you say?
5       (0.7)
6   S4:   'ah::' (0.8) 'Ob[jectives']
7   T:   [yes] (.) yes=
8   S1:   =The +objectives
9   T:   +yes, the objectives, the objectives,
10      Your objective will (.)ah come wh-
11      when you state your +objective(.)
12      they will start where (.) they will
13      get a clue of what they are supposed
14      to do, Same as + you .so that we do
15      not go too far, ((hand gesture)), we
16      take the book (.) and you isolate
17      ((XX)) +this it for +this that is
18      how (( I interpret XX))

```

The teacher asks the students how they introduce their lessons. By looking at S4 and establishing a mutual gaze, the teacher is practicing an establish routine for the next speaker's turn in many classrooms, as noted in the data. The student takes the floor and whispers the answer in line 3, which results in a breakdown in communication. In line 4, the teacher repairs the breakdown by asking the student what she had just said. The student repeats her answer in line 5, preceded by a prolonged hesitation mark "ah:." Due to the hesitation, the teacher overlaps with the student and gives positive feedback in the form of a repeated "yes". This "yes" precedes the part of the students' answer with which the teacher agrees and gives a positive evaluation. SCLIL, however, is not a context in which evaluation is given overtly. In fact, positive evaluation is understood from the way in which the teachers respond to the students' participations. The teachers in this data used "yes" at an initial position in the relevant TCU's in the third move following the second of a question-answer adjacency pair to give positive evaluation. Negative evaluation takes place rarely in this data and, when it does, it is mitigated and delayed (see Jawhar, 2012).

3. "Yes" as a discourse marker

Because the teachers used extended monological of turns, they needed several types of connectors and discourse markers to maintain the flow of the lesson. One of the devices used in this case was "yes", which was used extensively in the middle of extended turns, mainly to connect an idea that was discussed earlier to that which was mentioned later.

This kind of "yes" is found as part of a cluster of discourse markers used to return to the original topic following a slight diversion due to expansion. "Yes" is also used, in this case, to remind the recipients of the speakers' original position regarding the issue under discussion, which is agreement and has relevance to topic closure. Thus, "yes" functions here as a connector between what is being said and what has already been said previously in the same turn. It is used with a cluster of discourse markers including "okay", "so" and "yes" to return to the main topic before the insert expansion (Schegloff, 2007).

8. Conclusion

This paper represents an example of the potential for producing a detailed picture of classroom interaction resulting from the combination of CA with CL as the main method of investigation. The use of corpus linguistics, for instance, allowed us to identify the most frequent linguistic features of CLIL classroom successfully, and to locate them in a big dataset. Meanwhile, the high frequency of the identified linguistic features directed the research towards the important role they play in the construction of meaning CA, on the other hand, helped to show the micro details of the moment-by-moment unfolding of interaction, particularly in those moments in which the identified linguistic features were used. It also showed how the students carried out diverse social actions using limited linguistic resources in a way that revealed the omnipresence of patterned orientation with regard to learning. It also helped in the understanding of how participants negotiated meaning and displayed mutual understanding using the linguistic features identified. The use of CA particularly allowed me to answer the second and the third questions in this paper, which were related to the ways in which teachers and students co-constructed meaning.

The sequential analysis of the data revealed several features of interaction in a CLIL classroom that might otherwise have gone unnoticed. It also indicated how teachers and students used response tokens to carry out some common social actions such as dis/agreement, acknowledgement, and response to confirmation checks and answers to a polar yes/no question. At the same time, the data shed light on some exclusive uses of "yes" by teachers, as well as by students. Some of the social actions identified are similar to those discovered by researchers in SLA classrooms, while others are believed to be exclusive features of CLIL classroom interaction.

In addition to the previously mentioned theoretical significance of this paper, it has other pedagogical implications. On one hand, this paper reflects the students' ability to use their limited linguistic resources not only to interact, but also to maintain the successful flow of conversation. On the other hand, it shows that the apparently successful marriage of the students' limited linguistic resources and their ability to show a reasonable degree of interactional competence does not necessarily indicate successful content-subject learning. In fact, it has been noticed in this dataset that there is an absence of evidence suggesting that the students learned processes such as identification, comparison drawing conclusions and finding similarities and differences, which are considered to be requirements for learning in CLIL (Coyle, 2006).

The picture portrayed by the moment-by-moment unfolding of the talk-in-interaction in this context points towards the importance of increasing the teachers' awareness of the

importance of creating an increased interactional space for students if they want to maximise their students' opportunities to learn.

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An investigation of Semantic Interlingual Errors in the Writing of Libyan English as Foreign Language Learners

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to investigate some semantic interlingual errors in the writing performance of Libyan English as Foreign Language Learners (LEFLLS). The study seeks to analyze these errors that appear in the learners' written production. The data was gathered from 25 essays written by 25 Libyan postgraduates majoring in different fields. It was collected and organized according to the errors committed. Errors taxonomy adapted from James' (1998) and Al-Shorman and Al-Sohbani's (2012) was used in identifying and analyzing these errors. Semantic errors were classified into five categories namely formal mis-selection, formal misformation, lexical choice, collocation and lexico-grammatical choice. The semantic errors identified were 346. These errors were classified into four categories namely, formal misformation (46.7%), distortion due to spelling (32.4%), lexical choice (40.6%) and lexicogrammatical choice (2.4%). The results show that direct translation from the first language (L1), assumed synonym and misselection of letters sub-categories score the highest number of the errors, i.e. 14.2%, 13.08% and 12.08% respectively. While the sub-category, both collocations incorrect error was the lowest (0.52%). The other errors take the form of paraphrase (11.5%) and Idiomacity (8.5%). Two main sources have been found to be the cause behind these errors namely, L1 influence and insufficient knowledge about the second language (L2). Moreover, cultural differences between L1 and L2 had its impact in the written products of Libyan students.

Keywords: acquisition, culture, collocational, lexical, lexicogrammatical, semantic error

Introduction

The role of interference between L1 and L2 has been considered as the most important factor in facilitating or inhibiting the learners to acquire a new language. It is believed that languages affect each other and some elements of one language can be transferred into another in the learning process. Cook (2003) states that everybody thinks his or her L1 has an impact on his or her L2. He further elaborates that the accent of non-native speakers exhibits this transfer as an English speaker can recognize whether the interlocutor is French or Japanese after speaking a few words of English. In line with this perspective Gass and Selinker (2008) postulate that in the second language acquisition (SLA) field, learners rely broadly on their native language when they attempt to acquire a new one. Ellis (2003) also states that the behaviorist theory by Skinner (1957) emphasizes the impact of interference from the previous knowledge. They mentioned how earlier knowledge of L1 intervenes and inhibits the learners to obtain a new one. As a result, it dominates and imposes its structure on the new language that s/he wants to learn. Thus, there is a vital role of L1 on all language skills especially writing. It is obvious that there is a close relationship between linguistic structures and writing and any attempt to disassociate this factor might lead to increasing the possibility of problems in ESL writing.

Writing in L2 is the most intricate skill to learn. Mastering this skill is difficult as the L2 learner has to go through a challenging process. This difficulty exists due to many reasons such as, the difference between L1 and L2 in terms of linguistic knowledge, the interference of the L1 structures in producing the L2 items, the steps and procedures that L2 learners should follow and the impact of the L1 cultural background on the acquisition of the L2. Many researchers have argued that the L2 writing process is considered a difficult task due to different linguistic knowledge, negative transfer of L1 structures and different cultural concepts (Silva, 1993; Hinkel, 2004; Lee, 2005; Martinez, 2005; Al-Hassan, 2013 & Alotaibi, 2014).

In writing in English, the L2 students are confronted with the challenge of writing in a different language while s/he already has acquired a L1. Richards (2003) contends that the L2 writers can be recognized by the difficulty they face in writing in English. They are different from native English speakers in terms of linguistic knowledge. Having acquired one system of writing in L1(Arabic) can confuse a learner in the learning of writing of a L2 (English) and cause difficulties due to the different linguistic knowledge, which further hampers a L1 learner from acquiring writing skill in L2. Saadiyah and Ching (2009) acknowledge that there is a difference between English writing done by native speakers and that of those by L2 learners. They claim that ESL learners may get confused when they write in the L2 due to the difference between L1 and L2. This is in agreement with Cook (2000) who further supports the statement that L2 learners encounter difficulties in acquiring writing skill in English due to the differences between L1 and L2. Silva cited in Richards (2003:669) also argues that “L2 writing is strategically, rhetorically and linguistically different in important ways from L1 writing”. Ellis (2003) says that L1 transfer effects on the L2 learning can be tested in both aspects; “reception”

listening and reading and “production” writing and speaking. Many studies have focused on the impact of the L1 in the learning of the L2 (Bennui, 2008; Hamadouche, 2013; Al-Saraireh & Aljeradaat, 2014). Thus, it is evident that the differences between L1 and L2 are very apparent.

Abi Samra (2003:4) states that:

“Its level of difficulty varies between native speakers (NS) who think in the language used (in our case it will be English) and non-native speakers (NNS) who think in their own native language (in this case it will be Arabic). While writing, non-native speakers have, in general, to think about all those rules need to apply, rules that native speakers are supposed to have automatized. Therefore, non-native speakers are more prone to making mistakes and/or committing errors” (p.4)

It is noticed that many errors are made by the Arab students as they write their written assignments in English. Hamadouche (2013) claims that when learners rely on their L1 knowledge to write in L2, they might produce awkward texts and use some textual features which are considered odd to the L2 writing convention. As a teacher of English for several years in Libya, the corresponding author had noticed that many students have difficulties in producing written assignments in English due to the differences between the Arabic (L1) and English. Libyan students, being EFL learners, encounter more difficulties compared to other English as L2 learners. The two languages have many differences in terms of linguistic system and cultural features. They are different in many aspects such as orthographic system, grammatical structures, syntactic constituents, lexical components and elaborative language style. Shabbir and Bughio (2009) affirm that “English and Arabic are two different languages. Their alphabets, sounds, vowel patterns, pronunciation, capitalization style, articles, even the writing style are different in English”. (p.75)

The Libyan learners are accustomed to write with Arabic alphabetical letters. They are read and written from right to left. This means that Arabic letters are completely different from those used in English which needs more effort to be exerted by the learners to control a new alphabetical system and avoid spelling mistakes in their writing. Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ružić cited in Barry (2012) confirms that the differences between the Arabic alphabetical system and English alphabets were considered as the main cause to the difficulties that the learners encounter. In addition, punctuation and conjunction are not the same in both languages. This means that the probability of committing errors by EFL Libyan learners in terms of using capitalization, comma, period and some conjunction are highly expected.

The errors that Arab students commit might be due to the lack of competence in English language, traditional approach and method used in teaching English in Libyan schools especially writing skill. All of these reasons are believed to contribute to the hindrance of acquiring a correct writing method, but it is highly hypothesized that the gap and difference between the L1 and Arabic features and structures is one of the main causes of these errors and misconception.

This dilemma, the interference between L1 and L2, presumably existed as one of the effects of acquiring English by the Libyan students. Abdul Kareem (2013) asserts that Arab students faced a lot of problems when they write in English and one of the main dilemmas is their L1 (Arabic) interference with the target language (English). Khrama cited in EL-Aswad (2002) refers to some causes that lead Arab students to make mistakes and he argued that one of these reasons is the difference between Arabic and English rhetoric. It is a natural process as the learners switch to their L2, think in their L1 then translate the words into L2. Having followed these steps, the errors are expected to be committed especially when the two items or structures of L1 do not match with those from L2. In line with this, Hussein and Mohammad (2011) find that the dilemma for most Qatari University students is that they face difficulties in English writing due to negative L1 transfer. This can also be applied to the Libyan learners as their L1 is entirely different from the L2 and they think in Arabic and use the translation equivalent of L1 which does not match with the original L2 word. As a consequence, this strategy leads the Libyan learners to commit errors in their writing in English and causes breakdown in communication between the writer and receiver.

In the Libyan context, the unawareness of the difference between Arabic and English in terms of linguistic system makes the process of learning writing skill more difficult. This lack of awareness of the different characteristics and features of Arabic and English is likely to result in the confusion among the EFL Libyan students leading them to fall back on their L1 to imitate some of its features and structures and employ them in L2 writing. As a consequence, this will yield some semantic errors and odd structures in L2 written production. Thus, these factors are believed to lead the Libyan students to commit semantic errors in their English written production. Since there is scarcity of studies which tackled semantic errors committed by Libyan EFL students, many Libyan students and even some teachers are unaware of the problem of L1 interfering in producing their English writing. This is in line with Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012) who assert that “examining and studying semantic errors in SLA is an interesting and challenging area of investigation which is still fertile requiring much more research”.(p.120)

Research into the written production of Libyan students and errors committed by the learners has shown that most of these studies focused on grammatical and phonological aspects whereas the semantic errors which seems to be more important had little attention by those researchers. Compared to syntactic and phonological errors, there is a dearth of studies which have tackled the semantic errors committed by EFL learners (Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani, 2012). Moreover, the focus of language teaching has changed from the form and structure to function and content. Accordingly, this study will concentrate on semantic interlingual errors committed by EFL Libyan postgraduate students in order to find out the relationship between L1 (Arabic) transfer and its impact on their English writing. This study will aim to fill the gap by focusing on L1 transfer impact on the English writing of LEFLLS learners in terms of semantic errors. It will attempt to provide an in-depth analysis of these semantic errors.

Aim of the study

The present study aims at investigating the influence of the L1 transfer and linguistic interference on the English writing of EFL Libyan students. The emphasis is on the semantic interlingual errors that Libyan students make as they write in English. It is believed that these errors exist as a result of interference between L1 and L2 and the impact of their different linguistic structures. Thus, the study attempts to identify the frequent semantic errors caused by the negative L1 (Arabic) in writing in English among the LEFLLS.

Literature review**The role of errors analysis in investigating EFL learners' language**

Error Analysis (EA) emerged in the 1960s as alternative to Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). Ellis (2003:62) states that "Error analysis was one of the first method used in investigate learner language. It achieved considerable popularity in 1970s, replacing contrastive analysis". EA suggests that the L2 errors are caused by other factors than the L1 such as the L2 structures and communication strategies. Ellis (2003) further explains that Corder (1967) notes that errors provide the researcher with the indications of how linguistic structures were learned and these errors also functioned as devices which helped the learner in learning the L2. Hence, errors have been classified according to their sources. Schumann and Stenson (1978) highlights the sources of error which were identified by Richards (1974) such as (i) interference (ii) overgeneralization (iii) markers of transitional competence (iv) performance errors (v) strategies of communication and (vi) induced errors resulted from training transfer. These errors can be analyzed according to Ellis' (2003) steps namely collection of error sample, identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors and evaluation of errors.

By the 1970s, Interlanguage (IL) emerged and was used as alternative of EA. Bennui (2008) asserts that EA had widely been supplanted by studies of IL and SLA. IL is a language which is assumed to be produced by the L2 learner as s/he moves to acquire L2 competence. According to Saville-Troike (2012) the term IL refers to "the intermediate states (or interim grammars) of a learner's language as it moves toward the target L2". (p.43). Thus, IL is different from both L1 and L2. Whilst the influence of both the L1 and L2 in the learners' IL is apparent, the IL is believed to be different from both L1 and L2 through the sequence of development (Saville-Troike, 2012). According to Selinker (1972) the IL is the product of five cognitive processes namely, language transfer, transfer-of-training, strategies of L2 learning, strategies of L2 communication and overgeneralization of target language (TL) linguistic material.

Semantic errors

In this study, semantic errors are defined as "violation of the rules system particular to English language" (Al-Shormani and Al-Sohbani, 2012:121). These errors have been classified into three categories namely, lexical, collocation and lexico-grammatical (James, 1998; Jiang, 2004). This study employed Al-Shormani and Al-Sohbani's (2012:122) taxonomy which was initially based on James' (1998). This taxonomy is as follows:

I. Formal Misselection

1. Misselection of a Prefix
2. Misselection of a Suffix

II. Formal Misformations

1. Direct Translation from L1
2. Borrowing
3. Coinage
4. Distortion due to Spelling
 - 4.1. Omission of letters
 - 4.2. Misordering of letters
 - 4.3 Overinclusion of Letters
 - 4.4. L1-Based Spelling Errors
 - 4.5. Misselection of Letters
- III. Lexical Choice
 1. Assumed Synonymy
 2. Derivativeness
 3. Confusion of Binary Terms
 4. Paraphrase
 5. Idiomacity
 6. Similar Forms
- IV. Collocations
 1. Collocate Choice
 - 1.1. One Collocate Incorrect
 - 1.2. Both Collocates Incorrect
 2. Contextualization
 3. Wrong Forms
- V. Lexicogrammatical Choice
 1. Adjectives in place of Nouns
 2. Nouns in place of Adjectives
 3. Adjectives in place Adverbs
 4. Adverbs in place of Adjectives

Methodology

Participants

The sample of this study comprises 25Libyan postgraduate students studying at both public and private Malaysian universities. Their ages are between 20 and 45 years. They are male and female, viz, 12 male and 13 female. The respondents took general and academic English courses before they commence their high academic studies at Malaysian universities. Thus, their English level is considered to be intermediate. The rationale behind choosing these students is that they have embarked in an intensive English course and they are trained to write in English.

Procedures

In this study, the writing task was used to elicit data. 25 respondents were required to choose one argumentative essay topic. The questions papers were distributed to 25 students and

they were asked to choose one argumentative topic and write an essay of at least 100 words within 1 hour. The topics were as follows:

1. *Drivers should be banned from using their cell phones while driving cars. To what extent do you agree or disagree?*
2. *Parents should control what their children watch on TV. To what extent do you agree or disagree?*

Results

This section presents the results of the current study with the discussion of these results based on the errors taxonomy adopted from James' 1998 and Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani's 2012. The results were as follows:

Table1. Semantic errors in the written essays

Category	No. (%)	Total No. (%)
I. Formal misselection		11 (3.02%)
(1) Misselection of a Prefix	0	
(2) Misselection of a Suffix	11(3.02%)	
II. Formal Misformation		170 (46.7%)
(1) Direct Translation from L1	52 (14.2%)	
(2) Borrowing	0	52 (14.2% %)
(3) Coinage	0	
(4) Distortion due to spelling		
(4.1) Omission of letters	42 (11.5%)	118 (32.4%)
(4.2) Misordering of letters	8 (2.19%)	
(4.3) Overinclusion of letters	18(4.9%)	
(4.4) L1-Based Spelling Errors	6 (1.6%)	
(4.5) Misselection of letters	44(12.08%)	
III. Lexical choice		148 (40.6%)
(1) Assumed synonymy	50(13.7%)	
(2) Derivativeness	0	
(3) Confusion of binary terms	17(4.6%)	
(4) Paraphrase	42 (11.5%)	
(5) Idiomaticity	31(8.5%)	
(6) Similar forms	8 (2.1%)	
IV. Collocation		26 7.1%)
(1) Collocation choice		
(1.1) One collocation incorrect	9(2.4%)	
(1.2) Both collocation incorrect	2(0.52%)	
(2) Contextualization	0	
(3) Wrong forms	15(4.1%)	
V. Lexicogrammatical choice		9 (2.4%)
(1) Adjectives in place of nouns	2 (0.52%)	
(2) Nouns in place of adjectives	5 (1.3%)	
(3) Adjectives in place of adverbs	2 (0.52%)	
(4) Adverbs in place of adjectives	0	
Total	364	100%

Table1 shows that altogether 364 semantic errors have been identified in this study. These errors were classified into four categories namely, formal misformation (46.7%), distortion due to spelling (32.4%), lexical choice (40.6%) and lexicogrammatical choice (2.4%). The results show that direct translation from L1, assumed synonym and misselection of letters sub-categories score the highest number of the errors, i.e. 14.2%, 13.08% and 12.08% respectively, while the sub-category, both collocations incorrect error was the lowest (0.52%). The other errors take the form of paraphrase which accounted for 11.5 % and idiomacity accounted for 8.5%. Details of these findings are discussed in the next section.

Discussion

1. Formal misselection

According to James (1998), formal misselection consists of three subcategories namely, misselection of a prefix, misselection of a suffix, and false friends. Based on the analysis of data, no errors match these two subcategories; misselection prefix, and false friends. However, errors on misselection of a suffix are available.

2. Misselection of a Suffix

According to Free Online Dictionary, suffix can carry grammatical information (inflectional suffixes) or lexical suffixes (derivational /lexical suffixes). It is stated that inflectional suffixes do not change the word class of the word such as adding 's' third person singular present, 'ed' past tense and 'ing' progressive (Jackson & Amvela, 2000). It seems that Libyan EFL learners face some difficulties in terms of forming words by adding suffixes. This category comprises 4 errors. The following examples highlight these errors:

1. * to increase the knowledge and referashing the thinkfull [thinking]
2. * relax and doing something interested. [interesting]
3. * our children have to watched. [watch]
4. * the idea that say. [says]
5. * everyone should do not using phone [use]

In example (1), the learner adds the suffix 'full' to the word *think* which is nonsense as the term does not exist in English. Instead the suffix meant by the respondent was 'ing' to form the word 'thinking'. It is obvious here that how the deviation occurred by choosing the wrong suffix which impacts the understanding of the sentence and impedes the message conveyed by the writer.

In (2) the learner committed a common mistake. He/she encountered the difficulty of distinguishing between "*interested*" which used to describe the feeling of the people where as 'interesting' is used to denote places and objects (Quirk et al., 1985). In line with this, Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012) mentioned in their study that the subjects committed some errors regarding the disability to distinguish between the suffixes 'ing' and 'ed'. They elaborated by

giving the following examples: “*The book was writing by Shakespeare or I am visited my friends tomorrow*”.

In (3) and (4), the student used the verb “*watched*” and “*say*” as a substitute for “*watch*” and “*says*” respectively.

In example (5), the subject committed an error which lies in using the word ‘*using*’ instead of ‘*use*’. It is believed that in Arabic, this is not an error because formation of words in Arabic is completely different from English. Thus, these errors might be attributed to the lack of knowledge of L2 and they called it developmental of overgeneralization errors (Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani, 2012).

II. Formal Misformation

Formal misformation errors was defined by James (1998) as vocabulary produced by the learners in their written production but these words are not existent in the L2. The source of these errors can be the L1 or the L2 itself. The formal misformation errors found in this research are classified into three types which are direct translation form L1, borrowing, and coinage.

1. Direct translation from L1

These errors occurred when the EFL learners translate the words, phrases, clauses and/or sentences from their L1 (Arabic) into English. There are 52 occurrences which represent 14.2% of errors committed by the participants. The following are some of the excerpts.

1. * After we cuttingdistance a 300 kilometers.[travel]
2. *theyforget thinking about what their children need. [neglect]
3. *we saw camels cut of the road. [cross]
- 4.*.....help the kids for study; speak, if they watch small or young time. [early childhood].
- 5.*There are programs contain bad habits. [behaviors]
- 6.*I mean by that, sometimes bad friends may give some ideas and names of bad channels or sites. [I think] [websites]
- 7.* Although it had advantages same, it helps kids to learn..... [Such as]

In excerpts from (1) to (7), the learners used *cutting*, *forget thinking*, *cut*, *small/young*, *habits*, *mean*, *sites* and *same* for, *travel*, *neglect*, *cross*, *early childhood*, *behaviours*, *think*, *websites* and *such as*. These words are directly translated from the learners’ L1. They are used instead of other English words. This strategy is followed by Arab learners due to the lack of L2 knowledge and vocabulary. Thus, the students set up a sentence in Arabic, translate them and transfer them into English (Al-shormani & Al-Sohbani, 2012). All of these errors are assumed to be committed due to the effect of L1, namely interlingual errors.

2. Borrowing

Borrowing words from the L1 is one approach that a learner uses when she/he does not have the ability of using the L2 equivalent (Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani, 2012). In this study, there were 3 borrowed terms which are as follows:

1. *Prayer and fasting and Taraweeh was beautiful and happy times.
2. *The most beautiful and most important event in my life when I went to Umarhin Ramadan

In examples (1) and (2), words used are not from English. The first is *Taraweeh* means night prayers. It seems that the learner used the word *Taraweeh* thinking that it can be understood by all readers supposing that she/he shares the same writer's culture. In (2) the writer used the terms *Umarh (Umrah)* which means visiting the sacred house of Allah, and *Ramadan*, the ninth month in the Islamic calendar. Apart from borrowing the L1 words, this category shows the cultural items used and its effect in conveying the meaning which need more explanation to be understandable to the reader of the different culture.

3. Coinage

The result of the current study shows no examples match with this subcategory. Coinage errors occurred when the learners attempted to apply the Arabic rule to make up a new form or word in English (Al-shormani & Al-Sohbani, 2012).

4. Distortion due to spelling

It is obvious that when words are spelled wrongly their meaning will be a bit difficult to grasp. The distortion due to spelling in this study was classified into omission of letters, misordering of letters, L1-based spelling errors and misselection of letters. They will be presented and discussed as follows:

1). Omissions of letters

1. *We are lucky that day
2. * watching television or movies excessively .
3. *Moreover, one of the many reports showed
4. * enhance our children conversion.
5. *To know more what happend in the word.
- 6* Nowdays ,The technology is inside every home.

In excerpts from (1) to (6) there is an omission of one letter from each word. They vary between consonant and vowel letters. In (1) the word *lucky* is written without *e*. In (2) and (3) the letter *c* and *e* is omitted from the words *excessively* and *moreover* respectively. Whereas the words *conversation*, *happened*, *world* and *nowadays* are written incorrectly as the learners omitted one letter from each word which consequently make them semantically deviant. All of these spelling mistakes are caused by insufficient knowledge about the L2 spelling. In addition, Arabic and English are completely different in terms of scripts.

2). Misordering of letters

There are two examples of misordering of letters which are as follows:

- 1.* but sometiems there are some news
- 2* essential for our dialy life dealing
- 3* they like miove more than study
- 4*The children spend his time during holiday and liesure time.
- 5 *and saw a lot of beuatiful places.

In these sentences, the learners committed the errors in spelling of the words *sometimes*, *daily*, *movies*, *leisure* and *beautiful*. They spelt the words wrongly which is believed to be ascribed to L2.

3). Overinclusion of letters

Overinclusion of letters are believed to be committed by Arab EFL learners at the beginning and advanced levels. These errors occur due to overgeneralization of L2 rules (Al-shormani & Al-Sohbani, 2012). The following examples illustrate these errors which can be classified under this subcategory.

- 1* they know what childreen watch.
- 2*if that could be done under parantscontroll.
- 3* understand any worde their parents told.
- 4* which harms our childrensdevelopment.
- 5*Driviing and use of mobile.

It is argued that Arabic has no influence on the errors committed under this subcategory namely overinclusion. In errors such as *driviing*, the learner added 'i' which indicates the lack of awareness of English spelling rule in terms of adding -ing suffix. The same goes to these words; *childreen*, *contoll*, *worde* and *childrens*. In these errors, the learners added a letter to each word due to the lack of knowledge of L2 and overgeneralization.

4). L1-based spelling errors

The following examples are found to be L1-based errors:

- 1.* Nowadays most of peoble use their cell phones
- 2.* our boints of view
- 3.* to leaf the children to watch TV

The words *peoble*(1) and *boints*(2) are misspelt by substitute the letter b for /p/. Needless to say that most of Arab students pronounce the /p/ as /b/. In (4) the respondent faced difficulty in choosing the right letter 'v' as s/he used the 'f' instead. This is in agreement with Al-shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012) that stated that Arabic speakers encounter difficulties of distinguishing between 'b' and 'p' as well 'f' and 'v' due to the wrong pronunciation of 'p' and 'v' as 'b' and 'f' respectively.

5). Misselection of letters

This category has the high number of errors (44 errors). The following are some examples of these mistakes:

- 1.* we are silent up to 10 minetues [minutes]
- 2.*Programs that made the children lasy, loss activity.....andenmoy to his friends

- [lazy] [enemy]
 2.* We scared from the accedent [accident]
 3.* Beacuse children spend more time in the house rother than out of house. [because]
 [rather]
 4.* The parant should take care about ... [parent]
 5.* who addicated to TV [addicted]

In sentences (1) through (5), the words *minetues*, *lasy*, *enmoy*, *accident*, *because*, *rotherparants* and *addicatedare* wrongly spelt. The misselection of letters were committed due to the inability of the learners to spell the words well. To trace the reason behind these errors, L2 influence appears to be responsible as Arabic does not have the same orthography.

II. Lexical Choices

Choosing the right lexis is an important factor in conveying the intended meaning. It is believed that in acquiring a L2, lexical knowledge plays a vital role in obtaining that language. To ease the process of SLA the learner should have sufficient lexical knowledge of the target language (Al-Jarf, 2011). Libyan learners encounter some difficulties in learning English lexicon and there is a trend that they commit some semantic errors due to lexical choices and cultural items. These errors are classified as follows.

1). Assumed synonymy

It has been argued that synonym is a lexical phenomenon and it can be found in any language (Shormani, 2014). Abu Naba'h (2011) contends that in semantic, it is impossible to find two synonyms or two sentences that have exactly the same meaning. Thus EFL Arab learners assume some words as synonyms and use them interchangeably which results in some semantic errors and misconception. The following are examples from this study.

- 1.* who are very busy in their works. [jobs]
 2.*television has meaningfulprogramms. [informative]
 3.* He may forget the exit and go forward instead of turn on correct exit. [missed] [right]
 4.* One of the cell phones flaws. [limitations]
 5.*He is frendly, funny... [Sense of humour]
 6.*Follow wrong practices that displayed in movies and series... [behaviours]

The underlined words were used by the learners as assumed synonyms of the words stated in []. In sentence (1) the learner used the word works instead of *jobs* which is believed to be interlingual error as these two English words are equivalent to the word *amail* in Arabic. This also can be confirmed from the plural form of work *amail* which is singular in English. Words used in (2), (3) and (4) are meaningful, forget, correct and flaws reflect the confused choice of these synonyms as they cannot convey the intended meaning. In example (5) the error is also ascribed to the L1 of Arab learners as the term funny is used in Arabic with meaning of “has a sense of humour”. But this error also can be attributed to L2. It is obvious that the lack of knowledge of L2 for an appropriate word for “sense of humour” lead the learner to use the word funny which might mislead the reader in this context. The error in (6) can be ascribed to L1

because the term practices convey the meaning of *behaviours* in Arabic. Thus, the learner used the term practice as a synonym for *behaviour* in trying to provide its meaning in his/her L1.

2). Derivativeness

There is an essential difference between Arabic and English in terms of derivation. According to Al-Jarf (1994:11) “Arabic and English do not share any derivational affixes (equivalent forms). They do not share any suffixes and prefixes that show common origin and meaning”. Furthermore, Arabic words are built-up from roots representing lexical and semantic connecting elements. This is not the case with English, which employs the stem as a basis for word generation”. However, in this study, no error is committed for this category.

3). Confusion of binary terms

According to this category learners may get confused in selecting the appropriate word due to the “kind of exclusiveness”, which means that when one word is used, the other one is not (Shormani, 2014). The following examples present this error.

- 1.* but also to the other traffic users too. [road users]
- 2.* Also we can't avoid the children to watch TV at all. [protect /prevent]
- 3.* to divide their children time in good way. [to manage]
- 4.* Children like to follow what they see. [imitate]
- 5.* And join them to many programmes or activities. [monitor]
- 6.* TV is sometimes possible to offer things or programmes which may cluttered their thoughts. [show/display]
- 7.* Confiscating the driving licence. [revoking]

Errors in this category are caused by confusion between the binary terms used by the learners. For instance, respondent no. 29 committed an error by using the term *traffic users* to mean *road users* which is believed to be due to interlingual reason as the two words carry the same meaning in Arabic. The error in (2) comes from choosing the term *avoid* instead of *protect* or *prevent*. The other substitutes are (3) *divide* for *manage*, (4) *follow* for *imitate*, (5) *join* for *monitor*, and (6) *offer* for *show* or *display* respectively. In (2) the word *avoid* is used as L1-influence, because in Arabic it can be used to mean “protect others from doing things”. For the error in (4) and (5), the learner used the terms *follow* for *imitate* and *join* to substitute *monitor*. In these sentences, the learner might fail in conveying the intended meaning. This error is ascribed to L2-influence as the word *join* cannot be used in Arabic with this meaning. (6) and (7) can be attributed to L1-effect as the word *offer* is used in Arabic with the sense of *display*. The same applies to *confiscating* which reflects the meaning of *revoking*.

4). Paraphrase

Al-shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012) mention that Zughouli (1991) calls paraphrase errors as “circumlocution”. They further contented that paraphrase is considered as the most problematic area that Arab learners encountered. These errors are exemplified as follows:

- 1.* the drivers cannot see the people walking in the road. [pedestrians]
- 2.* This number each year increase about one percent from each year. [increase yearly]
- 3.* Or help me in my live although he isn't learn any language or words, or litters in alphapets Arabic language. [illiterate]

4.*Programs that made the children lasy, loss activity. [lazy/ unenergetic]

5.*cause me headache a long time. [annoyed me]

It seems that when learners lack the knowledge of knowing the appropriate terms to express his/her ideas in L2, they tend to use the strategy of compensation by using paraphrasing. Thus, instead of choosing the vocabulary *pedestrians* s/he keeps on elaborating which might impede the reader from grasping the intended meaning. Sentence (2) also shows this type of error as redundancy is quite obvious. In (3) the learner does not know the word *illiterate*, so s/he tried to paraphrase it by using isn't learn any language or words. In the next sentence (4) the term loss activity was used to substitute *unenergetic*. In (5) the learner used *cause me headache* in order to express his/her feeling and it will be more appropriate if s/he describes the situation by using terms such as *annoy, disturbor irritate*.

5). Idiomacity

Al-shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012) argue that L2 learners in general and Arab learners in particular face difficulties in learning English idioms due to their difficulty in understanding the meaning in context. Here are some errors:

1.*. He using phone and driving in the same time. [at the same time]

2.* In my idea using phone while driving is bad habit. [in my opinion]

3.* we are look for each other. [Look at]

4.*As you know there is many programs in the TV... [on the TV]

5.* I actually do not agree to the use of mobile. [agree with]

As the learner does not know about idiomatic structures in L2, s/he seems to be struggling in producing the correct idiom as it should have been known in advance. For instance, the first idiom is wrongly written as *in the same timewhich* should be correctly written *at the same time*. In the second idiom (2), the learner comes up with a completely strange one which might be attributed to the influence of L1. The respondent here used the term *in my ideato* mean *in my opinion*. In (3), *look fors* used as a substitute for *look at* which has a different meaning. In the example (4), s/he wrongly used the phrase *inthe TV* instead of *on the TV*. This error can be rooted from the L1 as this proposition “*fi*” is used in Arabic. In the error (5) the student used “*agree to*” to express his/her agreement but s/he missed the right term which is “*agree with*”. The error is attributed to L2 source as Arabic does not have this form. Moreover, this idiom is identical in both Arabic and English, i.e. the verb *agree* collocates *with* the word ‘with’.

6). Similar forms

Similar forms have been considered by many researchers as a cause of lexical choice errors committed by L2 learners irrespective of their L1 (Zughoul, 1991; Shalaby et al., 2007; Llach, 2005; Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006). In the current study, this category includes 8 errors. These are some examples:

1.*unlessparants they know what childreen watch. [at least].

2.*As you know their is many programs. [there]

3.*I also see a lot these days how children effect on each other [affect]

4.*That is way I am disagree for the idea[Why]

5.* almost of them are not subject to censorship. [Most]

Errors in this subcategory were caused by confusion due to the similarities between the words. These similarities could be either graphically or phonetically (Shormani, 2014). In excerpts from (1) into (5), the confused words used are *unless*, *their*, *effect*(n), *way* and *almost* instead of *atleast*, *there*, *affect*(v), *why* and *most* respectively. All of these errors seemed to be caused by insufficient knowledge of L2.

IV. Collocation

Collocations are an important part of any language and their meanings are considered to be more important especially when they are used by non-native learners. According to Rabeh (2010) “a collocation is the combination of two words or more creating a meaning which is different from the meaning of separate words”(p.23). Few collocation errors have been identified in this study due to the difficulty that students face in terms of constructing them in L2. The following are some examples:

1). Collocation choice

This category was divided into two subcategories which are as follows:

1.1 One collocation incorrect

In the following excerpts the learners failed to choose one part of the collocations:

1. * waste time, or do eccident. [have]
2. * we will makersk. [take]
3. *It is very important for children to have advice about which channels.
[To be given]

In these examples from (1) to (3), one collocate is incorrect. For instance in sentence (1), the participant wrote *do accident* instead of *have/has accident*. This error seems to be due to the lack of knowledge of this structure in L2. In the second sentence (2), the learner committed an error in choosing the verb *take* to express the meaning of exposing to risk. So the correct collocation should be *take risk*. It is obvious that the cause of this error is the interference of L1 as the term *make risk* is used in Arabic. In (3) *be given advice* should be used rather than *have advice* which cannot convey the meaning clearly. This error can be traced to the incompetency of the learner in using the L2.

1.2 Both collocations incorrect

Unlike the former subcategory, in this one both parts of the collocation are wrong. Examples are as follows:

1. * putting the vehicle over. [stop]
2. *Programmes are good for them to build their minds in right infrastructure.
[develop their thinking / good way]

In example (1), it seems that the learner tried to use a wrong combination of words which are *put the vehicle over* to convey the meaning of stopping the car and make a call while you are driving. Thus, using this collocation hinder the meaning and make it very difficult to be grasped. The error in example (2) includes both words as well. The collocation used is incorrect. So, based on the analysis of the first author who shares the same L1 with the participants, it is

understood that the participant intended to say that these programmes can be used to develop kids' mind set by using appropriate method. It is believed that this error is caused by the influence of L1 as the writer thinks in Arabic but write in English.

2). Contextualization

The focus in this subcategory is on the context that the word is used. Here is one error from this study:

1. *The TV is one of the most important things [devices /issues]

In sentence (1) the word *things* seems to have nothing wrong in terms of grammar and semantic but the terms such as *devices* and *issues* might be more specific in this context.

3). Wrong forms

The following examples exemplify this category.

1. * everyone should do not using phone [use]
- 2.* is not good for children to watched. [watch]
- 3.*scientest programs that children can benefit from. [scientific]
- 4.* the machines that at first were used only to making call. [make]

In (3) and (2), the respondents failed to come up with the correct form of the word. They used the words *using* and *watched* with the wrong suffixes which make the meaning quite vague. Although the respondent omitted a spelling mistake in sentence (3) *scientist*, it is obvious that he/she intended to use the word *scientist* which is grammatically wrong as the correct form should be *scientific*programs. This error is ascribed to the learner's confusion in choosing the right word to construct the collocation.

VI. Lexicogrammatical choice

Lexicogrammatical choice errors occur when the learners substitute a word from a particular grammatical category with another grammatical category (Al-shormani & Al-Sohbani 2012). Thus, she/he, for instance, uses an adjective instead of a noun or vice versa. The Lexicogrammatical errors identified in this study are as follows:

1). Adjectives in place of nouns

In this category, errors are committed by using adjectives in the place of nouns. Two errors have been identified which are as follows:

- 1.* There are some dangerous and problems. [danger]
- 2.* to increase the knowledge and referashing the thinkfull ... [thinking]

In example (1), it is obvious that the student used the word *dangerous*, which is an adjective, to substitute the noun *danger*. The context here needed to be expressed by using the noun instead of the adjective. It is believed that this error was committed due to the lack of knowledge of the grammatical rules of target language. In sentence (2), the learner used the wrong word thinkfull with the suffix *full*, which gives the sense that the word is an adjective. It seems that the term thinking (mind set) is meant here but the student failed twice in this example. Firstly, to choose the right adjective and secondly, to attempt to use an adjective in the place of a noun. This error is L2-based error as the learner is not aware of the right word to be used in this context.

2). Nouns in place of adjectives

Errors in this category are committed when the learners use nouns in the place of adjectives.

These errors scores 1.3 %. They are exemplified as follows:

- 1.*could be done under parants control [parental].
- 2.*In addition there is many educational and scientest programs. [scientist]
- 3.* driving is very dangers. [Dangerous]
- 4.* The watch tv is fun for kids and adults. [funny/entertaining]

The error in (1) occurred because the noun parants[parents] is used instead of the adjective parental and the same happened with (2) asscientest [scientist] substitutes scientific (adj), (3), dangers instead of *dangerous* and (4), fun for *funny* or *entertaining*. Here insufficient L2 knowledge seems to be the cause of these errors.

3). Adjectives in place of adverbs

According to Al-shormani and Al-Sohbani (2012), it is common for Arab learners to commit this type of error, where they replace adverbs with adjective. The following errors are examples of this subcategory:

1. *I feel good every day. [well]
2. * TV is sometimes possible to offer things. [possibly] Underline the error. Add the correct word.

*The words in bold should not be in italics. Change them. Copy correctly.

In sentence (1), the learner used an adjective *good* instead of an adverb *well* as it describes the feeling of the writer. In example (2), *possible* is used wrongly as the right vocabulary should be the adverb *possibly*. These errors are attributed to L2 as the learners lack proficiency in grammatical structures of English.

4) Adverbs in place of adjectives

Although the belief that most Arab students encounter some difficulties in substituting adverbs with adjectives, no example matches this category in the current study. Al-shormani and Al-Sohbani (2012) state that Arab learners encounter some difficulties in using adverbs in their written products. Thus, it could be that the respondents, in the current study, used the strategy of avoidance. Due to the difficulty of distinguishing between adverbs and adjectives they preferred to avoid using these structures to spare any errors to be committed.

Conclusions

In this study, semantic errors committed by Libyan postgraduate learners have been traced. These errors are classified according to three categories namely, lexical, collocational and lexicogrammatical. Each of these categories has been divided into further subcategories. There are 364 errors identified in the current study. The results showed that Direct Translation from L1, Assumed Synonym and Misselection of Letters sub-categories score the highest number of errors, i.e. 14.2%, 13.08% and 12.08% respectively, While the sub-category, both collocation incorrect error was the lowest, 0.52%. The other errors take the form of paraphrase which accounted for 11.5 % and Idiomaticity accounted for 8.5%. Two main sources have been found to be the cause behind these errors namely, L1 influence and insufficient knowledge about the L2.

Pedagogical implication

This study recommends that English teachers and curriculum designers should focus on these semantic errors especially the categories identified in order to address the influence of L1 transfer (Arabic) and linguistic interference on the English writing of EFL Libyan students. Teachers, in particular, should concentrate on these difficulties faced by EFL learners and encourage them to use accurate vocabulary with the exact meaning intended to convey the message to the reader. In addition, comparing between Arabic and English might be applicable to show students the differences between L1 and L2 which might lead to some errors and consequently communication breakdown.

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Long Term Effect of Phonetic Instruction on the Production of /p/ by EFL Arab Learners: an Exploratory Study

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Abstract

Most previous studies, that have examined the effect of explicit pronunciation instruction on foreign language speech, have focused on the short term effect of explicit pronunciation instruction, usually measured immediately after instruction. For this reason, it is not yet clear whether the attested benefit from pronunciation instruction can be sustained for a long time after instruction. The current study attempted to explore the long term effect of phonetic instruction on the production of the English bilabial voiceless stop /p/ by Arab learners of English as foreign language (EFL, henceforth). Nine Arab EFL learners were assigned to two groups, control and experimental. The experimental group received phonetic instruction on how to produce the English sound /p/, whereas the control group did not. The production of the English sound /p/ was elicited from all the learners in both groups, once before the instruction and once after 11 weeks of the instruction. Two experienced native English instructors were asked to judge whether the students produced /p/ or /b/. The results generally showed no benefit from the phonetic instruction on the delayed production of /p/ by the EFL Arab learners. Although the results do not seem encouraging for pronunciation instruction, it is difficult to reach a conclusion with regard to pronunciation instruction due to the small sample size used in the current exploratory study, and to the difficulty to generalize the results on /p/ to all other sounds. Future studies may use larger sample sizes and include more sounds in their instruction methods.

Keywords: Arab EFL learners, instruction, phonetic, pronunciation, teaching

Introduction

Among other language skills, pronunciation is usually given the least attention in foreign language classrooms (Saalfeld, 2012). This is probably the result of not giving pronunciation teaching enough attention in previous research in applied linguistics, which made it difficult for teachers and curriculum designers to integrate pronunciation teaching into language textbooks and classrooms (Derwing & Munro, 2005). In addition, pronunciation teaching has been viewed by many as ineffective (Derwing & Munro, 2009). However, a number of recent studies have shown that pronunciation instruction can be effective, and could improve the speech production of second/foreign language learners (Thomson & Derwing, 2015). However, there is still a need for more studies to show how pronunciation instruction can be effective. In addition, it is not yet known whether the benefit of pronunciation instruction can be sustained for a long time after instruction, as most previous studies have only examined the production of learners immediately after instruction.

The English voiceless bilabial stop /p/ poses a great difficulty for Arab learners of English (Flege & Port, 1981; Altaha, 1995). This is likely because /p/ does not exist in the phonemic system of Arabic, and thus Arab learners tend to substitute it with its similar Arabic phoneme /b/ (e.g., Altaha, 1995). As pronunciation receives little attention in English classrooms (Derwing & Munro, 2009; Foote, Trofimovich, Collins, & Urzúa, 2016), and given the fact that the English sound /p/ has been shown to be very difficult for Arab learners to produce (Flege & Port, 1981), it would be interesting to find out whether pronunciation instruction has any effect on improving Arab learners' production of /p/. The present study provides an exploratory attempt to examine this issue.

Literature Review

Pronunciation instruction

Explicit pronunciation instruction receives, relative to other language skills, little attention in English classrooms (e.g., Saalfeld, 2012). This is one of the consequences of the communicative language teaching method, where it is assumed that with enough exposure to input, learners' pronunciation would consequently improve (Thomson & Derwing, 2015). This may have led some teachers and curriculum designers to view explicit pronunciation teaching as ineffective (Foote, et al., 2016). Another reason that may have led to the lack of attention given to pronunciation teaching in English classrooms is that teachers and curriculum designers, due to the dearth of research on pronunciation teaching, find it difficult to blend pronunciation instruction into textbooks and classrooms (Derwing & Munro, 2005).

The last decade has witnessed a growing body of research which examined the efficacy of pronunciation teaching. The results have generally shown a positive effect of explicit pronunciation teaching on the improvement of language learners' pronunciation (Saito, 2012; Lee, Jang, & Plonsky, 2015; Thomson & Derwing, 2015). Elliot (1997) studied whether the effect of pronunciation practice of some Spanish segments would lead to improvement in the production of these segments by native English speakers. The results yielded positive effects for only some of the sounds. Lord (2005) reported improvement in the production of some Spanish sounds taught to native English speakers. Saito (2007) examined the production of the English sound /æ/ by EFL Japanese learners before and after phonetic instruction. The results showed improvement in the production of this sound. Saito (2011) provides phonetic training to L2

Japanese learners on eight English sounds, and the results showed no effect of training on the overall perceived degree of foreign accent in the speech of the learners. Saito and Lyster (2012) examined the effect of explicit pronunciation instruction on the production of /r/ by L2 Japanese learners of English. Their findings showed that only when pronunciation instruction was combined with corrective feedback the learners' production improved. Kissling (2013) shows a positive effect of pronunciation instruction on the production of eight Spanish sounds by English learners.

The above studies generally indicate that pronunciation instruction can be effective in improving the production of speech sounds by second and foreign language learners. However, there is still a need for more studies to explore how explicit pronunciation teaching can be effective. In particular, it is not yet clear for how long the attested benefit of explicit pronunciation instruction can last. Most previous studies examined the short-term effect of explicit pronunciation instruction, usually immediately after the training session (Couper, 2006; Saito & Lyster, 2012). Therefore, the current study attempted to explore the long term effect of pronunciation instruction on the production of the English sound /p/ by EFL Arab learners.

The bilabial voiceless sound /p/ and Arab learners of English

Numerous observational and empirical studies have shown that Arab learners of English have great difficulty in producing the English bilabial voiceless sound /p/ (e.g., Flege & Port, 1981; Altaha, 1995; Buali, 2010). This is likely because Arabic does not have /p/ as part of its phonemic system (Newman, 2002; Watson, 2002). The difficulty to produce /p/ by Arab learners may also be attributed to the fact that Arabic has a very similar sound to it, its voiced counterpart /b/, which makes it difficult for Arab learners to perceive the difference between these two sounds, and consequently produce /b/ for both phonemic categories. This latter reason is based on the Speech Learning Model in second language phonology which posits that the greater perceived similarity between an L1 (first language) and an L2 (second language) sounds, the greater the difficulty for L2 learners to perceive the difference, and consequently the greater difficulty to produce the L2 sound (Flege, 1995). Given the difficulty for producing /p/ by Arab learners, it provides an interesting case for examining the efficacy of explicit pronunciation instruction.

The current study

To explore the long-term effect of pronunciation instruction on the production of English sounds by EFL learners, the current study used a quasi-experimental pre/delayed-post intervention design, where a number of EFL Arab learners of English were asked to produce the English sound /p/ before and after pronunciation instruction. Experienced native English teachers were then asked to judge whether the learners produced /p/ or /b/. Specifically, the current study aims to answer the following question:

Q. Does explicit pronunciation instruction has any long-term positive effect on the production of the English sound /p/ by Arab EFL learners?

Method

Learners

Nine Arab EFL learners (N=5 in the experimental group & N=4 in the control group) participated in the present study. All the participants were first year university students at Taif

University (Saudi Arabia) majoring in computer sciences. None of them reported any hearing or speaking problems, and none of them lived or studied in an English speaking country. They all attended Saudi public schools before enrolling at the University, where all course are taught in Arabic, except for English which is taught as part of the curriculum. They all attended a one-year preparatory course at the University before joining the computer science department. During their preparatory year, English was one of the core courses studied.

At the time of the experiment, all the learners were attending an English for Computing course (six hours spread over a week for a 15-week semester), which was part of their BSc degree in computer science designed mainly to equip them with the basic terminology used in computing. No explicit pronunciation instruction was included in this course.

During the second week of their English for computing course, the instructor, who is also the researcher of the current study, announced during class whether anyone would be interested in attending a pronunciation instruction course for a course credit of 10%. All students who chose not to attend the pronunciation course were given the chance of obtaining the 10% credit by asking them to translate 100 English computing words into Arabic. The 5 students who showed interest to attend the pronunciation course met with the researcher for an hour a week at a language lab in the English language center at Taif University.

Phonetic Instruction

The phonetic instruction course was spread over 11 weeks, and designed to teach the learners a number of English sounds (a sound each week), of which /p/ was taught in the first week. The course was delivered by the author of the current study, who has a PhD in linguistics with a main focus on second language speech. Because the instructor of the pronunciation course is a non-native speaker, one may argue that this is not the ideal person to teach pronunciation. However, it has been found that both native and non-native English teachers can be similarly competent in teaching English pronunciation (Levis, Sonsaat, Link, & Barriuso, 2016). In addition, as the majority of English language teachers world-widely are non-native speakers (Selvi, 2014), it would be interesting to examine the efficacy of teaching pronunciation by non-native English teachers. It is also worth mention that the multimedia used in the course featured native English speakers to provide an exemplar for the students to follow.

The instruction for the sound /p/ took place in the first week, and lasted one hour. It started with introducing the sound /p/ by illustrating the grapheme-phoneme correspondence between the sound phonemic symbol /p/ and its orthographic representation. Then, an articulatory phonetic description of how the sound is produced was presented to the students. The phonetic description included an illustration of the sound's place and manner of articulations, as well as its phonation type (i.e., voiceless). The description also included the aspirated phonetic variant of the sound /p/ at the beginning of stressed syllables. To make the description more effective, I made use of the online version of the phonetic software Sound of Speech (developed by the University of Iowa, see web references below). This software demonstrates a graphic motion of the vocal tract showing how the sound is articulated. It also features a clip of a native speaker of English providing a careful pronunciation of the sound in isolation and in context. The phonetic description was then followed by listening and discrimination practices, where the students were asked to carefully listen to the sound, along with its voiced counterpart /b/, as produced by a

native English speaker in isolation and in context. This was followed by a repetition practice in which the students were asked to repeat the sound in isolation and in context after a native English speaker model, and they were given feedback on their production. For the listening and repetitions practices, two sources were used: *English Pronunciation in Use Intermediate* book (Hancock, 2012), and the BBC English pronunciation website (see web references below) which features video clips for each English phoneme (description, word examples listening & repetition) by a native English phonetician. These two sources also provide listening discrimination practices between /p/ and its voiced counterpart /b/. This was followed by a cross-linguistic comparison between tArabic and English with regard to the sounds /p/ and /b/, where it was explained that the Arabic phonemic system lacks the sound /p/, and Arab learners of English tend to frequently substitute it with /b/. The class finished with a communicative practice of the sound /p/. The students were presented with a sentence (proposition) containing key words which have /p/ as one of their segments. They were asked to give their opinions on the proposition and discuss them with the whole class. The instructor provided recast feedback on the learner's mispronunciation of the sound /p/.

Stimulus and native listeners' judgements

Five sentences were elicited from all the students in both groups (experimental and control) before (week 3) and after (week 15) the phonetic instruction, which was spread over 11 weeks. The five sentences were used in another study (under revision).

For the current study, only the word 'page', as produced in one of the sentences (*He is reading the page about the story of the van*), was chosen as the stimuli for the current study. The time between the phonetic instruction for /p/ (week 4) and the post-test production was ten weeks. No instruction was given to the students on the pronunciation of /p/ during this period. This delayed post-test production (after ten weeks) provides us with the chance to test the long term effect of pronunciation instruction on the production accuracy of speech sounds. It should be noted that no immediate post-test production was elicited from the students; however, it was observed that after repetition and practice, the students were able to produce the sound /p/.

The word 'page' was then presented separately to two experienced native English teachers for an identification test. The word, as produced by all the students before and after the instruction, was randomly presented to the listeners using Praat's Experiment-MFC interface (Boersma & Weenink, 2016). The listeners were asked to decide whether the speakers produced /p/ or /b/. They were also given the chance to choose 'not sure' in case they were not able to decide. The listeners agreed on the judgment of all words, except for two cases. In these two cases, the author checked the voice onset time (VOT), which is the main acoustic cue that distinguishes between the production of /p/ and /b/ in word-initial position (Lisker & Abramson, 1967), to decide whether the speaker produced /p/ or /b/.

Results

For both pre- and post-instruction productions, all speakers in the control group were judged by the native listeners to produce /b/ instead of /p/. The results for the speakers in the experimental group only yielded positive result for one learner, as it was found that in the pre-instruction test he produced /b/ and in the post-instruction test he produced /p/. Another learner in the experimental group was found to produce /p/ in both the pre- and post-instruction tests.

The remaining three learners produced /b/ in all their productions of the test-word “play”. Figure 1 illustrates the findings of the current study.

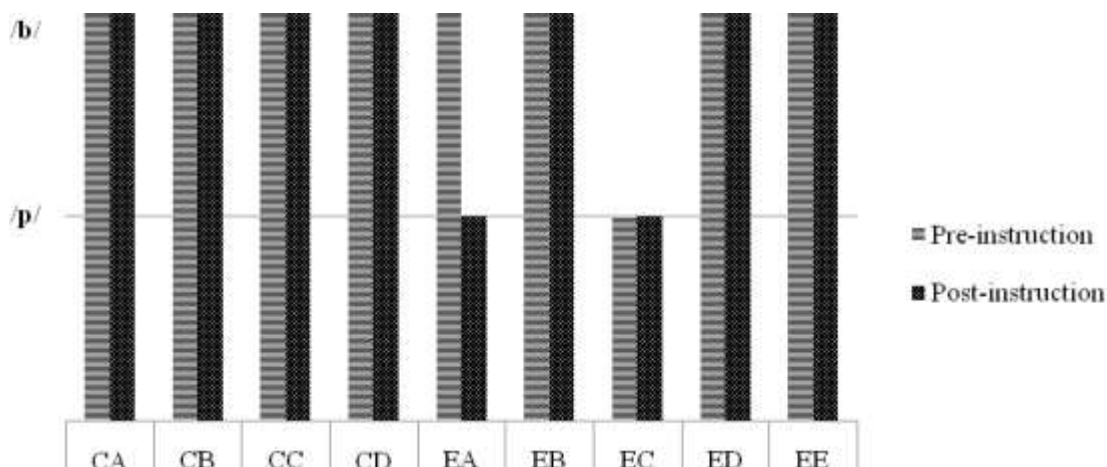


Figure 1. All learners' productions of /p/ before and after instruction (the two-letter set in the graph above indicate the random code given to represent the name for each speaker).

Figure 1 shows that only one learner (EA) benefited from the pronunciation instruction. Except for learner EC, who in both pre- and post-instruction productions produced /p/, learners EB, ED and EE did not exhibit any improvement in their productions of /p/.

Discussion and conclusion

The results of the current study did not find a long term effect of pronunciation instruction on the production of /p/ by Arab EFL learners. This is unlike the results found in Couper (2006), which showed that learners were able to sustain their pronunciation improvement in a delayed post-test (one semester after instruction) production. On other hand, similar to the current study, Ruellot(2011) did not find a long term (one week after instruction) effect of pronunciation instruction. It should be noted that due to the methodological differences between these studies, it is difficult to compare their results and reach a conclusion about the long term effect of pronunciation instruction.

Given the exploratory nature of the current study, the small sample size used, and the fact that one of the learner has actually learnt to produce /p/ accurately, it is difficult to draw any strong conclusions regarding the long term effect of instruction on the production of /p/ by EFL Arab learners. Future research with larger sample size is needed to further substantiate the results of the current study or shed a different perspective on the long term efficacy of pronunciation teaching, in particular with regard to the production of /p/ by Arab learners. It may be worth mentioning that one needs to be careful not to extend the results for /p/ to all other English sounds, as different sounds may respond differently to pronunciation instruction. Therefore, future studies also need to examine more than one sound to find out if pronunciation instruction affects sounds differently.

About the Author:

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Students' Perception on Training in Writing Research Article for Publication

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Abstract

The ability in scholar writing is pivotal for students at higher degree of education. They are demanded to be able to write the results of their research in the form of research article and are encouraged to publish it in reputable journals. The low self- efficacy, low ability in scholar writing, and lack of knowledge as well as experience are the factors hindering the students in writing their research articles. This study reports the students' perception on the training in writing research article for publication. The participants were 25 students of the graduate program in Indonesian Language Teaching and Literature at an Indonesian university. They were trained and guided in writing research articles and the abstract. The results showed that the students had positive perception on the training. They also confirmed that they were guided in writing and developing the sections of research article and the abstract during the training.

Keywords: perception, publication, research article, training in writing

Introduction

Writing scientific paper or research article for publication is a predominant and prevailing demand for students who pursue graduate studies and higher educational degrees nowadays. They are required to be more innovative, active and productive in conducting research and writing the results of the research as a quality research article. They are also demanded to get their research articles published in reputable journals. Several purposes of the publication demand are to share the knowledge and ideas from the research results to others, to receive recognition, to obtain feedback from experts on the research results, and to legitimize the research (Cargill & O'Connor, 2009). The demand of writing for publication is intended not only to improve students' professionalism, but also to enhance their tenure, career, even promotion decisions (Jalongo, Boyer & Ebbeck, 2014).

Success in writing for publication highly depends on the ability in academic writing. The students need to have a good ability in academic writing to produce a research article which reflects logical thinking and scientific arguments (Glew, Challa, & Gopalan, 2014). In academic writing, the students have to be able to integrate, synthesize and extend ideas and these require a higher-level construction skills (Lavelle & Bushrow, 2007). Particularly in writing research article, they need to develop each move of research article well to present the ideas, arguments, and the research results clearly.

The demand of writing for publication is considered uneasy to fulfill since the students may have difficulty in writing research articles. Graduate students often find it difficult to write research articles since they do not have sufficient knowledge on how to produce a quality research articles demanded by professional journals (Nolan & Rocco, 2009). From a preliminary study conducted by distributing questionnaire to 25 graduate students of Advanced Linguistics class at Lambung Mangkurat University, Indonesia, it was found that the students did not have adequate knowledge and ability in writing research articles. Most of them even found it difficult to start writing given that they were confused in expressing their ideas. This finding is in line with Glew et al.'s (2014) study which investigated the graduate students and postdoctoral fellows' perceived writing ability, experience in writing and the need of training in writing scientific manuscripts. Glew et al. (2014) report that the majority of the respondents in their study did not have good writing skills and that they regarded writing research articles as a difficult task. The finding of the preliminary study is also supported by Rosales, Moloney, Badenhorst, Dyer and Murray (2012) who found that the majority of the participants in their study perceived that they could not express and arrange their ideas well and they were not confident in writing due to their lack of writing skill.

The next finding of the preliminary study was that only few students stated that they have few experience in writing research articles, while the majority of the students asserted that they had no experience in writing research articles for publication. The students' lack of experience in writing and publishing research articles is also found in Cahyono and Amrina's (2016) study. The students also admitted that they lacked practice in determining topic for research and writing research results in the form of scientific paper. Subsequently, it was also found that the students needed a specific training on scholarly writing for publication since they wanted to learn it. This finding is similar to the respondents' perception in Glew et al.'s (2014) study. The respondents admitted that they were actually motivated to improve their ability in writing research articles,

but they considered that the trainings for writing research articles at graduate and postgraduate levels were still insufficient. Particularly in developing countries, the provision of institutional writing supports remains inadequate (Murugesan, 2012).

Based on the preliminary study reflecting Indonesian students' lack of experience in writing research article for publication and the need of specific instruction or training to assist the students to write research article, this study was conducted by providing graduate students with a training in writing research article for publication and investigating their perception on the training. The research questions in this study are as follows:

1. What are the students' perception on the training in writing research article for publication?
2. What are the students' perception on the guidance given during the training?

Literature Review

Scientific writing of research articles has different format from other types of paper, such as essays. According to Cargill and O'Connor (2009), the conventional article structure is started with abstract, introduction, method, results and discussion, which is known as AIMRaD structure. This structure can be varied in accordance with the format given by specific journals. Hengl and Gould (2002) provide more elaborated structure of research article, namely title, introduction, method, results, discussion, conclusion, and references.

Writing research articles for publication requires ability in academic writing and a lot of writing practices. Students encounter difficulties in writing research articles for publication mainly because they think they do not have a good writing ability (Catterall et al., 2011; Glew et al., 2014, Rosales et al., 2012) they are neither confident nor self-efficacious to write (Rosales et al., 2012), they do not have enough time to practice writing research articles (Jalongo et al., 2013) and they are afraid of getting bad judgment of their manuscript (Jalongo et al., 2013). Furthermore, other obstacles faced when attempting to write for publication, especially in the case of teacher researchers are grounding the research article within effective literature review, selecting a central focus of the article and developing the article based on it, and providing reflection based on the research results and connection of the results to the broader field (Smiles & Short, 2006)

The demand of writing for publication and students' difficulties in writing research articles for publication have resulted in the need of particular and intentional instruction in which students could get assistance and guidance in learning and practicing research article writing. The assistance and the guidance can be given through a focused and systematic instruction which helps students to understand the importance of scholarly writing for publication and provides sufficient practice to write research articles as well as useful feedback on students' work (Jalongo et al., 2013). Training and workshops as the form of instruction can also be used to facilitate students with the experience of writing research article and improve their writing skill (Cahyono & Amrina, 2016; Rosales et al., 2012, Catterall, Ross, Aitchison, & Burgin, 2011).

A number of researchers have investigated the impact of specific training and instruction in writing research articles for publication to students and students' perception or feedback

toward the training and instruction. For instance, Cahyono and Amrina (2016) investigated the Indonesian EFL doctorate students' perception on a training in writing research articles for publication which was conducted throughout a course at a graduate program. The training consisted of developing abstract, developing abstract into research article and developing the sections of research article. Cahyono and Amrina (2016) found that the students' perception was very positive and the students perceived that they obtained useful guidance and assistance in writing and developing research article from abstract to conclusion part during the training.

While Cahyono and Amrina (2016) conducted a training to help the students to learn and practice writing research article for publication, Rosales et al. (2012) conducted an intensive workshop, called as "Thinking Creatively about Research", to provide the participants who were the students from engineering major with the theories of writing, academic discourses, and guidance of research writing from formulating research questions to revising their final research articles. Rosales et al. (2012) also studied whether the workshop improved the participants' self-efficacy toward the writing of research article and their writing ability. The finding of their study showed that the participants felt more self-efficacious in writing research articles after they joined the workshop. They stated that they obtained useful strategies on how to write research articles well and the explicit instruction in the workshop helped them in writing the articles. Their self-identification as writers became more positive as they reported in their reflection that they were more confident in writing and they showed more evidence of productive writing. Furthermore, the finding of Rosales et al.'s (2012) study also demonstrated the participants' growth in writing output. Thus, it can be concluded that workshop on writing research article is beneficial for students in enhancing their self-efficacy and writing progress.

Glew et al. (2014) had an experience in teaching a manuscript-writing course named 'How to write a scientific manuscript in the biomedical sciences'. The students who took the course regarded the course influential in improving their knowledge of manuscript writing and their ability in writing research article for publication. From the course, they knew how to write and improve the quality of their research article. They also received useful feedback on their writing product. Based on the feedback from the students, Glew et al. (2014) emphasized that a formal manuscript-writing program is highly necessary in any graduate curriculum. Similar to Glew et al. (2014), Nolan and Rocco (2009) reported their experience in teaching the writing of research articles using three different models, namely writing conceptual or empirical manuscripts, conducting a structured literature review, and writing conceptual papers. One of the outputs from the teaching practices was students' manuscript which was encouraged to be submitted to educational journals. The students who were involved in the teaching practice stated that they obtained positive experience in writing and they enjoyed the process of writing through the practices. Some of them also succeeded in writing research articles for publication due to the essential guidance they obtained from the teaching practices.

Thus, based on the brief literature review, it can be concluded that focused instruction and training to write for publication are important to enhance students' skill in scholar writing, students' confidence, and students' success in publication of research article. The knowledge and the experience the students receive from the instruction and training can be used for further independent practice of writing for publication.

Method**A. The Participants**

The participants of this study were 25 students who took Advanced Linguistics course at the graduate program in Indonesian Language Teaching and Literature of Lambung Mangkurat University, one of leading universities in Indonesia. The participants consist of 16 females and 9 males. At the graduate program, the students are required to write a thesis and a research article as the requirements to be awarded the master degree. They were at the first semester of their graduate study while this study was conducted.

B. The Training and the Data of the Study

The training was aimed at providing the students with the knowledge of how to write research article for publication, practice to write research article and assistance during the practice. The trainer was the researcher herself. The materials for the training were made based on the structure of research article, namely abstract, introduction, method, results, discussion, conclusion and references.

The training material about abstract writing contains the components which need to be covered in the abstract, namely some information of the research background, the purpose and problem of the study, method used, the most important results of the study and conclusion (Weissberg & Buker, 1990 cited in Cargill & O'Connor, 2009). As abstract is the last thing to be written after the main sections of the research article are completed, this part of the training was given after the training in writing introduction, method, results, discussion, conclusion and references were given. The students were provided with some models of good research abstracts and were asked to analyze the contents with the researcher's guidance.

The models of well-developed sections of research article were also available for the students. Before they practiced developing each section of their own research article, they were asked to discuss the models to get the idea of how the sections in the models were well-developed. They also had sessions wherein they were given instruction or explanation about the development of the sections in research article. For instance, it was explained that the introduction part covered context of the study, research gap, aims and the problems of the study. The method part informs the reader about how a study was conducted, who the participants were, what were the data and the instruments and how the data were analyzed. The result part reports the results of the study and the discussion part provides the explanation of the research results by comparing and contrasting them with the literature and the previous studies. Conclusion provides the highlighted results based on the research problems and sometimes are complemented with recommendation and/or the implication of the research results in other fields. In addition to the specific instruction on how to develop the sections, the students also had individual practice and got scaffolded during the practice.

After the training was finished, the students were asked to complete two types of questionnaire. The first questionnaire was aimed at investigating their perception on the training holistically, while the second questionnaire was aimed at investigating their perception on the guidance given during the training. The first questionnaire used Likert scale and consisted of six statements about the training. The students were asked to select 4 options to respond to the statements, namely 'Strongly agree', 'Agree', 'Less agree', and 'Disagree'. The second

questionnaire elicited whether they considered they were guided in writing as well as developing the research article, and whether they perceived they were guided in writing the abstract. Open-ended items were included in the second questionnaire to find richer data about the students' perception on the guidance given during the training.

Research Results

The results of this study are described based on the research questions, namely the students' perception on the training in writing research articles for publication and the students' perception on the guidance given during the training.

A. Students' Perception on the Training in Writing Research Article for Publication

The data from the likert-scale questionnaire about the students' perception on the training were analyzed based on the percentage of the students' response for each statement. For all six statements, no students selected 'less disagree' and 'disagree' options. All the students' responses only varied from 'strongly agree' to 'agree' options. It means that their high agreement on the items of the questionnaire indicated their positive perceptions on the training. Table 1 reports the percentage of the students' responses from the questionnaire.

Table 1. Results of Students' Responses from the Questionnaire

No.	Questionnaire Statement	Percentage			
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Less Disagree	Disagree
1.	The training in writing research article for publication helped me to improve my understanding on how to write research article for publication.	4%	96%	0%	0%
2.	I feel motivated during the training in writing research article for publication.	52%	48%	0%	0%
3.	The training helped me to develop self-efficacy in writing research article.	48%	52%	0%	0%
4.	I obtained positive writing experience and useful feedback during the training.	44%	56%	0%	0%
5.	My understanding on the writing of research article for publication can reduce my anxiety in thesis writing to finish my study.	12%	88%	0%	0%
6.	I attempt to apply the knowledge and the experience I got from the training to write my next research article for publication.	24%	76%	0%	0%

On the first item, the students were asked whether the training helped them to improve their understanding on how to write research article for publication. The majority of the students (94%) agreed with the statement and the rest of the students strongly disagreed with it. The students perceived that the training helped them to understand the writing of research article better. The second item was about the motivation during the training. All the students felt motivated while they were following the training, indicated by 52% of the students strongly agreed with the item and 48% of the students agreed with it. In addition to the students' positive perception on the training as viewed from their understanding and motivation, self-efficacy becomes the next aspect which the students perceived as the benefit of the training they have followed. They considered that the training helped them to develop their self-efficacy in writing research article.

Similar to the results of the first three items, the students showed their positive perception on the training related to writing experience and feedback they received in the training. It is showed by 56% of the students who agreed that the training provided them with positive writing experience and useful feedback and 56% who reported their strong agreement. Moreover, as the training could improve their understanding on how to write research article, they felt that it could reduce their anxiety in dealing with thesis writing at the end of their study later. The students also attempted to apply the knowledge and the experience they obtained from the training to write more research article, as indicated by their agreement on the last item of the questionnaire. To sum up, the students perceived that the training gave positive effect to their knowledge of scholarly writing, their confidence, self-efficacy, the reduction of their anxiety of scholar writing, writing experience and their awareness of long term practice in writing research article using the input from the training.

B. Students' Perception on the Guidance Given during Training

To investigate the students' perception on the guidance they received during the training, the students were asked whether they perceived they were guided in writing as well as developing each section of research article and writing abstract. The students reported that they were guided much in developing the sections of research article. They regarded the model of research article showed by the lecturer was useful to give them a clear picture of the structure and the content of a good research article. It can be seen from Student 22's following response, "At the beginning we analyzed the model of research question to get the idea of the components or content we should write in our research article". The majority of the students asserted that the lecturer gave systematic guidance to develop the sections of research article from introduction until conclusion. Student 18, for instance, underlined that they were guided to develop each section effectively using a central focus of their research. Besides, the direct interaction and feedback provided by the lecturer were also considered beneficial for the students in developing their research article. It is evident from the following statement of Student 14, "The lecturer willingly answered our questions when we were confused in developing the sections of the research article. She also reexplained the material about how to develop research article when we had problems. Her feedback is also important when I worked on my research article". This finding is also strengthened by the comment of the students who appreciated the lecturer's explanation, scaffolding and feedback while they were working on developing the sections of the research article. For example, Student 3 said, "We received the explanation on research process and data analysis and this helped us to develop our ideas into research article."

The way the guidance was provided and the positive effect the students experienced are the other important aspects which assisted the students in writing research article. Student 3 responded, "We are given the insight of how to write a good research article through power point slide, clear material and group discussion." Moreover, Student 5 said, "The lecturer gave us guidance gradually and step by step." In addition, Student 1 said that they were guided when they had individual practice. The guidance not only assisted the students in writing their research article, but also enhanced their confidence. For example, Student 17 stated, "After I received the explanation from the lecturer and class discussion, I felt positive to write my own article."

The guidance in writing abstract during the training is the last aspect to be investigated to answer the second research question. All of the students indicated that they got guidance in writing the abstract. Some of them stated that the guidance included giving the students the example of a good abstract and analyzing the abstract with the students to see the content of the model abstract. It is evident from the response of Student 1 who stated, "First we learned the model abstract and we analyzed it together with the lecturer's guidance. Afterwards, the lecturer gave us explanation on abstract writing." This response also pointed up that the guidance was complemented with explanation on how to write abstract. The explanation from the lecturer was considered comprehensible by the students as indicated by Student 11 who asserted "The lecturer clearly explained what to write in an abstract and what components should be included in the abstract", and by Student 16 who commented, "We got clear explanation and comprehensive theory about how to write abstract well". Similarly, Student 18 stated, "After I got the training, I know the characteristics of a good abstract, both technically and substantially." Based on all the students' responses, it could be inferred that the guidance perceived by the students was considered fruitful.

Discussion

The results of this study highlight the students' confirmation on how they were guided and scaffolded in writing research article which comprised developing the sections of the research article and writing the abstract. The students reported their positive perception both on the training holistically and the guidance during the training specifically. The improved understanding on the writing of research article as the benefit of the training found in this study confirms the results of the study conducted by Glew et al. (2014) who reported the similar issue. The students in this study much appreciated the explanation and explicit instruction of research article writing as these helped them get clear idea of how research article writing should be done. In the same vein, Rosales et al. (2012) has pointed up the value of explicit instruction to empower the students in scholar writing. Moreover, the knowledge they got from the training can ease the process of research article writing since they know what elements to write in each section of research article. Perceiving the improvement of their understanding on how to write research article well might be a factor which boosts their motivation to be engaged in scholar writing in addition to the role of the training itself. Moreover, the training made them not only motivated to learn and practice scholar writing, but also more self-efficacious in writing their research article. This finding is in line with the study conducted by Rosales et al. (2012) who found that the workshop they conducted contributed to the personal growth of the participants' self-efficacy in writing.

This study further reveals that the students valued the writing experience and the feedback they obtained during the training. They had opportunities to apply what they already knew about the writing of research article into practice. Writing experience is one of prominent elements of the training since the mastery of scholar writing requires learning process and experience (Singh & Mayer, n.d.). The students' positive perception on the training in relation to writing experience in this study is in line with Nolan and Rocco's (2009) study who reported that their students valued the positive writing experience in their teaching practice on scholar writing. The feedback given to the students is also crucial to improve the quality of their work.

Another interesting finding of this study deals with the response of the students who admitted that their improved understanding on the writing of research article reduced their anxiety in writing their future thesis. From this finding, it can be inferred that getting the training on the early period of their study is beneficial to prepare them in writing their thesis later on. Regarding this finding, Singh & Mayer (n.d.) suggest that students need to start learning scholar writing earlier in order that they have sufficient time to do intensive practice on it. The students in this study also showed their willingness to apply the knowledge and the experience they got from the training to do more practice of writing research article. This finding indicates that they have developed their awareness of how important scholar writing is. It also pinpoints that the students are willing to improve their proficiency in scholar writing.

The guidance in the form of giving explicit instruction, explanation, models, and feedback during the training is worth of attention in this study. The students perceived that all the forms of the guidance were very useful in assisting them to write their research article. This finding is in the same vein as the study conducted by Cahyono and Amrina (2016) who reported that the training in writing research article for publication was beneficial as it could assist students in writing the abstract of their research and writing their research article completely. In a nutshell, a training of how to write research article for publication is advantageous and essential for students to improve their proficiency in scholar writing.

Conclusion

This study pinpoints that the training in writing research article for publication is highly valued by the students and regarded beneficial to improve the students' knowledge and ability in writing research articles. The key points in the training are the guidance and the writing experience. The guidance given to the students may vary based on the need of the students. The guidance in this study comprises providing the models of well-developed abstract and research article, analyzing and discussing the content of the models, giving the clear explanation on the writing of research article, and providing feedback. The writing experience in the training is necessary to enable the students to apply the students' knowledge on scholar writing and to practice their writing ability. Early support and practice in writing research article should also be taken into consideration as this study indicates that students would be less anxious to deal with thesis writing or other required forms of academic writing after they obtain early support and undertake the early practice of scholar writing. Thus, any institutional writing support, either in the form of a course, instruction, or training in writing research article is necessary to be conducted to facilitate students to improve their ability and productivity in writing research article for publication.

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Appendix A. Questionnaire of Students' Perception on the Training in Writing Research Article for Publication (Holistically)

Instruction:

This questionnaire is administered to know your perception on Training in Writing Research Article for Publication. Please give your perception on each statement of the questionnaire by ticking option 'Strongly agree', 'Agree', 'Less agree', or 'Disagree'.

No.	Questionnaire Statement	Response			
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Less Disagree	Disagree
1.	The training in writing research article for publication helped me to improve my understanding on how to write research article for publication.				
2.	I feel motivated during the training in writing research article for publication.				
3.	The training helped me to develop self-efficacy in writing research article.				
4.	I obtained positive writing experience and useful feedback during the training.				
5.	My understanding on the writing of research article for publication can reduce my anxiety in thesis writing to finish my study.				
6.	I attempt to apply the knowledge and the experience I got from the training to write my next research article for publication.				

Appendix B. Questionnaire of Students' Perception on the Guidance given during the Training in Writing Research Article for Publication

Instruction:

You are requested to give response to the following questions about your perception on the Training in Writing Research Article for Publication. For the open-ended item, please explain your reason based on your answer.

1. Did you perceive that you were guided in writing research article and developing the sections of the research article during the training?

NO

YES

Why not?

Why?

2. Did you perceive that you were guided in writing and developing the abstract of the research article during the training?

NO

YES

Why not?

Why?

The Efficacy of Using Language Experience Approach in Teaching Reading Fluency to Indonesian EFL Students

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Abstract

This research was aimed at finding out the efficacy of language experience approach (LEA) in teaching reading fluency to Indonesian EFL students. This research was conducted at the fifth semester of English education study program of IAIN Palopo, an Indonesian University. The total number of samples was 20 students. This research used a pre-experimental method with pre-test and post-test design. The pre-test was given to find out the basic ability of the students in reading fluency and the post-test given to find out the students' improvement in reading fluency after giving the treatment through, Language Experience Approach (LEA). The findings showed that LEA approach is effective in teaching reading fluency of Indonesian EFL students. It is supported by the result of significance test through SPSS 20 program that the P was 0.00. . Therefore, it is recommended to use Language Experience Approach (LEA) in developing reading fluency of Indonesian EFL students.

Keywords: Indonesian EFL students, language experience approach (LEA), reading fluency

Introduction

The result of the observation in the second semester students of English education study program of Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palopo (IAIN) Palopo, there were many students could not read fluently. They have many problems in reading fluency such as the students read very slowly, mispronunciation, repetitions, no attention in stressing and punctuation and reading without expression. In addition, they were doubt to read a text loudly since they were not familiar with reading fluently. From the observation, the researcher assumed that the student face difficulties in reading fluency. Therefore the writer needs to explore an effective way to teach reading fluency to the students at IAIN Palopo as Indonesia EFL Learners. In this case, the Language Experience Approach (LEA) is chosen as an approach to be examined.

Nessel and Dixon (2008) describe that LEA contribution to the reading instruction is based on principles of learning. The main principle is to use the student's own vocabulary, language patterns, and background on experiences to create reading texts, making reading an especially meaningful and enjoyable process. Furthermore, this technique is dictating interpretation. After dictated text then the student are asked to interpret the test of the story that their heard. LEA is strategy requires a student to read a passage or text a number of times while the teacher records the time with the number of words correctly. The student continues to read the same text until a desired goal or criterion is met. Furthermore, it is stated that reading is easier the text closely matches the learner's own oral language pattern and is aligned with the learner experience. In addition, Taylor (1992) defined LEA as a whole language approach that promotes reading and writing through the use of personal experiences and oral language. It is useful in tutorial or classroom settings with homogeneous or heterogeneous groups of learners. Beginning literacy learners relate their experiences to a teacher or aide, who transcribes them. These transcriptions are then used as the basis for other reading and writing activities.

Reading fluency is an important topic nowadays. There have been some researchers found that there is an important role of reading fluency towards the reading comprehension (Kim et.al, 2010; Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp and Jenk Ins, 2001). Furthermore, reading fluency is more clearly influence the reading comprehension than silent reading. Kim, Wagner and Foster (2011) state that the relationship between silent reading and reading comprehension to be less clear than the relationship between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension.

Reading fluency is the competence to read text accurately and quickly (Hapstack & Tracey, 2007). It is also defined that reading fluency as the ability of the reader to group words into meaningful phrases quickly and effortlessly (Corcoran, 2005; Griffith & Rasinski, 2004; Kuhn, 2004; Rasinski, 2004). In reading fluency, there are three important aspects namely accuracy, automaticity, and prosody (Garreth & O'connor, 2010; Moran, 2006; Young & Rasinski, 2009). Absolutely, those elements of reading fluency are crucial as they influence the students' reading proficiency. It is a set of skills that allows readers to rapidly decode text while maintaining high comprehension. Fluency also involves reading a text with proper expression. There are three major components of fluency: accuracy, which refers to the person's ability to read words correctly; rate, the speed a person reads and prosody, which is commonly referred to as reading with feeling and involves the stress, intonation, and pauses when reading (Westwood, 2001).

There have been many researchers research on reading fluency. Those research studies extend our views on reading fluency and led us to the identification of effective instructional approaches to developing fluency in the classroom, such as (1) the effect of instruction and practice through readers theater on young readers' oral reading fluency by Keehn (2003) (2) Fluency and comprehension gains as a result of repeated reading: a meta-analysis by Therrien (2004) (3) Using paired reading to enhance the fluency skills of less skilled readers by Nes (2003).

Reading fluency is one of the ability in reading that important to develop, the students who do not develop fluent reading, it can impact their reading speed, accuracy, prosody and enjoyment of printed text. These students are reluctant to read aloud or read to others as their reading is slow and tedious to listen. When students are unable to read fluently, it can result in poor comprehension, an essential component of reading success. Lack of comprehension of written text will continue to be a stumbling block for a student's continued understanding of fiction and nonfiction text in the classroom.

Nessel and Dixon (2008) state that applying the LEA in EFL classes is believed to have numerous benefits for the second language learners. The principal advantages of the LEA include the following. All the language skills: speaking, writing, listening and reading are exercised in a LEA class. While working on the written account of the learners' experience, it is inevitable to employ both the productive as well as the receptive language skills. When discussing an agreed topic, students naturally exploit their oral and listening skills. After the discussion, learners give an oral account of the experience, which serves as reading material in the next stage. The actual writing takes place in the extending stage. In general, by the medium of the LEA, pupils are introduced to the process of writing step by step whereas reinforcing and developing the remaining language skills.

There are four reasons why Integrating the personal experience of students into classes may be very beneficial. First of all, it is an effective way of increasing learners' motivation since it makes the language learning content more meaningful and interesting for learners (Griffiths & Keohane, 2000). For stimulating the learners' motivation, it is very important that pupils perceive the activities as purposeful, see the point of what they are doing and why ("Practice of ELT" 257). Personally-based activities seem to meet these requirements. It appears that when learners are personally involved in the topics, they tend to concentrate harder and longer, make more effort to participate in the activities and to finish the set tasks. Thus the personal experience-based tasks seem to strengthen learners' motivation to learn the target language.

Secondly, it is a fact that incorporating the personal experiences of the learners has a positive impact on their attitude to language learning: "If learners feel that what they are asked to do is relevant to their feelings, thoughts, opinions and knowledge are valued, and crucial to the success of the activities, then they will be fully engaged in the tasks and more likely to be motivated to learn the target language (Griffiths & Keohane, 2000). While talking about topics based on their life-experience, pupils are usually more willing to learn new vocabulary, useful phrases, and expressions to be able to express their thoughts, ideas and opinions clearly.

Thirdly, it is also important to take into consideration that when the second language is connected to personal experience, it is much more easily understood, remembered and recalled than someone else's language and experience (Cramer, 2008). If a learner believes that some vocabulary and phrases are useful and interesting, they usually strive harder to remember them. In the activities based on the personal experience, pupils learn vocabulary in contexts relevant to their lives and thus it is more likely that they will be able to recall it better when necessary.

Fourthly, including personal centered activities in language classes may help to create trust between the class and the teacher (Griffiths & Keohane, 2000). When learners, as well as the teacher participate in the tasks, they find out a lot about each other, which might help to create the supportive atmosphere in the class and improve the mutual relationships. Moreover, there are numerous opportunities for bringing humor in the language learning during the activities and it is believed that fun is an essential part of language learning (Griffiths & Keohane, 2000).

Another benefit of taking advantage of the LEA in a class is expanding students' vocabulary. This technique supports the development of vocabulary since students can learn vocabulary relevant to the experience-related topics in a meaningful context. It is recommended that prior to the discussion, the teacher prepares word banks that the learners might take advantage of. This vocabulary is repeatedly practiced at various stages of the LEA and thus more likely to be memorized (Nessel & Dixon, 2003).

It is possible to employ the LEA with heterogenous groups of students - for instance, when the teacher divides the class into groups, the more-advanced students can take the role of a transcriber or a prompter in the discussion. On the other hand, the less proficient learners can be given more stimuli to be able to participate in the discussion and dictation more frequently.

It can be modified for students of all proficiency levels since the primary emphasis is not laid on the length. While beginning learners may dictate a few sentences, the more advanced students can perform more complex tasks, for example prepare the text for publishing, or rewrite the story by adding more personal details or views on the topic.

This unique approach gives opportunities for "scaffolding and cooperative learning". In a LEA class, there are numerous possibilities to learn from the more knowledgeable peers and the teacher while working on the written account of the common experience, particularly during the discussion and the composing stages. In fact, the LEA is largely based on the concept of scaffolding namely helping students to progress through interaction with someone with better knowledge (Dixon & Nessel, 1983). Learners can advance their language skills, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation etc. while listening and debating their personal experiences in pairs, small groups, or in a whole-class discussion with the more proficient learners and the teacher (Dixon & Nessel, 1983).

Dixon & Nessel (1983:9) state that LEA offers a cooperative activity. Cooperative writing has plentiful benefits for all the involved, for instance the generation of ideas is frequently more lively with a group of learners in comparison to individual writing, or learners tend to come up with more creative ideas, views etc. As a result, the language learning is a lot more appealing to pupils as it is dynamic and interactive. Moreover, Hedge (1988) believes that a group composition allows students to learn from each other's strengths. In a LEA class, the less-skilled

students can capitalize on the strengths of their peers, for instance by observing their tactics when creating a composition while the more advanced learners can share their knowledge with each other. Another advantage of cooperative writing by the medium of the LEA is that it helps to build "a sense of classroom community" while working on the same objectives (LEA).

As the LEA places emphasis more on the content than on the form when creating the written text, learners no need to fear making mistakes. Learners are encouraged to participate in the LEA activities, to share their ideas and views with their peers while the mistakes are being tolerated by the teacher. The mistakes tend to be treated in the extending stage when the text is reviewed and edited. However, the peer correction is allowed in the process of text creation. Preferring students' ideas to grammatical correctness might increase the learners participation and fluency since learners are usually more willing to take risks in a non-threatening environment. On the whole, this approach "challenges traditional notions of error avoidance" (Wurr, 2002:2). Moreover, the learners' anxiety is also reduced by the fact that the compositions are not assessed.

This approach is believed to be a useful technique to encourage self-expression (Van Allen & Halversen, 2008). During the LEA activities, students have numerous opportunities to voice their views, thoughts and ideas and express their approval/disapproval. They need to take decisions about what topic to explore, what information to include in the composition, how to proceed etc.

As summary, incorporating the LEA in a language class may be very advantageous for many reasons. This special integrative approach can be used for students of various levels and abilities. Then, it facilitates the creation of supportive atmosphere for second language learning while taking advantage of the cooperative learning. In addition to this, it can increase the learners' self-expression and motivates them to learn and communicate in the target language. The advantages stated previously show the positive aspects of the LEA and of its utilization in a target language learning (MáriaKubiznová, 2009).

The Language Experience Approach (LEA) is requires a significant time input from the teacher. It is particularly suitable as an approach in a small group approach. It is important that teachers use modeling and recasting sufficiently to help a student's progress their language skills. The content of the story is dictated by the students Experiences, and if this is limited than it may restrict the material available to work with (O'Toole, 2008).

Based on the explanation previously, it can be seen that many researcher have proven that LEA is a good approach for language learning in many parts places of the world, however it is rarely find the researchers that have already used LEA as teaching reading fluency way for Indonesian learners especially at the university level. In addition, the researcher believes that LEA can help the students to improve reading fluency at university level. Then, the specific objective of this research is to find out the effectiveness of LEA in increasing the reading fluency the Fifth Semester Students of English study program of IAIN Palopo. The result of the study can give the following benefits for teachers: can give information for the teacher at English education study program of IAIN Palopo about strategy in increasing reading fluency. Students: The student can apply LEA in their learning to increasing reading fluency. The next researchers can use this research as a reference to explore more on Indonesian EFL learners in the university

level. The scope of the research is limited to the reading aloud to find out the students' reading fluency by using LEA. The strategy of LEA that has been applied in treatment is dictation, write text and read the text fluency. The kinds of text that have been used in the reading fluency process focused on narrative text.

Method

This study applied pre-experimental research. It aimed at finding out the effectiveness of LEA approach in teaching reading fluency for Indonesian EFL students. It was conducted in English education study program of IAIN Palopo and it was conducted in eight meetings. The researcher was interested to conduct the research in IAIN Palopo because of the observation result. The observation results show that the students in English education study program of IAIN Palopo faced difficulties in reading fluency. Therefore, the researcher is interested helping the students to increase their reading fluency. The total number of population of this research was 150 students at the fifth semester students of English education study program of IAIN Palopo, in academic year 2015/2016. It consisted of 4 classes, in each class there were 30 students. In this research, the researcher used purposive sampling technique in taking the sample. The researcher took five students as a sample from each class who have low ability in reading fluency. Therefore the researcher took 20 students as sample of this research. The instruments that had been used in this research were: reading test and stopwatch. The reading test was given to measure the students' ability in reading fluency. Then, the stopwatch was used to count the time of students spent during their reading aloud. Both reading aloud test and stop watch were used in the pre test and in the post test.

In this research, the researcher conducted treatments in eight meetings. The procedures of this research were as follows (Adapted from MáriaKubiznová , 2009):

The treatment was conducted for six meetings, the researcher used different theme in every meeting. In giving treatment, the researcher gave instruction what the student should do in class activity. Each meeting was taken 90 minutes. Steps to conduct LEA as follows:

a. Choosing the common experience

The teacher cooperates with students to select an activity or an event that can be discussed and consequently written down, for instance a movie, a song, a book or an article, a trip, a visit to a museum, holidays etc. It ought to be based on a common learners' experience that all pupils participated in. In case, the activity had not taken place yet, the teacher and the students made a plan of realization.

b. Discussing the experience

After the common activity had been conducted, the teacher engaged learners in a whole-class debate. The main aim was to include as many learners as possible in the discussion. For instance, the class might reconstruct the sequence of the event, do some planning activities such as brainstorming, webbing, listing etc., some students may adopt a journalist's stance by asking WH-questions in order to gain more information. During the debate, the teacher notes down key words and phrases on the board.

c. Composing the written account

The class cooperates together on developing a written account which should be visible to all learners (on the board, on a flip chart pad or an overhead transparency). At this point, the teacher does not correct the learners' mistakes since the focus is mainly on the students' ideas. The teacher must also work to create supportive learning environment by actively listening and responding to ideas in an encouraging way and creating the environment where mistake can be made without the sense of failure.

d. Reading the written account

Once the written account was complete, the teacher and the learners read it aloud focusing on key structures, vocabulary and pronunciation. The teacher (or transcribe) models the language while learners have the opportunity to concentrate more on the correct pronunciation as they are familiar with the content.

e. Expanding the experience

Depending on the learners' proficiency levels, various follow-up activities can be performed. At this stage, the mistakes were corrected and the text edited. For the beginning or lower-level classes, the teacher might create a close type of exercise by deleting every nth word, or ask the students to copy the story themselves, make illustrations, use the text to review grammar etc. More profound learners may produce their own individual written pieces on a similar topic, prepare the story for publishing, and create comprehension exercises. (MáriaKubiznová, 2009).

To sum up, the previous procedure can be flexibly adjusted according to students' needs and interests. It consisted of a few simple steps: experiencing, talking about the experience, taking dictation, rereading and extending the experience further on. It can be employed in various classroom settings, from individual teaching to a whole-class teaching since it is very versatile. There exist many possibilities of adapting the LEA technique for learners of different levels and expanding the outcome by follow-up activities.

(a) Giving Pretest, (b) Giving Treatment: Choosing the common experience, Discussing the experience, Composing the written account, Reading the written account, Expanding the experience (Adapted from MáriaKubiznová, 2009) (c) Giving Posttest

Findings and Discussion

The result of the research shows that there is an improvement of students' ability in the reading fluency after the treatments by using LEA. The achievement of students in reading fluency can be seen in the following table. In the table, the researcher shows the mean score of students in reading fluency ability (accuracy, prosody, and rate) in pre-test, and in the post test.:

Table 4.1. Students' mean score of reading fluency achievement in Pretest and Posttest

Reading Fluency Dimension	Pre test mean score	Post test Mean score
Accuracy	2.9	3.5
Prosody	2.1	3.7

Rate	2.1	2.6

Table 4.1 shows that the students' achievements in the three aspects of reading fluency have been improved. The accuracy in the posttest achieved 3.5, the prosody achieved 3.7 and the rate only achieved 2.6. The lowest mean score achievement was rate while the highest mean score was in the prosody dimension.

Furthermore, the hypothesis of the research was tested by using SPSS 20. In this case, the researcher used t-test (testing of significance) for paired sample t-test, that is, a test to know the significance difference between the result of students' mean score in pretest and posttest.

Assuming that the level of significance (α) = 0.05, the only thing which is needed; the degree of freedom (df) = N – 1, where df = 19, than the t-test is presented in the following table.

Table 4.23. The Probability Value of T-Test of The Students' Achievement

Variable	P-Value	(α)
X2 – X1	0.00	0.05

From the analysis, the researcher concludes that there was a significant difference between pretest and posttest in teaching reading fluency through LEA. In other words, using LEA in teaching reading could be used to increase the students' reading fluency skill.

The result of statistical analysis for level of significance 0, 05 with degree of freedom (df) = N-1, where (N) = 20, df = 19. The probability value was smaller than α (0.00 < 0.05). It indicated that the alternative hypothesis (H1) was accepted and the null hypothesis (H0) was rejected. It means that Language Experience Approach (LEA) effective in increasing reading fluency ability.

In addition, the next bar chart shows the comparison between the students' achievement in three dimensions of reading fluency before and after the treatments.

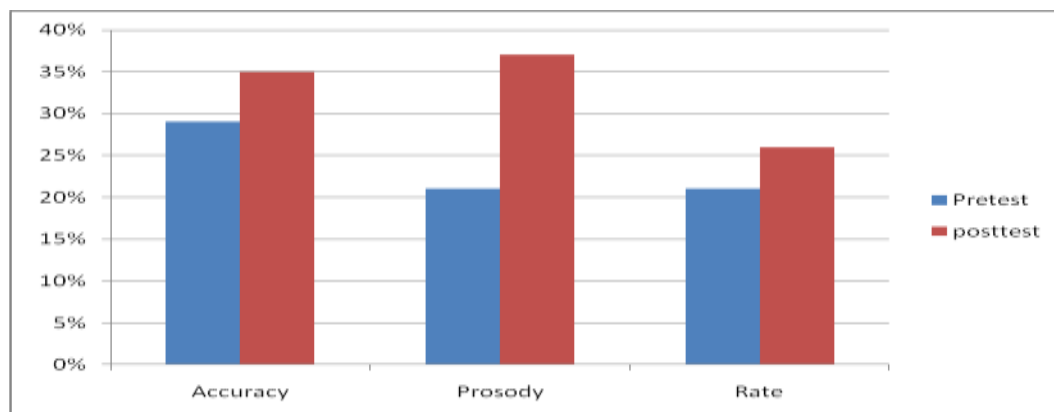


Figure 1: Students' scores in pre-test and post-test

From the previous chart, it can be seen that there was significance difference of students' score in pre-test and post-test. The students' score in post-test was higher than their score in pre-test. The students' accuracy score in pretest achieved only 29%, in prosody the students achieved 21% in pretest and the students' rate score in pretest only achieved 21%. However, in posttest the students achieved 35% for accuracy, in prosody the students achieved 37% and the students achieved 26%. in rate. It means that there was an improvement of students' score from pre-test to post-test after learning reading fluency through Language Experience Approach (LEA).

The researcher proves that teaching reading fluency by using LEA is effective. The main reason for this efficacy is stated previously by Nessel and Dixon (2008) that LEA contribution to the reading instruction is based on principles of learning. The central principle is to use the student's own vocabulary, language patterns, and background on experiences to create reading texts, making reading an especially meaningful and enjoyable process. In addition, it is stated that reading is easier when the text closely matches the learner's own oral language pattern and is aligned with the learner experience. Since the students enjoy reading their own paragraph, they were very easy to read it for many times. This also in line with what is stated by Krashen and Terrell (1983) who recommended two criteria for determining whether reading materials are appropriate for ESL learners: The reading must be 1) at a comprehensible level of complexity and 2) interesting to the reader. Reading texts originating from learners' experiences meet these two criteria because 1) the degree of complexity is determined by the learner's own language, and 2) the texts relate to the learner's personal interests.

Furthermore, it was stated previously that in the steps on teaching reading used LEA, there was a repeated process. Therrien & Kubina (2006) explain that repeated reading strategy requires a student to read a passage or text a number of times while the teacher records the time with the number of words correctly. The student continues to read the same text repeatedly until a desired goal or criterion is met. Previous research has demonstrated that repeated reading cannot only improve reading fluency but it is also effective in improving other facets of reading success (Therrie & Kubina, 2006).

Furthermore, there have been many researchers examine the efficacy of LEA on reading fluency such as Rahayu (2013), Wurr (2002) and Curran (2007). Most of the researchers took children and young learner as subjects. However, it is rarely to find the use of LEA on reading fluency experiment in the university students. This research has proven that LEA can be used effectively in developing low learners' reading fluency in the university level.

Cocclusion

Using LEA is effective in teaching reading fluency at the fifth semester of English education study program of IAIN Palopo. It was proven by the data that there was a significant difference between the students' mean score of pretest and posttest. In pretest, the students' mean score is 47.99 and the students' score in posttest is 72.89. Moreover, it also can be seen by t-test of the students' reading fluency achievement was smaller than $\alpha = (0.00 < 0.05)$.

About the Author

Masruddin is a lecturer at IAIN Palopo. He earned his Doctoral degree in Linguistics at Hasanuddin University, Makassar, Indonesia in 2011. He followed Sandwich Program at Griffith University, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia in 2008. He is interested in English Teaching and Sociolinguistics field.

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Saudi EFL Students' Attitudes towards Communicating in English while Immersed in Virtual Platforms

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Abstract

This study provides findings about Saudi English as a foreign language (EFL) students' attitudes towards communicating in English via one of the most widely used virtual platforms in Saudi Arabia; the massively multiplayer online role playing games (MMORPGs) that can offer English as the medium of communication. According to official statistics (The Saudi Economic Newspaper; Alaiqtisadiyah), almost every Saudi family owns an average of one set of PlayStation or X-Box and nearly 3 million sets are bought every year in the Saudi market. Therefore, this study generally aimed at investigating the motives, positive and negative effects of MMORPGs as well as the level of satisfaction with the immersion experiment from the perspective of Saudi EFL students at King Saud University-College of Languages & Translation (KSU-COLT). The study attempts to answer two questions. First, what are the COLT-KSU students' motives to immerse in MMORPGs as well as the positive and negative effects of being immersed in these virtual platforms? Second, what are the satisfaction levels of COLT-KSU students with MMORPGs after immersion? The findings these of the interviews showed various factors that drive the Saudi EFL Colt-KSU students to immerse in the MMORPGs. The finding also revealed varied opinions and attitudes of the participants; their views combine positive, and at the same time, negative effects about their immersion experiences in these platforms. However, the degree of their overall satisfaction with MMORPGs as a tool to learn EFL was high throughout the four weeks of the immersion experience.

Keywords: attitude, MMORPGs, Saudi EFL students, Second Life, virtual platforms

Introduction

In 2003, more innovative computer games started emerging. According to Al-Khalifah (2009), these computer games can be classified into three categories:

1. The massively multiplayer online role-play games (MMORPGs).
2. Metaverse.
3. The massively multi-learner online learning platforms (MMOLE).

In the MMORPGs, the players play certain roles to reach their goals, and these goals can be achieved through earning points to move from one phase to another. The players in these immersive platforms have different personalities with certain capabilities, and work in groups or clans in their adventures to reach the goals set. Players in these adventures confront a group of enemies and try to defeat them, and often these enemies are pre-programmed personalities working specific roles. *World of Warcraft* is amongst the most widely used massively multiplayer online role-play games (www.worldofwarcraft.com/bc-splash.htm) and are used even by some colleges of economy to train their students with selling, buying and other business transactions.

The Metaverse second life platforms, are a three-dimensional platforms inhabited by characters called (avatar) controlled by real people through the keyboard and mouse. An avatar can be formed in the manner desired by the owner; there is no limit or control to the changing capability of the personality or body. The Metaverse environment differs from its predecessor that there are no certain goals that the players should try to achieve, but rather any user of this environment can set his own goals. That means there are no wars or competition to reach certain goals in such platforms. The Metaverse platforms offer the players the opportunity to form and construct various objects as they desire, and then sell them to other players. (Second Life) is among the most famous of the Metaverse platforms used for different purposes including language teaching and learning.

Another type of the computer games are the (MMOLE). They are considered as educational virtual platforms dedicated to teaching and learning. They operate as extensions of learning management systems (LMS) but in a three-dimensional environment. The primary goal of such platforms is learning, and the surrounding environment is sometimes represented in the form of classroom environment that allows the teacher to control the supply of content and learner to interact with the surrounding environment and to communicate with his peers. As an example of such platforms the ProtoSphere environment and its Web site is (www.protonmedia.com) and it can be customized to work with learning management systems or connect them with e-content. (Al-Khalifah, 2009, p.14)

MMORPGs as An Educational Tool

MMORPGs can be used as experiments to raise awareness and knowledge of different members of community. For example, the MMORPGs for training children what to do when fire out breaks. Studies demonstrated an increase in awareness and knowledge about such situations beyond the scope of electronic games environment (Coles et al., 2007). Children play MMORPGs where they face obstacles that include street and fire risks that require the use of skills they excel in. After playing a game, many children asked questions that focus on how to deal with such circumstances, and they were able to understand and realize the skills they gained

from online games and apply them to the real world. This shows, for example, that those online games might be a golden tool to teach EFL students important skills needed in foreign community by using expressions or images just as used in the target language of that community. i.e., English.

MMORPGs can be important for students in educational field while field trips may not be an easy task in particular education settings. Semdley and Hinggins (2005) proposed that the virtual field trips may seem a good alternative for some students to visit different places around the world. They also pointed out that it is important for teachers themselves to know about this technology to get full advantage of possibilities of the "MMORPGs" in education. Moreover, they noted that the teachers would have better control over students in field trips of virtual platforms. According to Elleven et al., (2006), one advantage of MMORPGs is bringing the virtual trips to classroom as a special education tool to prepare students for real experience in the real world. Hence it becomes easier for students to learn job requirements in real life through MMORPGs more successfully.

Karim, an advisor of Social Sciences at the National Center for Social Research, (as cited in 'abualeinin, 2010, p.23), believes that MMORPGs are important sources for students' education; the students through which discovers a lot, and exceptionally stimulate their imagination. She also assumes that students become more prepared, dynamic, and easier to intermingle with the community after frequent immersions in virtual communities of these MMORPGs. Furthermore, these games give an opportunity for a player to accept and deal with modern Information Technology and Communication (ITC), such as the Internet and other modern smart devices. Last but not least, they also learn logic and reasoning through encountering problems during their immersion in these MMORPGs and gradually solving them.

These MMORPGs are characterized with numerous positive aspects. Aljarudi(2011) stresses that the MMORPGs develop memory and speed thought, develop a sense of initiative logic planning, and also contribute to the children's familiarity with new technologies(p.45). For instance, they familiarize players with steering the wheels, using the joystick, dealing with those machines professionally. In a step further, they learn how to carry out the defense and attack tasks at the same time. Cognitively, these MMORPGs stimulate vigilance and attention, and activate intelligence because they are based on solving puzzles with creative imagination. Socially, these MMORPGs also establish culture of collaborative and teamwork between members.

Social and Leisure Communication Activities via MMORPGs

In MMORPGs, players may help one another to get familiar with the games. Some players can help others of their clans to successfully immerse and intermingle into this second virtual society with continuous encouragement and support. This virtual community may offer members information, encouragement, training, companionship, referrals to other online resources and groups, ways to contribute back to the community, and ways to have fun. This possibility to contribute and, at the same time meet new people speaking English and establish friendships with them, from home, is one of the benefits these games offer to enhance the English oral communication of Saudi EFL students.

MMORPGs offer an environment that invites people to play and engage in leisure activities, relaxing and escaping from the real world (Zhou et al., 2012, p.32). EFL students experience joy by playing and communicating in these online games through English. The possibility to meet and interact with people throughout the world, to have the possibility to choose what to disclose or how to play with identity, supplies the opportunity to socialize in ways not always available in the real world.

Anbari (2010) sees that MMORPGs own several advantages including recreation at leisure time, expanding of player's imaginations through puzzles and problems solving. This, in turn, fosters interpersonal skills through competition between friends playing these MMORPGs. They may also provide the players with new ideas and information (p. 44).

McGonigal, (2011) believes that the playing of MMORPGs as a fruitful and rewarding activity that can create positive emotions and strong social relationships. Additionally, they offer the sense of accomplishment, and the opportunity to develop a sense of productive teamwork (p.12).

The MMORPGs status in the Saudi society might not seem quite different from theirs in the English speaking societies. For instance, Alnfaiee, (2009) in a report - published in the Saudi economic newspaper on 7-1-2009 – writes that the size of the Saudi families spending on electronic entertainment games is estimated at \$ 400 per year, and stressed that the Saudi market absorbed nearly 3 million electronic game sets per year, ten thousand of which are original game while the rest are not. The Saudi markets absorbed about 1.0008 million thousand PlayStation sets, and with more than 40% of the Saudi families there owning at least one (p.55).

As to English speaking countries, Gallagher (2011), the Executive Director of the Entertainment Software Federation, states that entertainment software industry (online games, computers, and the Internet, and mobile devices) is one of the most important economic sectors, they generate on America alone more than \$ 25 billion a year, and it employs more than (120 000) persons with (\$ 90,000) as an average annual salary estimated per employee. He added that American children spend in playing MMORPGs so much time equal to the times they spend in learning at schools, when an American individual reaches 21, he/she will have already spent (10,000) hours at least playing MMORPGs, and that the number of Americans who play MMORPGs is now about 170 million US.

It might be worthy to mention that the Students Club in the College of languages and Translation offers Playstations sets to its students to play during leisure time and holds contests amongst them with good prizes. This decision came as a realization of the widespread of these MMORPGs amongst the current generation of Saudi youth. However, students usually play these online games using the Arabic language in their interactions.

Past Studies Related to Virtual Platforms in Saudi Arabia

A number of Saudi researchers have conducted relevant empirical studies, experiments and projects that focus on language learning via different virtual platforms. For instance, Al-Malki et al (2014) have conducted a paper as a part of a three-year research agenda on using virtual worlds in Higher Education. This paper proposed that a virtual world, like Second Life

(SL), can be used as a highly responsive and motivating learning environment to deliver university practicum courses if a solid framework of best-practice instructional design was implemented. Specifically, the paper investigated how a Project-Based Training Program in Second Life supports the acquisition of competences constituting core requirements in the Practicum Course taught in the Faculty of Computing and Information Technology at King Abdulaziz University. The results of the study indicated a positive response to the administration of this Training Program via SL on the part of the students as well as the participating trainers.

Addowesh et al (2014) have conducted a pilot study at King Saud University to investigate the role of assessment in students' learning from asynchronous online discussion. The study adopted a qualitative methodology to gain an understanding of the students' experiences. Data were collected through: online and in-class observations, focus group and in-depth interviews with the students. Two themes have emerged from the findings. Firstly, the implications of the online environment: e.g. it offers equal opportunities, the quality of the discussions, collaborative learning. Secondly, assessment: e.g. assessment criteria, summative assessment and formative feedback from instructor.

Significance of the Study

This study investigates the attitudes of Saudi EFL undergraduate students towards oral communication in English while being immersed in virtual platforms (namely MMORPGs). Many studies have shown the usefulness of technology integration in foreign language learning. However, to the best of my knowledge, no studies in KSA have researched the attitudes of Saudi EFL undergraduate students towards oral communication in English while immersed in these MMORPGs. Therefore, this study is significant because there is a need to assist such attitudes towards one of the most innovative and widely-used virtual platforms that might help Saudi EFL students in the College of Languages and Translation at King Saud University (Colt-KSU) to be more successfully in their daily oral communication in English.

Again, these MMORPGs have rapidly spread in Saudi society in general and among the Saudi teenagers in particular. In fact, there is an average of an X-box or play-station set almost in every house in Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, many Saudi families even take these sets with them wherever they travel and hence increase their children's addiction to these MMORPGs. In the summer holidays, many Saudi parents are confused how to entertain their children during these long holidays. In a survey about how Saudi parents plan to entertain their children during their vacation. Replies of a large proportion of them come to the favor of the latest online and video games ('abualeinin, 2010). He believes these MMORPGs have attracted a wide segment of children, and teenagers even at a global level because of mainly their strong audio-visual effects developed by a large number of creative developers and programmers in the production of these interesting and exciting games (p. 56).

Therefore, this study may help to facilitate the general acceptance of these advanced online platforms as a teaching aid to improve students' oral communication in English. More specifically, the results of this study will, hopefully, encourage EFL language instructors to consider deploying MMORPGs to reinforce their students' oral communication rather than relying only on class or lab-formal English communication drillings.

Hypothesis and Questions of the Study

Whether MMORPGs can be an encouraging immersive environment in English oral communication or not, the researcher thinks it is worthy to conduct a pilot study to evaluate the attitudes of COLT-KSU Saudi EFL students towards these virtual platforms. He assumes that MMORPGs might create positive attitudes towards using English because these platforms immerse learners in scenes that are similar to the real life ones, and enable students to learn by practice and by being involved in the learning process.

More specifically, this study is an attempt to address the following research objectives:

RO-1 Investigate the COLT-KSU Saudi EFL students' motives to immerse in MMORPGs as well as the positive and negative effects of these virtual platforms on them.

RO-2 Ascertain the COLT-KSU EFL students' overall satisfaction levels with MMORPGs after immersion.

Research Questions

This study is an attempt to answer the following main research questions:

RQ-1 What are the COLT-KSU students' motives to immerse in MMORPGs as well as the positive and negative effects of being immersed in these virtual platforms?

RQ-2 What are the overall satisfaction levels of COLT-KSU students with MMORPGs after immersion?

Based on the research questions, the following hypotheses guided the researcher in conducting this study:

Ho-1 There will be various motives to immerse in MMORPGs as well as positive and negative effects on COLT-KSU students who immerse in these virtual platforms.

Ho-2 The COLT-KSU students communicating in English through immersion in MMORPGs will show overall satisfaction with this technology.

Methodology of the study

The Population of the Study

The subjects chosen for this study were homogeneous; that is, they were all Saudi students, studying the English integrated course (Eng 101) at King Saud University in Riyadh. The subjects' mother tongue is Arabic. This sample consisted of 24 students aged 19 years and above, and all had been exposed to instruction in English as a foreign language for at least seven years, one in the elementary school, three in the intermediate schools and three in high schools. The repeaters in addition to those who were not versed in online games were excluded from this sample so as not to affect the study's results.

The study lasted four weeks with each week having two sessions. For each week, the researcher selected other six students starting with those who were the more experienced in

playing the roles of avatars in MMORPGs. The selection was based on sampling surveys distributed all the subjects registering in this course. Then, virtual lessons assimilating one chapter of the textbook were played alive using the MMORPGs as in figures 1 and 2.



Figure 1: An Explaining Image of Rooms and Different Furniture and Utensils of a House in the Assigned the Textbook

Source: Enterprise-1-Course-Book, unit three.



Figure 2: An Immersive House in MMORPGs Simulating the Rooms, Different Furniture and Utensils of a House in the Assigned Textbook

Source: Sony Play-station, Call of Duty online games.

Because seven is the maximum number allowed to access simultaneously by the widely available version of this online game at the time of experiment. Six were students and the seventh was the researcher. Since these MMORPGs offer up to 15 prestige ranks; each rank consists of 50 levels displayed in the summary record of each avatar, the best six students who got higher levels with upper prestige ranks played the roles of avatars with the researcher first to pave the way for other students for the sequent weeks. To make it easy for the remaining subjects to refer to, these lessons were recorded and attached as links in the LMS of the ENG 101 course. Throughout these weeks, the researcher played the role of a warrior and the students played the roles of other warriors who attack enemies in a house during the leisure time of the teacher and his students in the evening.

Upon the end of each week's sessions of immersions in MMORPGs, the researcher held interviews with each group of students immersed. The interviews consisted of requests to students to participate in this study. Upon their consent, the interviews were initiated.

Data collection

Upon students' consent, the interviews were initiated. The interviews' questions pertain to the EFL Colt-KSU students' attitudes about the MMORPGs from four themes:

1. What motivates them to immerse in the MMORPGs?
2. What positive effects do they think immersion in the MMORPGs can offer?
3. What negative effects do they think immersion in the MMORPGs can cause?
4. What is the degree of their overall satisfaction after their immersion experience in MMORPGs as a means to enhance their oral communication in English?

(adopted with modifications from Al-Hadllaq, 2012, p. 16)

More precisely, the researcher deployed the descriptive approach while discussing the students' attitudes towards the MMORPGs due to its appropriateness to the nature interviews. The 24 students who played the roles of avatars with the researcher were interviewed on a weekly basis immediately after immersion throughout the four weeks of the experiment; six students per week. Thus, an experiment of immersion in MMORPGs followed by interviews was applied to 25 % of the participants every week. All the interviews with students were held using the Arabic language since most of them were still not capable of expressing themselves adequately in English at this level.

It is worthy to mention that the researcher had already held sampling surveys earlier with the whole population to choose the students who were the most experienced in the online games. The researcher kept a record of the subjects' answers to the demographic, English background questions and their skills in online games for later use.

Data Analysis:

It is evident according to the answers obtained during these interviews that there are a number of factors that drive the Saudi EFL Colt-KSU students to immerse in the MMORPGs. There are also varied opinions and attitudes of the participants; their views combine positive, and at the same time, negative effects about their immersion experiences in these platforms. However, the degree of their overall satisfaction with MMORPGs was high throughout the four weeks of the immersion experience. The following section will display the results of these answers under four themes:

1. The Motives of the EFL Colt-KSU Students to Immerse in the MMORPGs.

According to the answers related to this part, the EFL Colt-KSU students think that there are many motives that interest and motivate them to play MMORPGs. The most repeated factors amongst which are: pursuit victory, striving to defeating others, gaining points and ascending in ranks which in common rotate around challenge and competition between players. The students' answers, actually, support the results indicated by Anbari (2010) that MMORPGs can be seen as an environment or an arena for challenge and competition between the players (p.11).

Hence, challenge and competition are two powerful elements that can ensure continuous motivations of the EFL Colt-KSU students to immerse in these immersive platforms. The results of these interviews are consistent with the report issued by Walladi Magazine about some of the reasons behind the children and teenagers' preference of MMORPGs as follows:

First, the MMORPGs offer a variety of elements that attract players of different kinds through amusement. For example, fighting in houses or jungles, or invading space with fictional characters such as zombies, in addition to other attractors such as animations, colors, imagination and adventure.

Second, MMORPGs stimulate players' meditation and vigilance through varied tasks and missions. For example, they sometimes offer a race with cars which requires the players to focus while driving and simultaneously avoid barriers as much as possible, or progress of science fiction games in space or a supernatural hero defeating bad guys and overcoming obstacles.

Third: MMORPGs offer simulation of champions and heroes. In other words, these online games offer players the capability to embody the characters of heroes. The players can get immersed in avatars resembling the appearance of those heroes then start moving, fighting and modifying their behaviors, interacting and integrating them in the game with other heroes within the same game. (Al-Khalifa, 2009) comments, 'the players in these online games immerse in avatars of different personalities with varied capabilities, and work in groups in adventures to reach a set of goals. Players in these adventures work in groups to confront enemies and get rid of them, and often these enemies are a pre-programmed personalities working specific roles' (p. 56).

2. The Positive Effects of Immersion in the MMORPGs According to EFL Colt-KSU Students.

According to the students' answers on this regard, many EFL Colt-KSU students believe that immersion in the MMORPGs can contribute a lot of positive effects. From their perspective, the interviewees think that the MMORPGs can be a rich learning environment offering a variety

of interaction patterns between the players where they can immerse in online games that exceed geographical, social barriers, and hence allow them to experience a kind of collaboration beyond the traditional learning patterns. So, MMORPGs can remove barriers imposed by distances and borders, and provide new meanings for social interaction and communication.

Some of the interviewees' answers assert that cooperative playing can be one of the effective methods of learning and acquiring new skills if applied properly. Hence, MMORPGs can enhance some learning skills. Their answers' rotate around several skills such as: the skill to search for information, communication skills, speaking and reading skills in English, and problem-solving skills.

In fact, the students who play these online games usually immerse with audience of their age from different places and cultures. This might be a strong motivation for them to express themselves clearly, and improve their skills of conversation with players who might speak different languages and belong to different cultures. Consequently, this will expand their perceptions and understanding of other cultures. Also, it may lead to an enhancement in the quality and clarity of pronunciation among students on a large scale as a result of the speaking, discussions and responses and comments made during their playing of these online games. Finally, MMORPGs may contribute to the reduction of social isolation among some students, and help them towards independence in learning about others languages and cultures and hence encourage them to participate in a more active role while communicating with those players belonging to these languages and cultures.

Some students think that MMORPGs play an important role in social networking and interactive activities. When comparing the MMORPGs to traditional Instructional Software games played without the internet, they think that the former are characterized with a number of features. The most important of which is the online participation of a massive number of players who communicate with each other immediately and directly through the diverse online networks worldwide. This merit is evident when comparing MMORPGs with the traditional Instructional Software games that only allow a limited number of players in one room to play with each other at a specific time. All what a student needs to play MMORPGs is only Internet connection and a PlayStation or X-box set then start playing with a large number of players all over the world's continents. This wide space of the MMORPGs fosters networking and communication between the young people immersing in these online games, and hence help Saudi EFL students maintain and enhance friendship mainly with English speaking counterparts.

The immersion in the massively multiple role-playing online games has been increasing rapidly during recent years. According to the Entertainment Software Rating Board (ESRB) report for 2011 (as cited in Gallagher, 2011) indicates that 65% of the US players immersed in MMORPGs with other players in 2011, while the figure was 64% in 2010, and 62% in 2009. Jaroudi (2011) points out that those persons who immerse in the MMORPGs usually try to find solutions to solve puzzles, ask friends and salespersons of the online games before buying them. Sometimes, they resort to reading in electronic magazines or websites specialized in these online games. Thus, they ask questions; receive explanations and exchange information (73).

These results also match with what Kareem (as cited in Abu Aiyain, 2010) stresses that MMORPGs are important sources of education; the students explore a lot through them, expand their imagination in unprecedented way, become more motivated and active, and easier to mingle in community. Furthermore, the MMORPGs offer them a chance to deal with the modern technology, such as the internet and other modern smart devices. They, also, expose them to scientific thinking through identifying problems and eventually solving them (p. 54).

In conclusion, the results of these interviews, also, support McGonagall's (2011) assertions that playing MMORPGs is 'a productive work; it produces positive emotions, strong social relationships, a sense of accomplishment, and the opportunity to develop the ability to build a sense of a useful and productive teamwork' (66). Likewise, the results support Jaroudi's (2011) affirmations that MMORPGs are characterized by positive features; they develop memory and speed thinking, develop a sense of initiative and logical planning. These kinds of online games contribute to harmony with new technologies. Hence, shortly, the players steer wheels, use the joysticks, and deal with related devices professionally. Besides, they learn to carry out continuous defense and attack tasks simultaneously with high alertness and active intelligence because accomplishing these tasks is based on problem solving and creative imagination as well as collaboration between participants (19).

3. The Negative Effects of Immersion in the MMORPGs According to EFL Colt-KSU Students.

According to the students' answers related to this dimension, a number of the EFL Colt-KSU students believe that immersion in the MMORPGs might result in several negative effects. The researcher has classified these negative effects after reconsidering the students' interviews into two categories as follows:

1. MMORPGs negative educational effects.
2. MMORPGs negative health effects.

a. MMORPGs Negative Educational Effects.

As to the students' answers under the third category, 79% of EFL Colt-KSU students believe that the MMORPGs may adversely affect their academic progress as follows: 37.5% of them believe that playing MMORPGs may cause reduce time devoted to studying, 20.83% of them believe that playing MMORPGs may cause negative impacts on academic achievements, and finally 25% of them believe that playing MMORPGs may cause late waking up and hence delay going to prayers and school on time. These findings are consistent with what Anbari (2010) pointed out that when a student becomes an excessive player of MMORPGs that can negatively affect his studying and academic progress. If the teens stay up late playing MMORPGs, this will directly affect their activities the next day. So, they may not be able to get up for school, and if they go to school they usually surrender to sleep in classrooms instead of listening to the teacher (43p.). Also, these findings are consistent with Anderson et al., (2007) and (Walsh et al., (2006) studies that concluded that there is a strong evidence that spending a lot of time in playing MMORPGs causes weakness in the student's academic achievement at school, and hence get low grades when compared to other students who play these MMORPGs less.

Therefore, researcher believes that some of these negative effects of MMORPGs can be reduced through parents' monitoring of the MMORPGs content, specifying time limits for their children and teens to play MMORPGs, encouraging them to give priority to their studying with regular following up of their assignments according to a convenient scheduling and planning. In this regard, Abu Jarrah (2005) explains that the root of problem is that we do not have a clear and specific plan for how to fill the leisure time of our children and teens. Though it might be a burden to some families and educators, avoiding the damage that the MMORPGs may cause is worthy bearing such a burden as asserted in the prophetic tradition, "All of you are guardians and are responsible for your subjects. The ruler is a guardian of his subjects, the man is a guardian of his family, the woman is a guardian and is responsible for her husband's house and his offspring; and so all of you are guardians and are responsible for your subjects" (p.25). Hence, parents have to select a specific time for their children to play appropriate online games for no more than an hour or two a day, and then spend the rest of their time in daily activities after completing their school assignments (ibid).

In fact, the instructors as well as the Academic Counseling Committee at the schools and universities can also help raising their students' awareness about the importance of time organization and the priority of academic demands and assignments over excessive playing of these online games.

b. MMORPGs Negative Health Effects.

As to the students' answers under the third category, 66% of EFL Colt-KSU students believe that the MMORPGs may cause some health problems: 45.83% of them believe that playing MMORPGs may cause eyesight problems, 12.5% of them believe that playing MMORPGs may cause muscular and nervous system problems, 16% of them believe that playing MMORPGs may cause sleeping disorder.

These health complaints of EFL Colt-KSU students are in consistent with what Ilham Hosni (2012)- a professor of pediatrics at Ain Shams University- concludes in her study over the past five years regarding the spread of online games. She asserts that a new set of health problems related to skeletal and muscular emerged as a result of excessive and rapid movements of some body parts. Furthermore, she points out that sitting for long hours in front of the screens cause unbearable pain in the lower back, and the excessive movement of the fingers on the buttons cause severe damage to the thumb and the other fingers joints as a result of excessive and rapid movements and grab of the joysticks. The same study also notes that online games adversely affect the children's eyesight as a result of the short-frequency electromagnetic radiation emitted from the screens or the digital tablets due to the long sitting in front of these electronic devices and playing for long hours.

4. The COLT-KSU EFL Students overall Satisfaction after Receiving Their English Learning Experience via Immersion in MMORPGs.

By the end of every interview, the researcher requests each participant to express the degree of his overall satisfaction in one of four proposed phrases; highly satisfied, somewhat satisfied, satisfied to a small extent or not satisfied. The researcher intentionally concluded his interviews with this request in order to more statistically validate the second hypothesis of research, which reads as follows: "The COLT-KSU students communicating in English through

immersion in MMORPGs will show overall satisfaction with this technology." With this regard, almost 66,66% expressed their high satisfaction with this experiment of communication in English while immersed in MMORPGs, 20,83% somewhat agreed that they enjoyed communicating in English via MMORPG, only 8,33% liked using these virtual platforms to some extent, but only 4,16% expressed that he was not satisfied.

Conclusion

The interviews of the current study aimed at investigating the positive and negative effects as well as the motives of immersion MMORPGs from the standpoints of EFL College-KSU students. The interviewees' answers rotated around a number of important factors that drive them to play the MMORPGs such as the quest to win, competition, challenge, imagination and others of attraction and excitement elements. Though the EFL College-KSU students believe that immersion in MMORPGs has several positive effects, some of them believe that these online games have negative effects as well.

The major positive effects of the MMORPGs according to the interviewees are their significant contribution to the enhancement of some social and academic skills of players such as: information searching skills, communication skills, speaking and reading skills, critical thinking skills, and problem-solving skills as well as enhancing their second languages acquisition. With regard to the negative effects of MMORPGs, many of them can be classified into two categories: educational negative effects as well as negative health effects such as: waste of time, decrease of academic progress, negligence of school commitments as well as damage of eyesight and muscular and nervous system problems.

The researcher believes that the language learning process as a whole needs to cope with an inevitable wave of change emerging from new technologies. More specifically, Saudi universities should be vigilant and updated of the external conditions surrounding the new digital generation of EFL students in Saudi Arabia. One of the most important challenges facing second language acquisition is how to achieve and maintain the satisfaction of EFL students with the presence of the harsh competition of emerging technology and programs such as Internet, social networking and MMORPGs.

Finally and with regard to the degree of the participants' overall satisfaction with this experiment, most responses to this question during interviews indicated a positive and enthusiastic impression of using MMORPGs as virtual platforms to improve oral English communication. The fact that negative responses were limited may be considered as an encouraging factor to utilize these innovative platforms in foreign language teaching and learning.

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Appendix A: Sampling Surveys

Name: _____ Nationality: _____

Date of Birth: _____ Country of Birth: _____

1. When and where have you studied English other than school and university?

Date	Institute/school	Location	How long	Hrs/week

2. How much time (hours per day) do you spend**a) listen and speak in English (e.g. online games, youtube, snapchat, instigram, English TV channels ..etc?**☐ none ☐ less than an hour ☐ less than 2 hrs ☐ less than 3 hrs☐ less than 4 hours ☐ less than 5 hours ☐ more than 5 hours**b) play MMORPGs Saudis or Arabs?**☐ none ☐ less than an hour ☐ less than 2 hrs ☐ less than 3 hrs☐ less than 4 hours ☐ less than 5 hours ☐ more than 5 hours**c) play MMORPGs with English speakers?**☐ none ☐ less than an hour ☐ less than 2 hrs ☐ less than 3 hrs☐ less than 4 hours ☐ less than 5 hours ☐ more than 5 hours**3. have you been to an English-speaking country(s)? Yes ____ No ____ If yes,**

What was the country? _____ When _____

How long did you stay there? _____ What was the reason?

Appendix B: The Students' Consents to Participate in the, Surveys and Experiment of the Study

YOU HAVE AGREED TO PARTICIPATE IN THE SURVEYS AND EXPERIMENT IN THE RESEARCHER'S STUDY TO HELP HIM COLLECT DATA ON HIS STUDY ABOUT MMORPGS' EFFECT ON PRONUNCIATION OF EFL STUDENTS OF THE LANGUAGES & TRANSLATION COLLEGE AT KING SAUD UNIVERSITY

You will be recorded for research purposes, but you will remain anonymous. Students may benefit by immersing in online games in their pronunciation and oral communication in English. This benefit is not limited to the students of this course but may also benefit other students in the future. The data collected in this experiment will be used in the research and it may be used in publications and/or conference presentations with no monetary compensation to you now or in the future. The recordings will be destroyed upon the completion of the study.

By signing this consent form, you are demonstrating that you have read all the information above and that you have agreed to be recorded. There is no risk to you by participating in this research.

Please contact ALQAHTANI, SHAFI, SAAD; the researcher at (+966) 5050***** or shalqahtani@ksu.edu.sa for more details about the research.

Participant's Signature	Printed Name	Date

Researcher's Signature	Printed Name	Date

Appendix C: A Printed Script of the Interview sample

الباحث : الاسم	
الطالب : محمد السعدي	
الباحث : أولا نشكر لك اخ محمد على موافقتك على المشاركة معي في هذا اللقاء.	
الطالب : بالعكس أشرف بوجودي معك.	
الباحث : لو سألناك بعد التجربة التي قمنا بها جميعا من خلال لعب الالعاب الالكترونية , في رأيكم ماهي الدوافع التي تدفعك الى لعب الالعاب الالكترونية ؟	Theme- 1 :[Comment U1]
الطالب : أحد أهم الأسباب هو الفراغ ... وثانيا لزيادة التواصل مع أصدقائي وأيضا زيادة الأصدقاء بحيث أنه يتم تكوين صداقات عبر اللعب معهم عن طريق الشبكة online وأيضا بدفعني حب التجربة	Motive 1 :[Comment U2] Motive 2 :[Comment U3] Motive 3 :[Comment U4] Motive 4 :[Comment U5]
الباحث : لو سألناك أخ محمد بعد هذه التجربة عن المزايا و الإيجابيات الموجودة في ممارسة الالعاب الالكترونية؟ هل تذكر لنا بعض ما في ذهنك؟	Theme- 2 :[Comment U6]
الطالب : أول شيء يطور اللغة الانجليزية بحيث اني أتكلّم مع أجنبي في اللعبة أو حتى للعبة مكتوبة أغلبها بالإنجليزي , وثاني شيء لاني هو زيادة التركيز لأن الالعاب تتطلب تركيز و دقة وأيضا زيادة التخطيط لأنك تحتاج تخطيط إذا كنت تلعب , هذا اللي في ذهني.	Positive effect 1 :[Comment U7] Positive effect 2 :[Comment U8] Positive effect 3 :[Comment U9]
الباحث :جيد.. طيب لو سألناك بالمقابل عن السلبيات التي ممكن تتطوي عليها هذه الالعاب الالكترونية؟ في ذهنك شيء تذكره؟	Theme- 3 :[Comment U10]
الطالب : أولا وأهم شيء هي ضياع الوقت.. يعني يؤثر سلبيا على دراستي و أيضا يؤثر على اختلاطي الاجتماعي مع عائلتي و مع أصدقائي في العالم الحقيقي.. بحيث اني أركز على أصدقائي في العالم الوهمي أكثر من العالم الحقيقي... وأيضا ممكن انها تزيد العنف	Negative effect 1 :[Comment U11] Negative effect 2 :[Comment U12] Negative effect 3 :[Comment U13] Negative effect 4 :[Comment U14]
الباحث : كيف تزيد العنف ؟	
الطالب : مثلا تشوف مشاهد عنيفة كل يوم... خلاص تشوفها أنه شيء عاوي..أيضا يؤثر على البصر لاني أقعد عليها بالساعات.	Negative effect 5 :[Comment U15]
الباحث : طيب.. بالآخر انا أشكرك وفيه سؤال أخير وأود أنك تجيب عليه بكل صراحة عن مدى رضاك عن التجربة التي قمنا بها بالالعاب الالكترونية في انها تطور لغتك الانجليزي سيما على مستوى المفردات و القراءة .	Theme- 4 :[Comment U16]
مستوى الرضاء عندك هل تعطيه : غير راضي جدا - غير راضي - محايد - راضي - راضي جدا	
الطالب : راضي تقريبا علشان نكون منصفين.	Satisfied :[Comment U17]
الباحث: في نهاية اللقاء نشكرك مره اخرى على تواجدك معنا	
الطالب : وانا أشكرك على إتاحة الفرصة	

A Translation Script of the Interview sample

	The researcher: What is your name?
	The student: <u>Mohammed Assadi</u>
	The researcher: First of all, I would like to thank you for accepting to participate in this interview.
	The student: Actually, it's an honor to be with you.
1 st Theme :{1Comment [A]	The researcher: If I ask you about the immersion experiment of the online games we did together, in your opinion what are the <u>motives</u> that drive you to play the MMORPGs?
1 st Motive :{1Comment [A]	The student: One of the main reasons is <u>to enjoy leisure time</u> ... second, <u>to communicate more with my friends</u> , and <u>to increase numbers of friends</u> . In fact, I can build more friendships through playing MMORPGs and finally, <u>love for adventure</u> .
2 nd Motive :{1Comment [A]	
3 rd Motive :{1Comment [A]	
3 th Motive :{0Comment [A]	The researcher: Ok, If I ask you <u>Mohammed</u> after this experiment, what were some of the <u>main merits</u> or <u>positive aspects</u> of playing MMORPGs? Is there anything in your mind you would like to mention?
2 nd Theme :{1Comment [A]	The student: First of all, <u>to improve my English</u> . In fact, I can talk to foreigners while playing MMORPGs. Actually, these games are mostly written in English. The second thing is <u>to increase attentiveness</u> because these online games need concentration, precision and <u>advanced planning</u> because you will definitely need planning while playing. That's all I can recall at the moment.
1 st Positive Effect :{1Comment [A]	
2 nd Positive Effect :{1Comment [A]	
3 rd Positive Effect :{1Comment [A]	
3 rd Theme :{1Comment [A]	The researcher: Good. Ok, if I ask you, on the other hand, about <u>the negative effects</u> that can be caused by these MMORPGs, is there anything in your mind to tell us?
1 st Negative Effect :{1Comment [A]	The student: The first and the most important thing is <u>wasting time</u> . I mean they (MMORPGs) <u>negatively affect my studying</u> and they also <u>affect socializing with my family and friends in the real world</u> That is because I focus more on my friends in the virtual world than on my friends in real world. Also, they (MMORPGs) <u>can increase violence</u> .
2 nd Negative Effect :{1Comment [A]	
3 rd Negative Effect :{1Comment [A]	
4 th Negative Effect :{1Comment [A]	The researcher: How can they increase violence?
5 th Negative Effect :{1Comment [A]	The student: For instance, you see violent scenes everyday... Consequently, you see them as something normal. Also, they <u>affect my eyesight</u> because I sit playing MMORPGs for hours.
4 th Theme :{1Comment [A]	The researcher: Ok. By the end of this interview, I thank you, but there remains a final question I would like you to answer it frankly regarding <u>the extent of your satisfaction with the experiment</u> of our immersion in MMORPGs. Do you think it has enhanced your English; particularly at a vocabulary and reading level? Your satisfaction level, is it "strongly unsatisfied", "not satisfied", "neutral", "satisfied" or "strongly satisfied"?
Satisfied :{1Comment [A]	The student: Approximately " <u>Satisfied</u> " to be more fair.
	The researcher: Lastly, I would like to thank you once again for participation with us.

Appendix D: A Sample of Online Games' Contests Held by the Student Activities Committee at the Colt-KSU



بطولة البلايستيشن

شارك التحدي والمنافسة على بطولة البلايستيشن
التسجيل في مقر الأنشطة بالكلية الدور الأول ١٠٥٠
سوف تكون هناك جائزة مالية للمركز الأول



تبدأ البطولة
يوم الاثنين ١/٢٠

فترة التسجيل ١/١٦ - ١/٢٠

سوف تكون اوقات المباريات من الساعة ١٢ - ١ ظهراً
والمسابقات المتأخر ١٠ دقائق سيعتبر منسحب

From Scientific English to English for Science: Determining the Perspectives and Crossing the Limits

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Abstract

This paper contributes to the didactic foundations of an epistemology of specialized English from a French perspective. Scientific English will be the content domain which will serve this purpose. While its transverse features (e.g. discourse, genre) have been widely investigated, it continues to lack a comprehensive approach to what is a multifaceted object, namely: 1) scientific content; 2) expressed in a foreign language; 3) which needs to be appropriated by student-learners. Another concept is needed. The transition from scientific English to English for science is regarded in terms of territory, domain and disciplines and from various perspectives and limits. Scientific English is envisaged as a narrow domain focused on linguistic aspects. To remain relevant, scientific English needs to be both broadened and enriched, and its scope delimited. These weaknesses lead to the design of English for science. The meta-concept of English for science has been forged to overcome these gaps, by crossing boundaries that limit an epistemological approach. It is then necessary to trace the method which consists in setting the boundaries for the new territory of language teaching and learning, which overlaps two domains – English and science – to develop a new domain – English for science –.

Key words: didactics, English for science, epistemology, languages for specialists of other subjects (LANSAD), specialized languages

1. Introduction

Compared to traditional areas such as literature, civilization or linguistics, a lack of research has meant that specialized English (*Anglais de spécialité*, ASP) has for many years lacked prestige. This changed in the 1970s when, under the leadership of Professor Perrin, a new area was developed which combined research into ASP and the didactics of language teaching. The field has seen ongoing development over the past 50 years; however it continues to suffer from a lack of epistemological foundations (Van Der Yeught, 2014).

This author argues that ASP specialists are primarily linguists who confine themselves to the language dimension of their research, but that the study of ASP should not be limited to a “historical linguistic exercise” (Van der Yeught, 2012: 17). The situation can be compared to a teacher who teaches Shakespeare’s plays but does not consider Shakespeare himself and the context (cf. Van Der Yeught, 2014). Similarly, all of the dimensions of ASP have not yet been integrated into its epistemology.

This paper contributes to the didactic foundations of an epistemology of specialized English from a French perspective, in the domain of science. While the transverse features (e.g. discourse, genre) of scientific English have been widely investigated, it continues to lack a comprehensive approach to what is a multifaceted object, namely: 1) scientific content; 2) expressed in a foreign language; 3) which needs to be appropriated by student-learners. Research is carried out in the context of the wider domain known as *Langues pour Spécialistes d’Autres Disciplines* (LANSAD)/Languages for specialists of other subjects that emerged in the 1970s. While LANSAD brings together a set of teaching practices and a clear educational and scientific direction, it has so far failed to develop into an independent field of scientific research (Van der Yeught, 2014).

The research into English for science was motivated by the author’s background studies in science and present position as a lecturer and researcher at a scientific university in France (Université Toulouse 3 - Paul Sabatier –UPS). Currently, scientific English at UPS is taught by teachers who have no real expertise or experience in science and/or the didactics of foreign languages. Their teaching approach mainly relies on the Anglo-Saxon tradition of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) which is purposive rather than focused on specialized domains: the emphasis is on language objectives, while professional and disciplinary objectives are either ignored or juxtaposed without any real articulation with language. However, as it is clear that linguistic objectives are important and that teaching scientific English (Crosnier, 2015) is essential, some teachers draw upon the ASP concept as it combines linguistics with the cultural dimensions of language (cf. the concept of “*langue-culture*”ⁱ).

In developing the meta-conceptⁱⁱ of English for science, ASP researchers need to constantly cross or even transgress limits and forge new perspectives (Rabatel, 2013). However, the process is demanding, and resistance, which can be interpreted in terms of perspectives and limits, may end in new limitations. There are two ways to overcome the problems: one is to examine the discipline itself in order to comprehend the knowledge to be explored, and the other is to take a wider, inter- or multi-disciplinary approach (Rabatel, 2013). This leads to a discussion of the ‘vertical’ (diachronic) dimension of ASP (Van der Yeught, 2014) by exploring other approaches focusing on science: its philosophy, history, and sociology. By weaving these

three dimensions together, and borrowing from Piaget's "internal epistemological critique" (1970), the present author develops the meta-concept of 'English for science' rather than 'scientific English'. Unlike scientific English, English for science crosses, combines and articulates the cultural, linguistic and didactical dimensions of ASP (Morin, 1990). However, this dialectical process requires the construction of a framework that can overcome both the diachronic and the syntactic limits and perspectives of English for science.

2. Observations about scientific English and its context

Scientific English in its current form contains several limits that can be regarded as barriers and inconsistent perspectives. This is due to the general context of LANSAD to which scientific English belongs. LANSAD as an object is essentially limited to the definition of its elements (ASP, ESP) (§1) and determined according to institutional constraints applied to the transmission of knowledge in higher education (§2). Furthermore, scientific English has essentially been viewed from the perspective of language, while science itself should also be examined in order to identify its key elements (§3).

2.1. ASP, ESP and LANSAD: a confused domain

An analysis of the general context of language teaching for non-linguists, together with specialized languages such as ASP (with a particular focus on scientific English), ESP and didactics offers a particularly fruitful direction for understanding how LANSAD is organized.

Langue de spécialité (LSP) is a French term used to refer to specialized languages (ASP is the variant for English) and was defined by Perrin (Mémet & Petit, 2001, p.312) and Petit (2002, 2004). Following their work, the French *Société des Anglicistes de l'Enseignement Supérieur* (SAES) approved the following definition (2011), which characterizes ASP as "a discipline and the fourth branch of 'English studies' which examines these objects and develops a didactic reflection on its teaching and learning" (Mémet & Petit, 2001: 8). According to Mémet (2008, p. 27), ASP can be studied from different perspectives: linguistics, didactics, pedagogy, civilization and culture.

Early issues of the journal *Asp*, published by the *Groupe d'Etude et de Recherche en Anglais de Spécialité* (GERAS) pertaining to scientific English show that there are more pedagogical approaches than didactic reflections (with the exception of research by authors like Crosnier (1993, 1996)). The principal approach sees language solely from a linguistics approach and leaves aside other didactic and specialty perspectives. Discourse analysis (e.g. Carter & Rowley, 2001, 2003; Banks, 1998, 2006ⁱⁱⁱ) is another perspective of research that was followed with the study of genre defined by Swales (1990). Many French researchers in English studies (e.g. Sionis, 1994; Martin, 1996) are, or have been influenced by Trimble (1985)'s and Swales (1990)'s major works on scientific discourse, in particular the enunciative theory of French linguists, or research into the sciences of language^{iv} (Laffont, 2005). While the transverse features (e.g. discourse, genre) of scientific English have been studied, vertical studies of the intersection between the specialized domain, science, and language have been neglected, together with the diachronic approach. This is supported by the following quote, which shows that ASP and scientific English have not been studied from all possible perspectives, "To date, LSPs have never been systematically described and their perimeters are poorly defined, some of them are constantly changing" (Van der Yeught, 2012, p. 5).

In the Anglo-Saxon tradition of specialized languages, ESP was developed for economic, scientific and technical reasons (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and became the dominant international approach. It is based on multiple purposes rather than specialized domains, which means that there is no set body of knowledge to transmit to learners. The focus is on the learner's pedagogical objectives and specific professional needs rather than language. Furthermore as Swales (1985) notes, the approach is essentially synchronic:

ESP practitioners are concerned with the 'here' and 'now' of their own working situation; in general they do not look across to see what other people in similar situations are doing and they do not look back to see what people in their own or other situations have done(p.2).

ESP's pragmatic approach makes it an interesting pedagogy yet, as we have seen, it has limits. Nevertheless, most scientific English teaching relies on the ESP tradition, while ASP and ESP do not take the same theoretical approach to language.

There are didactic consequences for ASP/scientific English teaching related to, for example, the appropriation of knowledge by learners and efficiency. Usually, English teachers in French scientific universities teach and learn the 'object' simultaneously. Most have had no specific training in LANSAD or specialized/scientific English except during their studies and preparations for competitive examinations. Moreover, they rarely have any experience of scientific communities(industry, laboratories, education/training). Their approach frequently relies on the Anglo-Saxon ESP tradition, although if the ASP approach is used, the language dimension (language as a tool) is emphasized. From the learner's perspective, courses that are based on language as a tool do not always serve their professional objectives. Moreover, they have little motivation to learn a 'language' that they have already been learning for seven years at school. Course contents often reflect a lack of scientific knowledge. It is clear that ASP's didactic approach has not yet emerged.

The fundamental problem lies in the general context of teaching and learning languages for non-specialists, which is rarely seen as a research domain. The characteristics of teaching and learning are non-existent and hence the aim is unclear (cf. Van der Yeught, 2014). This leads to epistemological and structural problems: an absence of knowledge that can be transmitted to teachers and students, and a lack of teacher training (Van der Yeught, 2014). A didactic approach specific to ASP has not yet emerged.

LANSAD appears to be more similar to a "territory" (O'Connell, 2016) with blurred boundaries, rather than a clearly delimited domain. It has no set framework and lacks a methodological approach. Although the reasons for this situation are many and varied, a lack of institutional policy is the major one. The terms LANSAD, ASP/ LSP and their didactics are often confused, while they are in fact distinct. Two types of LANSAD course are taught: the first is designed for students with different specializations who take the same English course, but are not taught a specialized language; in the second, students with the same specialization are taught LSP. In the humanities, the first case prevails and the notion of LSP is seen as irrelevant.

Therefore, there is confusion in both the organization of LANSAD teaching and its constituent elements. This leads to a lack of perspectives and a need for specific boundaries in the definition of ASP (although it seems to be a broader domain than ESP), and in the design of ESP and LANSAD. Furthermore, in the LANSAD context, a didactic approach has rarely been taken in order to guarantee high standards in the teaching/learning process. The emphasis is on language rather than the content and the didactic approach. GERAS is the leading French research group on ASP, and one of its Special Interest Groups (ESP learning and teaching) has studied the link between ASP and didactics.

2.2. Hyper-specialization and the closure of disciplines in higher education

LANSAD, LSP/ASP and notably scientific English lack epistemological foundations. This is due to two institutional limits: the researchers' and teachers' education, and institutional recruitment; the first having an impact on the second.

The first point to note is that the English education of LANSAD researchers and teachers is focused on literature, civilization and linguistics and follows competitive exams to become teachers. Consequently, they are focused on the language dimension in their research and teaching. As Lerat (1995, p. 20-21) points out, the linguist is torn between the general functioning of language and the specialty which characterizes it. Generally the language dimension takes precedence. Second, there are few LANSAD researchers, notably in scientific English. Teachers organize their teaching based on their personal knowledge and epistemology rather than research. Those that do use research-based scientific English rarely take into account specialty or diachronic analyses, due to their resistance and reticence in tackling scientific English from other perspectives (Rabatel, 2013).

This situation, which is found in both LANSAD and academic scientific contexts, can be explained by the institutional organization of higher education research. This is inherited from Comte's positivism, which generates a number of sealed barriers.

In higher education, although other models have been proposed (Piaget, 1970), knowledge continues to be organized vertically (Magnet, 1999). This means that the knowledge organization model (*Tableau synoptique des connaissances positives*, 1907) implies a hierarchy (Hacking, 1983) that places mathematics at the top alongside other hard sciences, "Knowledge on the top of the hierarchy is, by convention, called 'positive knowledge'" (Hacking, 1983, p. 153). This rigid, hierarchical system prevents disputes over methods, but hampers the enrichment and transference of concepts. However, specialized languages in general, and specialized English in particular, are not structured in a positivist manner. Instead, they take an inter- or multi-disciplinary form that encompasses and even encroaches upon disciplines in the humanities and exact sciences. Although multi- and inter-disciplinary approaches are advocated in research and teaching programs, it is rather as an ideal than a concrete aim; they are rarely operational in reality. As Morin (1999) stresses, "the organization of knowledge I currently struggling with a fundamental conflict between the disciplinary closure and poly-disciplinary reorganization". Students should be able to use their training and knowledge to grasp the 'complexity of the real'. Given the difficulty of teaching and learning a foreign language, learning requires a focus on new problems and progress comes from crossing disciplinary limits (Cortès, 2003, p. 10). For instance, although specialized vocabulary is the most visible/taught aspect of LSP, teaching

should also encompass the syntactic and semantic relations between the language and the specialty. Moreover, the aim of LSP is to be taught, which implies the development of a didactic methodology.

This organization leads to the hyper-specialization of disciplines and hence their compartmentalization. Consequently, with a few rare exceptions syllabi are established according to the classical division between disciplines and specialties, notably between the hard sciences and humanities. It then becomes unlikely that teachers, researchers and decision-makers work together. According to Lahire^v (2012), there are “negative effects of disciplinary confinement, hyperspecialization and a narrow form of academic professionalism”. We are deprived of “elements of enrichment of one’s thought”(p.322). Moreover, the established knowledge is only partial, and a clear image of the world is lacking-

It appears that when English courses are introduced in scientific universities, they are viewed as “incommensurable worlds” (Kuhn, 1962). This means that they are embedded in starkly contrasting conceptual frameworks and languages do not overlap sufficiently to permit them to interact, or exchange ideas in order to optimize teaching and research cooperation.

2.3. Science as a key domain for teaching scientific English

Scientific English is not yet a domain, discipline or a sub-discipline of ASP. We know that it is composed of two domains – language and science – that are taught as multiple, separate “disciplines” (Fourez, 1996, p. 81), e.g. chemistry, physics, or mathematics.

English studies is an academic subject with an established community specialized in the field. As Fourez and Larochelle (2004,p. 82-83) assert, academic categorizations have both advantages and drawbacks. The main advantage is that they are an interesting way to consider the world. Each category has its own powerful, scientific approach (Callon, 1989). Teaching according to discipline consists in transmitting specific ways of examining and solving a set of questions that are part of a standard heritage. However, although this point of view is specific, it is not inevitable and other approaches could have been taken. The chosen perspective is always partial and often determined socially and historically. The boundaries between disciplines are the result of the particularity of the point of view that is adopted. However, in the case of English for science, it is insufficient to merge several disciplines as they mainly consist of scholarly knowledge.

The phrase ‘scientific English’ contains two terms: language and science. However, the latter has received little attention in research and teaching, and merits further investigation. The problem with science primarily lies in its unclear definition, which often relies on social representations. This is not only due to the lack of teachers’ and researchers’ knowledge, but also to the nature of ‘science’ itself. Science has always been seen as hermetic and limited to specialists who are the only ones who can understand it. Non-specialist teachers are excluded by the use of standardized symbols, equations and concepts. They skim the surface, or use science as the background or pretext for the study of language as a tool. However, science is also a domain that can be apprehended through other disciplines, and this analysis argues that its many aspects should be understood. It is generally perceived through various clichés that are analyzed here.

It is often said that science can do without language. However, language is a significant, although neglected part of science (Crosland, 2006). Scientific abstraction and rhetorical concepts owe their existence to language. As Lévy-Leblond (1996) puts it “language pulls science” (“*la langue tire la science*”^{vi}).

There is another widely-shared belief that science is universal (Lévy-Leblond, 2004, p. 104). But few researchers have addressed the meaning of universality, except for some who have turned to epistemology, history and philosophy. Lévy-Leblond (1996), Pestre (1996), Fourez (1996) and Soler (2009) all study science and notably the issue of its universality. Fourez and Larochelle (2004) define the term “universal”. Science is universal in some aspects (Fourez, 1996). It is a form of knowledge shared between two legitimate poles: on the one hand, there are several types and models of knowledge that are location dependent; on the other hand, universality feeds into both spontaneous ideas of objectivity and the uniform effectiveness of science and technology (Dahan, 2000).

Fourez and Larochelle (2004) link the universality of science to the universality of language, “yes science is universal, so is the English language”. They argue that the universality of English was due to the power of American economics and politics, rather than the language itself. “Even if science is or claims universality for itself, it is forced to make this claim in a non-universal language” (Hauge, 1996, p. 154). When English is selected as the language of science it is not a neutral decision, although the choice does not affect the status of science, either in terms of results or claims of truth. The linguistic choice has an impact on the epistemology of science. The use of English (or any other language) always draws upon its specific system of thought or culture. Thus it is impossible to assert outright that science has neither a nationality nor a language (Leduc, 1996).

Finally it is assumed that the culture of science (which does not mean the same in English and French) can be taken into account when teaching scientific English. *Culture scientifique* is the expression used in French whereas in English, ‘scientific literacy’ is used, which literally translates into *alphabétisationscientifique* (Nicolas, 2012). Scientific literacy is a controversial notion (Désautels, 1998, p. 16). All definitions lie between two extremes: at one end of the spectrum, it is seen as an autonomous culture, while at the other it is conceived of as an element that contributes to the action of the citizen in a real situation (Nicolas, 2012).

Language is linked to culture. In science, the language dimension is viewed as non-essential. This is not the case in humanities, which are situated in a historical and cultural background (Mocikat & Dieter, 2014).

Science is a form of knowledge that is built with a language in a culture that has specific ways of thinking and a particular world view. In general, it is relevant to study language in relation to science and to integrate these elements in thinking about English in scientific domains, which also allows us to explore other perspectives.

3. Tracing the method

LSP is a mentally constructed object (Van der Yeught, 2012, p. 12). Consequently, unlike a natural object it cannot be described from its external appearance, and instead has to be constructed and supported by theory. Thus it is necessary to set the boundaries for the new

territory of language teaching and learning, which overlaps two domains – English and science – to develop a new domain – English for science – before establishing it as a ‘discipline’ (Fourez, 1996, p. 81). To do so means push backing the disciplinary limits of English studies and exploring new perspectives (cf. Rabatel, 2013) in order to examine the specialty itself and to determine the boundaries of knowledge. However, this dialectical process requires the construction of a framework based on a didactic perspective that is able to encompass the limits and perspectives of English for science.

My aim here is not to annex “disciplinary territories” but rather to gather them together in order to have a clearer view of the world (Lahire, 2012, p. 325). Science is also an individual concern as science and society are linked. Rather than integrate different disciplines, the author seeks to use them to inform her own thinking.

3.1. Exploring other perspectives

Epistemology is at the crossroads of many related disciplines that are more or less closely linked (Soler, 2009). It leads us to examine disciplines that have science as an object—history, philosophy and sociology—because it can be seen from various perspectives. “An interdisciplinary approach aims to build appropriate knowledge to a situation which uses the disciplines for this purpose and does not imply any devaluation of the disciplinary knowledge it uses” (Soler, 2009, p. 14).

Epistemology is an integral part of the philosophy of science and “not a luxury of thought” (Lecourt, 2003, p. 105). Integrating the philosophy of science enables us to better understand different intellectual approaches, modes of scientific thought, and their emergence (the diachronic perspective, e.g. Baconian thought). Lecourt (2003) takes the example of the analogy, which was seen as part of a pre-scientific stage of thought and was a key element of the magical conception of the world during the Renaissance. However, it is integral to the inventive approach, and even had a central place in scientific creation (cf. Diderot). Similarly, Lévy-Leblond (1996, p. 269) questions the value of the philosophy of science for science and argued that it could provide “a meeting between philosophical reflection and scientific knowledge on a secured and marked terrain”.

Epistemology can also be applied to the history of science. Here, it is necessary to explore the concept from two complementary perspectives: synchronic and diachronic (Cassin, 2013). From the synchronic perspective, the current corpus of scientific English constituted by individual researchers and national research networks (e.g. GERAS) is analyzed in order to understand its current state of development in research and education. The diachronic perspective is supported by history and aims to establish, through the study of the past, the elements that contributed to the constitution of science and the scientific ideal. In other words, it is the study of the conditions of the genesis and development of scientific knowledge. The diachronic approach examines the transitions and transfers between different languages and cultures: from Greek to Latin; interactions with Jewish and Arabic traditions; from one ancient language to a vernacular language; from one vernacular language to another; from one tradition or system to others; or from one field of knowledge and disciplinary logic to others. For Lévy-Leblond (1996, p. 23), we cannot fully benefit from the present unless we understand past eras.

Epistemology also draws upon the sociology of science in the context of interactions between science and society. This allows an examination of the influence of science on the political, economic and social organization of philosophical and religious thought and literature, together with social constraints on the development of science. In the Anglo-Saxon approach, external factors have increasingly been taken into account. One example is Bloor's "strong programs" that essentially gave rise to the field called 'science studies' or 'science, technology, and society'. One of the key points in this perspective is the analysis of controversies (e.g. *Leviathan and the Air-Pump: Hobbes, Boyle, and the Experimental Life*, Shapin and Schaffer, 1985). Here, the 'science' in question is science in the making, i.e. scientific activities rather than the established scientific corpus. The emphasis on various elements taken from the philosophy of science triggers the development of competences (i.e. sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence, Council of Europe, 2001), that are underused in the current language learning/teaching context.

3.2. Setting limits and establishing a framework

The problem then becomes one of limiting the integration of other disciplines in a way that avoids simply listing them, and developing a relevant concept. A preliminary framework needs to be designed. Introducing the philosophy and history of science implies drawing a clear limit between the field of study and others by determining what is encompassed by the concept. It should not be forgotten that the aim of English for science is teaching with regard to the definition of ASP. Therefore, a didactic perspective is necessary. Knowledge should be limited as a function of educational institutions and society, and the focus should be placed on teaching and learning aspects in this specific context.

Currently, the aim of teaching is not considered in terms of didactic^{vii} when referring to ASP, and notably scientific English. However, teaching should be framed by the didactic system^{viii} and not the classroom, because the topic of interest is knowledge. In the classroom, the teacher-learner relation is most visible. Empirically, this relation seems to be binary. Yet as a starting point didactic theory must posit, as a theoretical entity, a ternary relation that unites three 'objects': the teacher, the learner and knowledge. Knowledge must be introduced into the didactic relation because very little of what takes place between teacher and learners can be understood in the absence of context.

The author first looked at the pedagogical triangle of Houssaye (1988), which can be considered as a minimum study system based on the concepts of knowledge, teacher, and student. However, neither the specificities of knowledge, nor contextual elements are taken into account in this system. Another approach is required, as the main aim is the English teacher's training in LANSAD. It is difficult to grasp the teacher's knowledge in a particular context. This difficulty can be circumvented by studying it using a didactic approach that is supported by disciplines that focus on "relationships to knowledge" (Joshua, 1996, 2002). The relationship is considered from an anthropological perspective (Chevallard, 1989) as the aim is to address the relationship to knowledge not from the point of view of the subject, but in terms of knowledge itself. This emphasizes the cultural dimension and captures the effects of social environments on both the subject and knowledge, in the specific context of the teaching act (Garnier, 2003).

First, the construction of knowledge should be analyzed in terms of the relationship between the actors, the teaching and learning context, and knowledge. This is known as didactic

transposition (DT), which is a notion introduced into the didactics of mathematics by Chevallard (1985, 1991). This concept constitutes “a researcher’s working tool” (Chevallard, 1992) that is able to explain the full complexity of the teaching/learning process. This is particularly important, as teaching English for science does not solely consist of knowledge (like mathematics) but knowledge associated with skills, life skills (*savoir-être*), etc. DT examines the origin of knowledge, and the mechanisms that drive the introduction of new types of knowledge in schools. It focuses on the scientific analysis of ‘didactic systems’, based on the assumption that the teaching object (*savoir enseigné*), normally pre-exists as scholarly knowledge (*savoir savant*), which is “a body of knowledge, not knowledge in itself”. Scholarly knowledge is transformed into knowledge to be taught (*savoir à enseigner*) and then into taught knowledge (*savoir enseigné*). The aim here is to integrate the last two forms of knowledge, which constitute the interactions between the learner, the teacher and knowledge.

The history/philosophy/sociology of science approaches can contribute to courses or teacher training of, or in English for science. The target is the teachers and their teaching, as well as the learner and their learning, which implies implementing or enhancing other skills. For example, when teaching uses an Anglo-Saxon approach based on the sociology of science (and notably its controversies) more competences are identified and mobilized: the ability to argue and take a reasoned decision, or a critical approach to information and understanding of scientific knowledge.

The disciplinary and didactic/educational issues are thought together in DT theory. Moreover, this theory provides legitimacy to the activities of English teachers and normativity (in the sense of standardization) to English for science courses in the LANSAD domain.

4. The meta-concept of English for science

As seen previously, the reorganization of scientific English knowledge not only has didactic interest but goes further: it constitutes another perspective from which to examine LSP didactics. English for science becomes a meta-concept aimed at teaching, and an operative concept in the implementation of teaching and learning systems. The approach is both methodological (because it is research-based) and epistemological (because it requires the construction of a set body of knowledge). Epistemology is applied to didactics (Mercier, 2008) and the meta-concept is determined through its object, objective and methodology.

4.1. Object

Unlike scientific English, which usually erases the historical and genetic circumstances of scientific discourse (Fourez, 1996) in order to make it universal (Stengers, 1987), English for science, which is neither the juxtaposition of English and science nor its sum, crosses, combines and articulates the cultural, linguistic and didactical dimensions of ASP (cf. Morin, 1990^{ix}). Science is not only a matter of objectivity, but also involves the construction of scientific practice (Hacking, 1983). Studying the whole that is not present in each separate part fosters the emergence of quality. It implies the determination of features and the exploration of perspectives that have not, so far, been taken into account in scientific English.

4.2. Aim

The meta-concept aims to provide another vision of science. English for science is a cultural way of structuring a vision (Fourez&Larochelle, 2004, p. 37). First, it is necessary to understand current science teaching in order to design the concept. For this reason it draws upon research in science education that focuses on science not only as a finished product but also in action (in the form of science and technology teaching). Both comprehension and the production of science must be reintegrated into the study of science, and above all English for science courses. While science courses emphasize the production of science, English for science emphasize understanding. English for science is not limited to the scientific lexicon, and therefore it must incorporate the role of the researcher, links with the rest of the world and therefore human relations with the world. A more holistic view of science and knowledge through language/ discourse (Narcy-Combes, 2005) comes from integrating the “human and social” dimension of science in order to establish a sub-discipline of ASP (Petit, 2004, p. 7) with the aim of achieving a higher level or professionalism. Narcy-Combes (2005, p. 37-41) developed a didactic perspective of language centered on three transductive^x relationships. The focus is no longer solely on language, but extends to components such as culture, knowledge and *parole*-discourse. This helps students, teachers and decision-makers to broaden their view of science. The construction of this meta-concept is intended to help in training teachers of English in the LANSAD domain.

4.3. Methodology

The author operates, as Piaget (1970) says, her own “internal epistemological critique”, i.e. she questions the methods of evaluation and legitimization of the knowledge that it produces and teaches. The problem of the “foundations” (Piaget, 1970) of English for science can be examined by researchers in the ASP domain, and not only epistemologists (Lemoigne, 2003). Its scientific, philosophical and humanist approaches mean that epistemology is polysemous (Verhaeghe *et al.*, 2004, p. 1). A synthetic meaning is then drawn from thinking on the construction and management of knowledge in science in the context of its relationship with other domains of scientific thinking.

As mentioned previously, the philosophy, history and sociology of science applied within a didactic framework help to determine their most coherent and relevant articulation. The author is guided by the influence of science on language and the weight of culture on science (Pestre, 1996).

The issue of reference arises when discussing the content of teaching English for science, which cannot be determined simply by scholarly knowledge (as in mathematics). English for science is a corpus of multi-referential knowledge (Accardi, 2001). The determination of the types of knowledge in English for science is part of ongoing research.

5. Conclusion

This paper has discussed the transition from scientific English to English for science in terms of territory, domain and disciplines and from various perspectives and limits. Scientific English is envisaged as a narrow domain focused on linguistic aspects. To remain relevant, it needs to be both broadened and enriched, and its scope delimited. These weaknesses led to the design of English for science. Although the expression ‘scientific English’ refers to two domains,

(English and science) the latter has rarely been the subject of study. Moreover, the focus has always been on teaching and learning contexts. Yet it lacks a didactic approach. The meta-concept of English for science has been forged to overcome these gaps, by crossing boundaries that limit an epistemological approach.

Firstly, scientific boundaries must be set to the territory of English for science in order to become a domain and then a discipline in the long term. The design therefore crosses the limits of English studies and explores new perspectives, taking into account the domain of science from an inter- or multi-disciplinary perspective. This process has an impact on the contributing disciplines and domains. Indeed the impermeable limits of external disciplines (such as the history of science) can be made permeable as transductive relationships (cf. § III. 2) between language, culture, knowledge reveal common ground and modify the identity of individual disciplines. The boundaries between English for science and these domains and disciplines can be envisaged as “frontiers” (cf. *The Frontier*). This implies changes in both the disciplines and domains that participate in the encounter and thus teaching English for science and science in English. Consequently, both English for science and other established disciplines can be thought of outside the state of institutional organization of science and university, based on a particular distribution of legitimate objects of study across disciplines.

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Notes:

ⁱFrench academics have adopted the concept of “langue-culture” that does not separate the linguistic and the cultural aspects of language.

ⁱⁱA concept which encompasses the concept of scientific English.

ⁱⁱⁱFor example articles in 1998 and 2006 in a diachronic perspective.

^{iv}*Sciences du langage*.

^vReferring to the human and social sciences.

^{vi}Or “language sticks its tongue out at science” in reference to Einstein who stuck out his tongue instead of smiling on his 72nd birthday, because he had been smiling for photographers all day.

^{vii}Which can be defined as the (historically incipient) science of knowledge diffusion and acquisition in society.

^{viii}A ‘didactic system’ is defined as the relation to a body of knowledge that is organized in the interaction between a teacher and learners in an institutional context.

^{ix}Edgar Morin advocated “complex thought”referring toPascal whosaid, “I would notknow the partswithout knowing the whole, not to know the wholewithout knowingsspecificallythe parts” (Pascal, 1657,1962,120)

^xThis means that the terms cannot be separated and are to be considered as a whole (Simondon, 1989).

EFL_ Indonesian Students' Attitude toward Writing in English

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Abstract

Writing is a sophisticated language skill since it requires the ability not only to tailor ideas, but also to construct acceptable sentences to create a meaningful, logical, and comprehensible work. As a result, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners have to maximize their efforts to put their thoughts on the paper. This paper is intended to describe the EFL students attitude toward writing. There were 57 students participating in the study. The data was collected by using questionnaire, interview, and documentation of self reflection essay. The result shows that none of the students has low attitude in writing, while fifty eight percent of them has moderate attitude to writing, and the rest of them have positive attitude to writing. The result from the interview also reveals that although the students have moderate attitude to writing, they view writing as difficult, and stressfull. While those who have high attitude, mostly view writing as interesting and challenging. The finding also reveals several efforts the students do to improve their writing skill, among others are practice writing, reading a lot for knowledge and ideas, and using diary writing. The implication of the finding is discussed.

Key words: EFL writing, Writing attitude, Writing efforts

Introduction

A good essay is enjoyable to read. But behind its creation, there is a great effort and a winding process from the writer to make the piece of composition becomes so meaningful. Creating a good piece of composition in the native language is a hard work, let alone in the foreign language like English. In Indonesia where English is learnt as a foreign language, students learn writing because they want to pass the final examination and get good grades. Therefore, whenever the word 'writing assignment' is announced to the students, they mostly show unhappy faces. Writing ability and academic success are closely related. Research has shown that writing can predict academic achievement. Preiss et al. (2013) investigate how writing predicts the university students' subsequent academic grades. Their finding shows that, compared to mathematics skills, writing becomes a significant predictor of university achievement over time. Their research also has shown that there is a relationship between students' writing attitudes and their writing achievement. If the result of this research is correctly interpreted, it implies that better writer has more chances to get better grades.

Unfortunately, most English as a Second Language (ESL) /EFL students have negative attitude to writing. They often view writing, especially in the form of essay composition, is a difficult task. Ismail et. al (2010) find out that most ESL students are apprehensive to writing activity and have negative attitude to academic writing. Usually, the students who perceive writing as difficult, would dislike the activity (Ismail et al.,2012). There were some factors why the students have negative perception toward writing, namely the lack of time to practice in the class and the ineffective writing course guide and resources to write critically (Ismail et al., 2012). Furthermore, Zhu (2001), who investigates ESL graduate students writing difficulties, finds out that the major challenges the ESL students face are the rhetorical and the linguistics aspects during the completion of the writing tasks. Within Indonesian context, the students' dislike to writing are due to the problems they encounter when they perform writing tasks, namely linguistics problems, cognitive problems in relation to paragraph organization and text structure, and psychological problems, such as moods and difficulty to start writing (Rahmatunisa, 2014).

Ideally, students should have positive attitude to writing as it can help them to achieve better writing achievement. Research reveals that there is a relationship between positive attitude and writing skill (Hashemian & Heidari, 2013). The result of the research also shows that the students who have integrative motivation achieved better success in second language (L2) academic writing than those who have instrumental motivation. In addition, Graham et al., (2007) conduct a study on primary grade students to find out their attitude towards writing and their writing achievement. They find out that students who have more positive writing attitudes have better writing achievement than other students who have less favorable writing attitudes. The result of their study suggests that writing attitudes can predict writing achievement. Similarly, Gupta & Woldermariam (2011) also reveal that students with strong motivation perform high level of enjoyment, confidence, perceived ability, and positive attitude toward writing, and use frequent writing strategies. This means that the more motivated the students are, the more writing strategies they would use. They finally concluded that motivation is found to be one of the important trigger in enhancing EFL learners writing skills.

In Indonesia where English is taught as a foreign language, writing teachers mostly focus on how to improve the students' ability toward writing in English through the application of media and variety of teaching techniques. One of the important factor which is often neglected is the students' involvement to writing activities. Students' engagement and interest toward writing are important factors that ESL / EFL teachers should be aware of as these factors lead to successfull writing (Ismail et al., 2010).

So far, there is not much research focusing on Indonesian EFL students' attitude in writing. Much research is dedicated within the context where English is used widely outside the classroom and exposure to the target language is available. Therefore, more research needs be conducted to understand how EFL view writing and identify the possible solutions to the problems that might occur from the students' point of view. Thus, the objectives of the study are a) discovering the level of EFL Indonesian students' attitude toward writing in English, b) discovering the students' attitude toward writing in English, c) describing the students' view of writing in English, and d) discovering their effort to improve their writing skill.

Methodology

The design of the study is descriptive quantitative. The students who participated in the study are the 2014 batch of English Education Study Program of Teachers'College and Education (STKIP) PGRI Pasuruan located in East Java, Indonesia. The instruments used were writing attitude questionnaire developed by Podsen (1997), random interview, and documentation of students' self refelection writing. In the questionnaire of writing attitude, there are five attitude scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*Disagree*), 3 (*Dont't know*), 4 (*Agree*), and 5 (*Strongly agree*)with total of 20 items. Some items in the questionnaire, however, do not show positif direction. Therefore, to analyze the data, some reverse coding were needed. The scores in the questionnaire range from 20 (the lowest) to 100 (the highest). Based on the scores, Podsen (1997) differentiates students' attitude into three levels, low (20 – 39), moderate (40-68), and high (69-100). The result of reliability questionnaire computed by Cronbach Alpha is .737, which means that the questionnaire has high internal consistency. The result of the students' questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively.

Basically, there were 60 students in 2014 batch, but only 57 of them who fill out the writing attitude questionnaire. Some of the students were randonly interviewed to find out their attitude to writing. The students were also asked to write self-reflection essays toward their feeling to writing in English. To analyze the data, simple codification was used.

Finding

The Students' Writing Attitude Level

The result of the students' questionnaire shows that the students' writing attitude level fall in the category of moderate and high based on Podsen (1997) writing attitude questionnaire. High scores indicate positive writing attitude and low apprehension level, and vice versa.

Table 1
Students' writing attitude level

<u>Writing Attitude Level</u>	<u>Attitude Scores</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Low attitude	0	0	0
Moderate attitude	52-68	30	52.63
High Attitude	69-88	27	47.37
Total		57	

Based on the respondents' scores on the adapted writing attitude questionnaires, the students are grouped into two writing attitude levels. It shows that there are 30 students gain writing attitude scores between 50 – 68, while the rest of 27 students score between 69 to 88. This means that 52.63 % of the students has moderate level of writing attitude, while 47.37 % of them belongs to high level of writing attitude group.

So, it can be concluded that the students' writing apprehension level of the students in this college joining the essay writing class was relatively average. This indicates that the students are not apprehensive and sufficiently confident in writing composition using English as a means of communication

The Students' Attitude Toward Writing

Students' Response to Negative Attitude Items to Writing in English

The result shows that the majority of the students (76% SD +D) did not avoid writing in whatever the circumstances were. However, they got uneasy when they knew that their compositions were going to be evaluated (63% SD + D). Interestingly, many of them had a mental block when they started writing as they felt that their mind went blank (42% SD + D). Detailed result of the questionnaire can be seen in table 1.

Table 2.
Negative Items Responded by The Students.

	Stongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Don't Know %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %
(1) I avoid Writing Whenever possible	10	66	15	7	2
(4) I am affraid of Writing when I know it might be evaluated	15	48	12	22	3
(5) My mind seems to go blank when I start writing	9	29	20	30	12
(6) Expressing my ideas to writing is a waste of time	36	25	17	20	2
(11) I am nervous about my writing	5	46	8	36	5
(14) I never seem to be able to write down my ideas clearly	5	30	34	29	2
(15) I am not a good writer	4	10	34	42	10
(19) I don't I write as well as most people	5	17	29	49	0

The result of the questionnaire also shows that the students did not feel that writing is a waste of time (61% SD + D). Moreover, half of them also did not feel nervous about their own writing (51% SD + D). In terms of writing down ideas, more than one third of the students (35% SD + D) did not have problem on putting down ideas on the paper, while the other one third (31% SA + A) felt differently. Unfortunately, half of the students did not have confidence to say that they are good writers (52% SA + A), and did not have the ability to write as most people (49% SA + A)..

Students' Response to Positive Attitude Items to Writing in English

In relation to the positive items in the questionnaires, most of the students' respond shows to positive direction. The items mostly asked about fear, confidence, and enjoyment to writing. In detail, the result of the questionnaire can be seen in table 2.

Table 3.

Positive Items Responded by the Students

	Stongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Don't Know %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %
(2) I have no fear of my writing being evaluated	2	20	14	52	12
(3) I look forward to writing down my ideas	2	8	10	68	12
(7) I would enjoy submitting my writing to megazines for evaluation and publication	3	14	47	29	7
(8) I like to write my ideas down	2	7	9	67	15
(9) I feel confident in my ability to express ideas in writing	4	20	24	49	3
(10) I like to have friends read what I have written	4	20	22	42	12
(12) People seem to enjoy what I write	0	10	76	14	0
(13) I enjoy writing	0	20	17	56	7
(16) I like seeing my thoughts on paper	0	8	17	61	14
(17) Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience	0	8	2	54	36
(18) It is easy for me to write good letters	2	34	34	29	2
(20) Writing is a lot of fun	2	15	20	54	9

The results of the questionnaire shows that the majority of the students had no fear if their compositions were evaluated (62% SA + A). More than two thirds of the students confessed that they looked forward to writing down their ideas (80% SA + A) and liked to writing them down (82% SA + A). Interestingly, almost half of them were not sure if they would enjoy writing for evaluation and publication (47% Neutral), with more than one third of them would not submit their writing for evaluation and publication (36% SA + A). In terms of confidence, only half of

the students who were confidence enough to express their ideas in writing (52% SA + A), while the other half are divided between not confident (24% SD + D) and not sure (24% neutral). Half of the students also liked to share their writing with other friends (54% SA + A). Interestingly, two thirds of the students felt that they were not sure if people enjoyed to read what they have written (76% Neutral), with very few of them were confident enough to say that people enjoyed their writing (14% SA + A). The good news are, more than half of the students enjoyed writing (61% (SA + A), and viewed writing as a fun activity (63% SA + A). Moreover, two thirds of them liked to see their thoughts on the paper (75% SA + A), and almost all of them liked to discuss their writing with others and viewed this as an enjoyable experience (90% SA + A) although more than half of them confessed that writing good letters were not easy (63% SA + A).

The Students' View of Writing in English

The data from the interview reveals interesting findings. It was found out that many students had negative attitude to writing, although some of them viewed writing in English a positive one. When the students were asked to describe their feeling of writing in English, they mostly said "difficult" and "stressful".

Writing in English so difficult, because we do not only focus to our writing, we also focus to our grammar, and the second reason we must master vocabulary to result a good writing and to avoid misunderstanding of meaning by readers. That makes writing in English is so difficult. (Dt1/Imam/Att score 75)

I think writing is so difficult for me. There are many rules. We should have good grammar and have many vocabulary. While I am not good to choose the right word and also I have a problem to choose the topic. My knowledge about grammar and vocabulary are not good. (Dt2/ Lailatul/Att score 60)

I get depressed when I think about writing, I get stressed and I feel that I can't do it. Writing is so stressful, that's the only negative feeling I get sometimes. I was looking for a way to turn this into a positive feeling so I can be more productive. (Dt4/Nafisyah/68)

On the contrary, the students who had positive attitude to writing in English described writing as "interesting", "fun", and "challenging".

Writing is interesting. Because of writing I can express all of my problems. I can add my new vocabulary. I can get new knowledge with writing. (Dt 5/Sumiati/63)

Writing is fun to do when I write my experience or re-write about story or freewriting. I mean when I can write anything without thinking about the topic. But sometimes in writing lesson, my lecturer gives the topic. So, it makes me hard to think and it is wasting time to write. (Dt6/NurKumala/ Att score 53)

It is really challenging because it makes us thinking loudly of what we have to write in the first paragraph. For some people, and of course me, writing in the first paragraph is hard. It makes me so stressful because there is nothing I can do. Although, I love English but for making a good writing is still and always hard for me. I remember, I look up my friends' task when they made the same task like me. They were far better from me. I mean, I don't

know what I have to write. I tried my best but, it is still nothing. There are so much in my head but, it is just a little I have written on the paper. (Dt9/Firza/ Att score 73)

For me writing is fun because from writing I can write anything in my mind. I can share my opinion by my writing and then share my problem to other people. Writing is like a friend for me because a lot of my friends cannot understand me well. So when my friends do not understand about my problem, I always write down my problem in my diary so there is no one can judge my problem. But when I write something I always go to my bedroom and I hope there is no one to look at me.(Dt 10/salim/ Att score 64)

The result from the interview shows that there are two different groups in terms of how the students view writing. The first group belongs to the one who perceive writing as something difficult, and the other group belongs to the one who believe that writing in English is an interesting and fun activity. They, however, admitted that they had problems when they write something. Among others are the topic selection problem, 'don't know what to write problem', and fear of being judged by others.

The Students' Effort to Improve Their Writing Skill

Based on the students' reflection toward writing, it was found out that there were 10 strategies EFL students would do to improve their writing skill. The data are presented in table 4.

Table 4.

The students' Efforts

<u>No</u>	<u>Efforts</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
1.	Diary writing	7	12.3
2.	Practice writing	22	38.7
3.	Letter writing	1	1.7
4.	Read a lot to get knowledge and ideas	15	26.3
5.	Using dictionary to improve vocabulary	3	5.3
6.	Peer feedback for vocabulary and grammar	3	5.3
7.	Thinking positively	3	5.3
8.	Planning before writing	1	1.7
9.	Doing freewriting	1	1.7
10.	Choosing familiar topic	1	1.7

(38.7%). They believed that if they practiced a lot, their writing skill would improve. The second strategy that they used was to read a lot (26.3%). Through reading, they confessed that they would get a lot of vocabulary, grammar, and style that they could transfer ideas into their paper. The third strategy that they would use is to apply diary writing (12.3%). Through diary writing, they said that they were able to pour down their ideas, their daily activities, their feelings, and their emotions by using English without being afraid to be judged by somebody else, since no person would read their diary. Finally the least strategies that the students used are letter writing, planning before writing, doing free writing, and choosing familiar topic.

Discussion

In Indonesian EFL context, it is widely acknowledged that writing is the most complicated skill for most Foreign language learners. Translating ideas into text is a complex one since it involves a wide range of different process which requires high demands on the limited capacity of working memory (Galbraith, 2009). EFL writers, to be specific, need to pay attention to the flow of ideas, how they are related one to another, and whether they are logical and relevant. The students also need to pay attention to the the transition between paragraph, the unity and coherence that make the writing intact, the language, the punctuation, the spelling, and word choice. Therefore, it is not an exaggerating statement to say that writing is a demanding task. Because of high demand in writing, motivation plays an important role to complete the writing task. As for Hidi and Boscolo (2007), writing involves not only cognitive and metacognitive processes, but also involving affective components, such as self regulation and motivation. Further, Pajares and Valiante (2006: 158) believe that the complexity of writing does not lay only in the the thought process underlying the students' composition, but also with the manner in which the students engaged the text. They believe that one effort to understand the complexity is to focus on the students' writing self-belief which become the basis of motivation. This being the case, learners will carry out the writing task well if they believe they can do it.

EFL students in general, especially those who are learning to write or novice writer, view writing as a difficult task. Unlike in the first language (L1) context in which the difficulties might come from the use of strategies of knowledge integration, the creation of uniques combination to form a composition, and the use of the links of the prior knowledge and the new topic (Boscolo & Hidi, 2007), in foreign language (FL) context, the students felt that the difficulties mostly come from grammar and vocabulary. The majority of the students thought that a good writing is seen from a flawless grammar and good choice of vocabulary. The students' difficulties as found in this research are similar to Rahmatunisa's (2014). The result of her research shows that Indonesian students who are learning to write in English put linguistics problems as their first barrier to writing, such as grammatical structure, words formation, words classes, and articles.

EFL students in Indonesian context mostly are not aware that a good writing is actually seen not only from the language, but also from the content that talks about one single idea, and how the ideas are connected in a logical way and meaningful for the reader. Because the students put more emphasize on grammar and vocabulary, they become demotivated to write and put themselves in a high anxiety and apprehensiveness even before they started to write anything. As a result, they have negative attitude to writing.

They who had negative attitude to writing viewed writing as difficult and stressfull and felt that there was little they could do. On the other hand, the students who have postive attitude toward writing perceived writing as something intresting, challengging, and fun because writing help them to express themselves and get more knowledge on certain topic. For them, writing is as a way to share ideas with other people and as a means for self-reflection to express themselves and to solve their personal problems. Although they have positive attitude toward writing, they admitted some difficulties before and during writing. The problems are the topic selected by the writing teacher which is not interesting, how to start the first paragraph, how to generate ideas, and fear of being judged by other people. Interestingly, the students who have positive attitude toward writing, view the difficulties not as obstacles, they perceive them as

something to be solved. This is similar to Boscolo and Hidi's argument (2007) who say that expert writers and novice writers would see the problems they encounter during writing differently. The expert writer would see the problems are things to be solved, while the novice writers would see a problem as an obstacle which make the writing task "dangerous" (p. 3) and not interesting.

The result from questionnaire reveals several findings. Firstly, the majority of the students did not avoid writing activity, but they became anxious when they knew that their writing might be evaluated. The data suggests that the students prefer to write for enjoyment and free of being judged. This negative feeling of fear being evaluated indicates the importance of private writing, a term suggested by Elbow (2000). In his definition, private writing means a process of writing in which the students are free to determine the subject and duration of writing. Celik (2015) explains that private writing improves the students' freedom to write on topics that they like, not topics imposed by others; freedom in composing, and in finishing their writing. As a result, private writing enable the students to grow their self-confidence as they are aware that their writing will not be evaluated by others, and will not suffer from anxiety of being evaluated and criticized.

Secondly, the students have confidence problem when it comes to writing in English. The majority of the students feel that they are not good writers, unable to write as most people do, and not confident enough with their own ability to express themselves in writing. And mostly, they have the fear of being evaluated. Students who received heavy feedback from the teacher might think that he is not good enough to writing in English. This, of course, would make their confidence falls apart. In relation to this, feedback plays an important role in enhancing the students' confidence in writing in English as well as their overall writing performance. If the students are afraid of being evaluated, the writing instructor can apply different types of feedback which are not threatening to students' self confidence. Some feedbacks are highly recommended to be used in ESL/EFL classroom, such as direct feedback (Hamidun, Hashim, & Othman, 2012), selective written feedback (Andersson, 2011), progress feedback (Duijnhouwer, Prins, & Stokking, 2010), and content feedback (Simpson, 2006).

Direct feedback refers to the feedback given whilst the students were in the middle of completing the writing task. The direct feedbacks given in Hamidun et.al (2012) study were in the form of idea development, vocabulary choice, sentence construction, and writing conventions. They claimed that by using direct feedback, the students' motivation can be changed into positive one, so that they were more motivated in completing the writing task despite of their lack of vocabulary and grammar mastery. Other type of feedback which is considered effective is selective feedback (Andersson, 2011). Selective feedback focuses only certain type of grammatical feature. Research also has shown that the use of progress feedback can enhance the students's self-efficacy belief to write in English (Duijnhouwer et al., 2010). Progress feedback is based on intrapersonal comparison in which the student writers compare their previous performance with the current performance by filling a feedback form which contain spaces to tick of which writing aspect has improved. Other type of feedback which is considered favorable by learners are content-based feedback (Simpson, 2006) in which the writing teacher focuses more on content and rhetorical issues of writing assignments. Although feedbacks are helpful to improve the students' overall quality of writing performance, writing teachers need to be aware of the different level of students' proficiency. Tsao (2012) states that

different proficiency level of students need to be treated differently when it comes to error correction.

From the teachers' side, the writing teachers should not put the main focus of the evaluation on the linguistics elements only. If writing is seen as a means of communication, then how the ideas are meaningfully transmitted to the readers should be the main concern. Raimes (1985) suggests instead of focusing on the grammatical accuracy, the teaching of writing should stress on the students' ideas, and how to organize them on the paper. If this being the case, in evaluating the students' composition, the primary concern is to give the students feedback in terms of which part of the essay needs improvement through student-teacher conference

Besides giving appropriate feedback to the students, there are also some strategies that can help the students to have more self-confidence. Maguire (1989) proposes several strategies to elevate the students' confidence in writing. Among others are, to have the students keep a personal journals to record felings, ideas, thoughts, and experiences. The students can write in the journal for five minutes to 10 minutes in which the activity can be done in class or out of class. The journal can also serve as the students' self reflection of their own writing progress. Secondly, the writing teacher needs to structure the instruction in such a way so that the students know what is expected from them. One way to do this is to choose topics within the students' personal experience. The instruction can offer some guides to the students in each of the writing phases so that they would not have the feeling to be left alone for the writing battle. And thirdly, the writing teacher can discuss the writing assignment with the class. This can be done during the pre-writing activity. The writing teacher and students share ideas to approach the topic, such as list the ideas, or brainstorm them.

Thirdly, to solve the students' confidence in expressing ideas in writing, there are two things that students can do. First of all, the students need to be introduced with several ways of planning activities, such as freewriting, outlining, and mapping. These planning activities can help the students to discover, collect, and organizing their ideas. Research has shown that outlining strategies are effective to improve the students ability in writing. In a series of studies, Kellog (1988, 1990, 1999) finds out that pre-task planning—specifically outlining—is effective in improving L1 writing quality hollistically. Other type of planning activity, such as freewriting or rough drafting, is also effective to help students collect their ideas (Galibraith & Torrance, 2004). If the students are already familiar with these techniques, they can select which of these technique works best with their learning style. Secondly, to solve how to start writing problem, the students need to learn how to open their compositions by using hook strategies. There are many hook strategies that students can learn, for example using questions, anecdote, definitions or general background information, description, facts/statistics, and quotations. In relation to the topic selection, the writing teacher can suggest topics that may interest the students, but the topics are still challenging enough for them to write and train their critical thinking. The type of topics that are challenging usually deal with students' personal life and experience.

The good news is, although not all students have high level of writing attitude to writing in English, none of them falls into the category of low attitude in writing. Based on the data, it

can be seen that EFL students who join writing course in STKIP PGRI Pasuruan have moderate and high attitude to writing in English. Interestingly, the students who belong to high attitude group do not automatically have positive attitude to writing. This can be seen from the attitude score gained by the students who viewed writing as positive and were randomly interviewed. Take for example the students' interview of data 5 who scored 63, data 6 who scored 53, data 8 who scored 60, and data 10 who scored 64. These students who possess positive attitude to writing belongs to the moderate level attitude group. Similarly, students who had negative attitude to writing in English, some of them had high level attitude to writing, such as students from data 1 who scored 75. These data, however, has confirmed that most EFL students admitted to have problems in writing although they view the activity as something positive. Both the students who have positive attitude and negative attitude to writing believe that grammar and vocabulary are their major problems to writing in English.

The students offer some efforts to solve their writing problems and to improve their writing skill. Based on their reflection essay of writing in English, they have ten solutions that they usually used. Based on the order of importance, the first three important strategies are to practice writing, to read a lot for knowledge and vocabulary, and to have diary writing. The students who choose these strategies are those who understood the value of reading to improve the quality of their paper. They believe that of they read a lot, they would become more intelligent, and in return, the paper would be qualified in content.

If we start to write something of course we have to read first. From reading we can write down something to make an essay. The ideas we get from reading can give us information and of course it can increase our intelligence. If we want to be a better writer we have to collect and find sources as many as we can. Thus, to get many information, the best way is to read. (Wr/Alfis/21/Att score 88)

We should read many books so that we have the insights or good ideas. I also need to keep reading and studying vocabulary to gradually make my language better. (Wr/Bagus/50/Att score/62)

Have a wide knowledge and good sources are really important to build the strength of the content of our writing. We can make a good writing by having good content and trusted sentences. The easiest way to get them is by writing our own experience or we can search on the internet for trusted sources. One more addition, as a writer one should read as much as one writes. Because writing and reading influence each other. So the more often we read, the smarter we can write because we can get many sources and also extra good diction for our writing at the same time. (wr/Riza/57/ Att score 69)

Reading is, indeed, helps the writer to focus on the ideas so that he/she has something to say on the paper. Mendelman (2007) states that a person who could write critically depends on how he reads critically. She said that the texts that are critically read would help the writer to build analysis and argument. Research also has shown that students who spend more time in reading/writing are more creative than those who do not (Wang, 2010). Reading is also a good way to get input for the target language. Through reading, learners can have language input in terms of vocabulary and spelling (Krashen, 1989) which is very beneficial to writing. Because

of the importance of reading, it is suggested that there is an integration of reading before writing activity which can be done in or out the class.

The second three strategies are to use dictionary to improve vocabulary, to have peer feedback for vocabulary and grammar, and to think positively. Students prefer peer feedback to solve their problems and improve their writing.

When I gave their paper back, I would say "oh, you're good" but, when I had that thought on my mind, I felt like everyone will be do same for me. I tried to show their mistakes as best as I can, but I also realize that it isnot my place to correct their mistake when I lack of English too. (wr/Najah/09/Att score 65)

Research shows that peer feedback helps students feel more confident, relaxed, and inspired with their learning (Lin & Chien, 2009). Finally, the least strategy that they used are to have letter writing, to plan before writing, to do freewriting, and to choose familiar topic during writing task. Particular students prefer these strategies to improve their writing skill.

Conclusion

Helping students writer to achieve their best performance in writing can be done not only from teaching techniques and instructional media, but also from attitude study. Students might have sufficient ability to writing in the foreign language like English, but they may have attitude problems in terms of how they view writing itself. If they have negative attitude toward writing, they might not be able to give their best performance because they are not confidence enough to do it. Based on the finding and discussion, it can be concluded that the Students of English Education Study Program of STKIP PGRI Pasuruan who joined essay writing course had positive attitude toward writing in English although they confessed that they have problems in completing the writing task, such as in linguistics elements (grammar and vocabulary), and psychological elements (the feeling of not confident, and fear of being evaluated).

This research, however, has some limitations. Firstly, as the data gained in this research mostly are descriptive data, the result of this research cannot be used as generalization. Secondly, this research did not investigate the the students' writing attitude and how it relates to their actual writing performance. The information whether the students who had positive attitude to writing gain better writing performance than those who had negative attitude needs further investigation. Furthermore, there is no information provided in terms of the relationship between the students' attitude to writing and their writing performance across different level of English proficiency. Thus, future researchers are suggested to conduct further research in writing attitude study, so that the result can be used to help EFL students writer to maximize their writing performance.

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Are Saudi Girls Motivated to Learn English?

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Abstract

This paper is based on data drawn from Ph.D. research investigating the relationship between language and motivation. It specifically describes the motivating and demotivating factors that influence young female language learners in the Saudi context. This study aims to investigate what factors could motivate female learners of ESL classrooms. Further, the author utilizes sociocultural theory to explore what factors could affect participants' motivation as female Muslim Arabs. She also supports her arguments using data drawn from classroom observations, pupil focus group interviews and one-to-one teacher interviews. The current study involves 132 second-year pupils from a secondary public school in Taif city and three Saudi English language teachers. The findings indicate the impact of various social factors relevant to the Saudi identity, culture and everyday life on girls' ESL learning in the Saudi context. Participants' beliefs and practices of ESL appear to be influenced by certain imaginative views towards their local identities and cultures, their possible selves in the future, and the linguistic communities. In addition, findings regarding autonomy indicate that identity and culture attributes affects teachers' and learners' roles in the classroom and their motivation both inside and outside the classroom. Finally, the study recommends extending the setting of the sample for future study to include more than one city in order to compare cultural and social attributes that impact ESL, as cultures and identities vary from one area to another in Saudi Arabia.

Keywords: Autonomy, beliefs, culture, identity, motivation, second language learning

Background

Historically, Saudi Arabia has occupied a special place in the Islamic world; thus an appreciation of Islamic history and culture is essential for a genuine understanding of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, its Islamic heritage and its leading role in the Arab and Muslim worlds (Education, 2010). Religion may affect education in Saudi Arabia more than the government (Al-Aqeel, 2005) as the Saudi royal family supports the religious movement (Al-Banyan, 1980; Molavi, 2006).

In Saudi Arabia, Arabic is the official language used in everyday transactions and in most educational environments. However, for more than 50 years, English has been the only foreign language taught in public schools, starting from the seventh year to year eleven in secondary school (Al-Mutawa&Kailani, 1989); recently it has been taught during year 6, and from an age as early as kindergarten in most private schools.

According to different studies conducted in Saudi Arabia (Al-Ahaydib, 1986; Al-Aqeel, 2005; Al-Kamookh, 1981; Al-Mulhim, 2001; Al-Mutawa&Kailani, 1989; Al-Qurashi, 1988; Al-Subahi, 1989; Hijailan, 2003; Khafaji, 2004), people seeking training in English as a foreign language (EFL) in the Gulf in general and in Saudi Arabia in particular have what is perceived to be low English language attainment. Al-Ahaydib (1986) stated that English has become more important than ever before, but due to pupils' poor level of educational attainments concerning English, as defined by the government, it has become necessary to review the English language program in the intermediate and secondary stages, in order to identify aspects that need to be improved.

Therefore, many studies looking at English as a second language (ESL) call for more investigation in order to determine the obstacles and the challenges that constrain pupils' learning process and how to overcome difficulties (Al-Abed Haq&Smadi, 1996; Al-Ahaydib, 1986; Al-Kamookh, 1981; Al-Mulhim, 2001; Al-Nujaidi, 2003; Al-Otaibi, 2004; Al-Qurashi, 1988; Anton, 1999; Dornyei, 2005; Elyas, 2008; Freeman & Freeman, 1998; Iter&Guzeller, 2005; Karahan, 2007; J. Lantolf, 2006; Little, 2009; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004; Zaid, 1993). This study focuses on investigating some aspects of female English learners, specifically, their classroom interaction and communication that play a significant role in the development of their language learning from a sociolinguistic perspective. The researcher concentrated on the motivating and demotivating factors that impact pupils' learning and performance.

The proposed study intends to enrich the research of English learning and teaching in Saudi Arabia and fill this gap between cultural differences by observing a number of English lessons in order to explore real English language practices regarding motivation and determine the extent to which these motivating factors can affect pupils' learning process. It also aims to investigate teachers' and learners' attitudes towards English and explore what could discourage them from using English communicatively.

Aims of the study

This study aims to explore what factors could motivate female learners of English in second language classrooms in Taif city, Saudi Arabia.

In order to achieve the aims and desired outcomes, the researcher followed many steps and objectives in relation to classes.

Objectives of the study

- To explore girls' attitudes towards English language and culture.
- To explore teachers' attitudes towards English language and culture.
- To explore the influence of images and future possible selves on motivating ESL learners in the Saudi context.
- To explore social and cultural factors that could motivate or demotivate ESL in the Saudi context.

Literature review

This section reviews the literature relative to the proposed study. It briefly examines language in relation to some sociolinguistic theories related to language learning, motivation and culture.

Motivation in ESL

Much debate surrounds the importance of motivation in language learning, and it has been agreed that motivation is one of the influential factors in ESL. Ellis (1994) states that "SLA research... views motivation as a key factor in L2 learning" (p. 508). McDonough (1986) supports this argument, pointing out that the "motivation of the students is one of the most important factors influencing their success or failure in learning the language" (p. 142). In addition, a lack of motivation could reduce learners' attention and sometimes push them to misbehave, while motivated pupils are likely to concentrate and behave to a certain extent (Spolsky, 1989). Motivated learners tend to work autonomously and accept responsibility for their learning more readily than those who do not enjoy the process (Benson, 2001; Oxford, 2003). Teachers also argue that pupils who are interested in language learning perform better than those who are not motivated.

What is motivation?

Given the complicated nature of motivation that varies according to the dynamic changes in a person's psychology, it is not an easy task to define this phenomenon. Furthermore, the literature on motivation provides no single agreed-upon definition of motivation; but rather the definition varies according to the relevant factors and surroundings. Gardner (2006) argues that "motivation is a very complex phenomenon with many facets... Thus, it is not possible to give a simple definition" (p. 242). In order to define 'motivation' it is important to identify its sources. Harmer (1991) describes motivation as the "internal drive" that pushes somebody to do something. If we think that our goal is worth doing and attractive for us, then we try to reach that goal; this is called 'the action driven by motivation' (p. 3). It has also been explained that learning and motivation are two fundamental components necessary to reach a goal; learning enables us to obtain knowledge, and motivation attracts us to become involved in the learning process (Parsons, Hinson, & Brown, 2001). Other researchers define motivation as a complex task that could be explained through two aspects: the pupils' need to communicate during class and his/her attitude about the language speakers (Lightbown, Spada, Ranta, & Rand, 2006). Some researchers also identify motivation and attitudes as two vital, equivalent factors in the

language-learning process. Karahan (2007) concludes that “positive language attitudes let learners have positive orientation towards learning English” (p. 84).

Categories of motivation

Motivation is categorised by numerous studies (Csikszentmihalyi & Rathunde, 1993; R. Ryan, 1995; R. Ryan & Deci, 2000) according to its sources and goals. It is identified by the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) as two notions: ‘intrinsic’ or ‘extrinsic’ motivation. The term ‘intrinsic’ motivation refers to one’s own self-perceived needs and goals that push him or her to perform an action, while ‘extrinsic’ motivation refers to persuading a person to perform an action to gain an external outcome or to avoid a punishment. It is argued that intrinsic motivation aims to fulfil an innate need; for example, allowing a person to choose to perform an action will increase his or her enthusiasm to do this action (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Kruglanski (1975) also refers to the similar concepts of ‘endogenous-exogenous’ attributions. The term ‘endogenous attributions’ refers to the intrinsic motivational factors such as learning a language to satisfy one’s own need with no other goal, whereas exogenous refers to any external factors that energise a person to do something, such as securing a good job. Moreover, Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996) develop two other similar notions: ‘instrumental’ as a subcategory of extrinsic motivation and ‘integrative’ as a subcategory of intrinsic motivation to avoid punishment in reference to the same goals and outcomes.

A teacher’s role in motivating learners

The role of the teacher in motivating learners has provoked a great deal of debate among language-learning researchers and acknowledged its significance in watering pupils’ learning roots and improving their performance (Dornyei, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Tanaka, 2005). Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) state that teachers have to “whet the students’ appetite” and motivate them to engage in language learning” (p. 114). Gorham and Christophel (1992) conducted a study about which factors could demotivate language learners, using open-ended questions. The results reveal that 79% of the responses were related to the teacher, which accounting for the main if not the only factor in influencing pupils’ motivation. Another study also (Chambers, 1998) investigated the demotivating factors among pupils in a group of schools in Leeds, UK. The study involving 191 pupils and seven teachers and concludes that teachers were a major demotivating factor in the classroom context.

The teacher-learner interaction might also play a fundamental role in creating a stimulating classroom environment (Williams & Burden, 1997). Alison and Halliwell (2002) point out that a teacher’s classroom behaviour could also affect learners’ motivation; thus, teachers should create a class environment of trust and respect with pupils. Oxford (Kramsch, 1998) conducted a study that included 250 American academic institutions to investigate how teachers demotivated their pupils. The study proposes that teachers’ beliefs about the course and the student-teacher relationship have a direct relationship with the demotivation of pupils. It has also been argued that unenthusiastic teachers can also demotivate their learners to do a task (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). Increasing learners’ expectancy for success could also impact their motivation, while reminding pupils of their failures and difficulties in language learning might negatively impact their enthusiasm and performance (Atkinson, Raynor, & Birch, 1974). In response to this theory, teachers should increase pupils’ expectations for success and help them form positive images of themselves as future members of the community connected to the language. Moreover, Bandura (1986, 1997) proposes that what a person believes about his or her

abilities could dramatically impact his or her motivation to perform a particular action than actual capabilities, information, and achievements.

Finally, teachers can motivate pupils by relating the lesson to learners' needs and interests (Dornyei, 2001).

The motivational Self-System and parental encouragement

Many studies stress the impact of parents on their children's self-system and future self-images (Kormos&Csizer, 2008; Taguchi, Magid, &Papi, 2009). Bandura (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, &Pastorelli, 1996) find that parents' beliefs about their children's academic success and failure could affect their children's motivation and beliefs about their academic capabilities. The impact of the social context on language learners' motivation was observed by Lamb (2010) in his study conducted in Indonesia. He argues that urban language learners could create more images of their ideal second language than rural learners could. Moreover, rural learners have shown less interest and were less motivated than pupils from urban societies. Poor ideal second language images could result from a lack of social encouragement, which is sometimes caused by a lack of role models or a conflict between the current social identities and one's possible selves (Oyserman&Fryberg, 2006). Numerous studies stress the importance of parental encouragement in enhancing learners' motivation (Gardner, 1985; Kormos&Csizer, 2008; S. Ryan, 2009; Williams & Burden, 1997). Others also identify role models as the main factor in energising pupils' possible selves and, thus, their motivation.

Motivation and the stereotype of a Muslim woman in the Saudi context

A Muslim female plays a significant role in her society, whether a mother, a wife or a sister. This role is emphasised dramatically in Islam; therefore, a female should be a good example by appearing ideal and pure. This image creates a stereotype of an ideal Muslim woman who should preserve herself. The Saudi educational system also stresses this ideal view of a woman in its general education objectives, which aim "to bring 'a woman' up in a proper Islamic way so as to perform her duty in life, be an ideal and successful housewife and a good mother, ready to do things which suit her nature as teaching, nursing, and medical treatment" (Alireza, 1987, p. 123).

Research suggests that in the Saudi context, a female language learner feels conflicted about protecting her identity as an ideal Muslim Arabic female and being involved in the globalised world through English language learning without being affected by its non-Islamic ideologies. Abu-Ali and Reisen's (1999) study about Muslim girls living in the United States suggest that gender roles can be modified through involvement in multicultural environments, such as a culture that encompasses both Western and Islamic cultures. This conflict between the two civilizations regarding women's lives does not lead to a clash or crisis; however, it is a significant sign of the ability of Muslim females to adapt to different cultures, creating a fascinating hybrid identity. This identity negotiation, whether clash, modification or hybridity, is strong evidence of the relationship between identity and language learning.

The role of Imagined Communities in motivating language learners

A large number of studies argue that imagined communities play a positive role in enhancing language learning (Dagenais, 2003; De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2005; Kanno & Norton, 2003; Murphey, Chen, & Chen, 2005; Norton & Kamal, 2003). In addition, imagination

can energise language learners to achieve their future goals towards which they strive (Simon, 1992). Moreover, promoting learners' imagination as members of higher communities beyond their accessible EFL worlds is crucial to energise their motivation to understand the significant language skills they require to interact with those imagined communities. Vygotsky(1978) also argues that imagination plays a vital role in learners' development. Norton and Kamal (2003) state that imagined communities can direct language learners to achieve what they imagine by influencing their learning trajectories and outcomes and energising their investment in language learning. Moreover, Kanno and Norton(2003) argue that:

On a temporal dimension, the notion of Imagined Communities enables us to relate learners' visions of the future to their prevailing actions and identities. It is a way of affirming that what has not yet happened in the future can be a reason and motivation for what learners do in the present (p. 248).

Therefore, language teachers can play a significant role in transmitting cultural ideologies to their learners and enhancing the construction of their imagined community, and "what kind of adult the students will grow up to be and what communities they will join in the future" (Kanno& Norton, 2003, p. 287). On the other hand, teachers ignoring learners' imagined communities might lead to resistance to language learning (Norton, 2000).

Imagination to provoke a reaction: the Possible Selves

"The self is one of the most actively researched topics in all of psychology" (Baumeister, 1999, p. 1), as it could affect, and be influenced by, a complicated network of factors whether internal or external. "Possible Selves are hypothetical images about one's future, including the ideal selves that we would like to become, such as 'the good parent', 'the successful business person', and 'the loving spouse', as well as the selves that we are afraid of becoming, such as 'the alcoholic', 'the college dropout', and 'the lonely spinster'" (Strahan& Wilson, 2006, p. 3). In addition, "a possible self is to imagine, and the more detailed the possible self, the more available it will be. If a possible self is available, then it will influence one's actual behaviour to attain or avoid that possible self" (Norman &Aron, 2003, p. 501).

The idea of 'possible selves' (Markus &Nurius, 1986) is a theory that links language learners to how they envision themselves in the future. This theory is built on learners' imagination of themselves, what they wish to become and what they are afraid of becoming as members of the imagined communities. Imagined communities inspire learners' vision of possible selves. As Norton (2001) proposes that "a learner's imagined Community invite[s] an imagined identity, and a learner's investment in the target language must be understood within this context" (p. 166). Imagination can also provide teachers with opportunities to provoke learners' reactions towards language learning by imagining their 'possible selves' (Markus &Nurius, 1986) in the future, and what they desire to be or what they are afraid of becoming. "Possible Selves are specific representations of one's self in future states, involving thoughts, images, and senses, and are in many ways the manifestations or personalized carriers, of one's goals and aspirations 'and fears, of course' " (Dornyei, 2005, p. 99). This notion can motivate language learners to create a plan for their future by creating a balance between their goals and fears byimagining possible negative outcomes if they have not achieved their wishes (Markus &Ruvolo, 1989). In this regard, Higgins (1987) develops another theory called 'self-discrepancy' that aims to employ motivation to reduce discrepancy and link a person's current actual self or

selves and his or her possible selves in the future. Moreover Dornyei(2009) argues that ‘Possible Selves’ is a crucial motivator, stating that “if proficiency in the target language is the part and parcel of one’s ideal or ought to self, this will serve as a powerful motivator to learn the language” (p. 4). He further states that “if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the Ideal L2 self is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves” (Dornyei, 2005, p. 105). Moreover, Markus and Nurius argue that future self-images increase a person’s motivation and transfer them from their present self towards the imagined desired selves or away from the feared selves (1986). Norton (2010) argues that for second language acquisition it is crucial to develop the notion of investing to stimulate learners. Moreover, Possible Selves can affect learners’ achievement; Marsh and his colleagues argue that a strong relationship exists between self-concept and academic achievement (Marsh & Craven, 1997; Marsh, Trautwein, Ludtke, Koller, & Baumert, 2005).

Motivation and ‘Possible Selves’ or ‘L2 (second language) Self’

Within the debate of defining the concept of motivation, some identify it as a learner’s requirement to approach a goal (Gardner, 1985). When motivating learners, it is important they have a goal to which to look forward as they learn a second language, such as getting a good job or gaining a high social status. This argument suggests that language learning could be a vehicle by which a learner achieves his or her goals. Dornyei(2005) also suggests a model that considers the essential power that energises language learners as the images of their future selves as successful speakers of that language. This model includes two second language self-aspects: The ideal second language self and ought-to second language self. The first aspect refers to the learner’s ideal and positive future image he or she creates of him- or herself upon becoming a user of that language. The second aspect refers to a language learner’s desire to learn a language to avoid certain negative outcomes (Dornyei, 2005) such as losing a social status or a job.

Although the relationship between motivation and self-future images is strong, it might be affected by other social /cultural and emotional forces, such as fear, hope or even obligation (Higgins, 1987). Dornyei(2009) mentions that possible selves play a vital role if they are “perceived as realistic within the person’s individual circumstances”, and possible selves are effective if they suit a person’s current social identities (p. 9). Furthermore, “a particular possible self may fail to sustain regulatory action because it conflicts with other parts of the self-concept” (Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006, p. 118). Thus the power of the target language culture over the learner’s culture and identity can motivate or demotivate learners depending on how the two cultures are congruent or conflict with each other (Schumann, 1976).

Investment as a motivating factor

To understand the idea of ‘investment’ in language learning, it is important to refer to the concepts of ‘Imagined Communities’ and ‘Possible Selves’ as well as how language learners can make the greatest investment through their possible selves in the future and the imaginative engagement in language communities. These three notions are useful in shedding light on the findings as they affect and are affected by each other. This correlation will be clarified through later data analysis and discussion.

Simon (1992) argues that people struggle to fulfil their expectations; however, these expectations can be enhanced with the help of their imagination. Norton (2001) proposes that Imagined Communities play a crucial role in second language learning through investment in communities

that do not have the boundaries of the classroom. Therefore, Imagined Communities inspire a learner to create an imagined identity and possible selves for the future that facilitate investment in language learning and the struggle to meet these expectations. The research suggests that if language teachers ignore their pupils' imagination, this might lead to resistance to language learning.

To conclude, future-self-images play a crucial role in enhancing language learning. However, this impact can only be effective and positive if the images are congruent with the learner's circumstances and do not conflict with the learner's current social identities.

Practise and use of English in meaningful ways as a motivating factor

It is widely believed that language practise plays a fundamental role in the attainment of language (Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994; Anton, 1999; Ellis & Fotos, 1999; Hall, 1995; Lantolf, 2006; M. Long, 2006; Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Moreover, pupils' negative attitudes towards English could be justified with their belief that English is only a concrete subject rather than a live language. Therefore, a second or foreign language is not only a concrete subject or a group of grammar rules to be studied, but also a dynamic process of communicative competences that allow learners to use language practically as a tool of communication. In addition, it is essential to understand that the main aim of learning grammar rules is to employ those rules communicatively in everyday life (Long, 1981, 1996).

Methodology

This section discusses the research design, methodology, and methods used in the current study. The researcher explains the rationale behind using a case study approach. Moreover, it discusses the research participants. In addition, it includes the procedures of the data collection and research ethics.

Research methodology refers to the study approaches and methods used for data collection, procedures, data analysis and the justification for selecting those approaches and methods. Methodology has been defined from different angles. According to Wellington & Szczerbinski (2007) methodology is "the activity or business of choosing, reflecting upon, evaluating and justifying the methods you use" (p. 33). Frankfort-Nachmias and David Nachmias (2007) refer to methodology as the process concerned with how a researcher analyses data using certain methods in order to theorize or conceptualize a particular phenomenon. Methodology has also been defined as a group of rules and procedures as well as tools that help a researcher evaluate and understand specific knowledge (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

Methodology and methods

According to Silverman (2013), a methodology encompasses the process of studying a certain phenomenon and selecting a case study, tools and methods used for data-gathering and analysis. Meanwhile, 'methods' refers to procedures, tools and techniques utilized for data-collection (Kaplan, 1973) including quantitative and qualitative techniques such as questionnaires, interviews, surveys and case studies. There are no true or false methodologies or methods; however, some can be more or less useful and suitable to the specific research topic (Silverman, 2013).

Case study approach

In order to match the study objectives, the researcher adopted a case study method that involves one secondary school involving ESL pupils and teachers.

A case study can be explained as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2003, p. 13).

The selection of the case study approach is justified as “it provides an opportunity for one aspect of a problem to be studied in some depth within a limited timescale ...” (Bell, 1999, p. 10).

The case study method may allow for multiple sources for data-gathering, such as visits, observations, interviews, discussions and field notes.

The choice of a case study approach is significant and appropriate for the current study, as this approach is suitable for studying complex settings involving social aspects such as culture, gender and religion.

Moreover, in order to answer why and how questions in this study, the case study is the best choice because as Yin (2003) explains “How or why questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context” (p. 1).

Research participants

According to Patton, no defined criteria exist for the size of sampling in qualitative studies (2005); however, this approach relies on small numbers of participants to study a phenomenon in more depth (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2005). The current study sample involved 132 second-year pupils from a secondary public school in Taif city and three Saudi English language teachers. The researcher interviewed thirty pupils, divided into five groups of five to six pupils. The study sample groups met at least half an hour three to seven times throughout a period of four months. The researcher interviewed the five focus groups from 27 March 2012 through 6 May 2012. In addition she interviewed the three English teachers individually once or twice at the end of study according to their availability. The researcher was the only person who had access to these data.

Only females were involved; male schools would be difficult to include due to cultural reasons that do not allow direct contact between males and females.

Methods of data collection

According to Silverman (2013), a methodology encompasses the process of studying a certain phenomenon and selecting a case study, tools and methods used for data-gathering and analysis. ‘Methods’ refers to the procedures, tools and techniques utilized for data collection (Kaplan, 1973), including quantitative and qualitative techniques such as questionnaires, interviews, surveys and case studies. There are no true or false methodologies or methods; however, some can be more or less useful and suitable to the specific research topic (Silverman, 2013). In this research, the researcher used focus group and individual interviews, classroom observation, field notes and multimodal materials. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) explain that:

“Three areas in which mixed methods are superior to single approach designs: Mixed methods research can answer research questions that the other methodologies cannot. Mixed methods research provides better (stronger) inferences. Mixed methods provide the opportunity for presenting a greater diversity of divergent views”(pp. 14-15).

Interviews

Interviews were used because “interviews can reach the parts which other methods cannot reach ... allowing a researcher to investigate and prompt things that we cannot observe like interviewee’s thoughts, values, prejudices, perceptions, views, feelings and perspectives” (Wellington, 2000, p. 71).

Focus group interviews

The use of pupil group interviews was preferred in order to “discover how interpretations were collectively constructed through talk and the interchange between respondents in the group situation” (Morley, 1980, p. 33). This method is useful for reflecting the social realities of a cultural group and relevant to identify pupils’ implicit beliefs and thoughts about their English learning and how it might be affected by certain cultural practices whether inside school or in everyday life (Hughes & DuMont, 2002).

This study focuses on perception and thoughts; therefore interviews were open-ended and empowered participants to speak out and develop their ideas without the restriction of closed, specific questions (Denscombe, 1998). Furthermore, these interviews were semi-structured to allow the researcher to address any new and unexpected points that arose during the interview without losing the main focus, which may occur in unstructured interviews.

The use of pupil focus group interviews was preferred because people are more encouraged to express ideas and opinions in groups versus individually (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Morgan, 1993, 1995; Mouton & Babbie, 2001). Moreover, focus group interviews allow the researcher to observe the discussion and find evidence of differences and similarities in participants’ ideas and thoughts (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Morgan, 1993, 1995; Mouton & Babbie, 2001). In addition, group interviews encourage shy and silent pupils to participate and develop ideas; all participants can interact in a stimulating atmosphere while a researcher observes and compares opinions (Brodbeck, 2002; Pahl-Wostl & Hare, 2004).

These interviews consisted of five focus groups of female second-year pupils from one state secondary school in the western region of Saudi Arabia. Each focus group included six pupils who participated from two to five times. Using six participants in each group was considered a sufficiently large number to encourage participation, especially for shy members, and yet small enough to ensure that the group did not lose focus while allowing each student an opportunity to participate (Morgan, 1993, 1995). According to Denscombe (2007), focus group interviews last longer than one-to-one interviews because multiple opinions and thoughts are involved; they may last 90 minutes to two hours (Denscombe, 2007). During the interviews, pupils talked about the problems they face regarding their English learning and shed light on matters relating to their families’ and other relative’s attitudes towards using English in their everyday life.

The researcher avoided video recording due to the segregated nature of female society in Saudi Arabia; to overcome this restriction, she used an audio recorder to record participants' responses with their permission. She avoided taking notes during the interviews to ensure that the chat was smoother and more natural. The researcher explained the interview questions and discussed them with pupils to facilitate discussion and ensure that participants understood all questions. At the end of each interview, the researcher reviewed and summarised the main points of the discussion for the participants. She asked participants for corrections and additions to their interview answers. Finally, the researcher thanked participants and encouraged them to contact her with further inquiries, opinions, ideas or additional information. The ethical issues regarding interviews are discussed in detail in the section considerations of research ethics.

Pupils involved in the interviews were selected with the help of their teachers as friends, which allowed the researcher to understand deeply when listening to their narration of previous experiences. The researcher involved bolder pupils to encourage and facilitate interaction among the group. During the interviews, discussions were shaped and refined by the group interaction. Pupils encouraged each other and stimulated opinions and views. Moreover, group discussion allowed pupils to access others' views and thoughts and helped them to crystallise their own opinions and understandings.

The researcher conducted pupil focus group interviews informally in the pupils' resources room to break free from the formality of the classroom. This place was suitable and allowed pupils to speak openly without fear of being embarrassed by their peers or teachers. The setting needed to foster friendly interactive conversation. It was easy at the beginning to book this room; however, the researcher later needed to book it one week in advance. The room was comfortable for pupils as it had an informal atmosphere and offered some interesting games, such as billiards, which they played during our interview breaks. Each interview was recorded with the date, time and place. Towards the end of the semester, it was difficult to find time for the interviews since teachers were rushing to finish their curriculum and revise lessons. The researcher conducted two interviews in the school activities room as the resources room had been reserved by one of the math teachers. Re-contacting pupils for further clarification was facilitated by the use of smart phones and audio and text chatting. This interactive innovative method was preferred by most of the study participants as an easy and available way of communication using any smart phone or computer. It also allowed the researcher to speak in a friendly and informal way with the participants without the restrictions of time or place. Furthermore, this method encouraged respondents to provide the researcher with further data even without making a request.

However, gathering pupils to be interviewed was difficult because some pupils signed up for the meeting only to escape instead to the playground. The researcher needed to exert effort and self-control to work with these pupils without making them feel that they were being controlled or pressured.

Teachers' one-to-one interviews

Teachers' interviews were friendly conversations informally arranged according to the availability of the teachers and conducted in the pupils' resources room to allow teachers to speak freely and avoid any fear of being embarrassed by other teachers and school staff. One of the three teachers refused to be interviewed in the resources room and selected the teachers'

room instead. However, it was not easy to interact in the presence of other teachers. In addition, the interview was interrupted many times and the audio recording was poor as a result of ambient noise. However, the data obtained from this interview were rich and valuable as this teacher was open-minded and straightforward in voicing her views. For example, she explained clearly why she feels forced to control pupils' discussion and not allow them to speak freely on most occasions. The researcher interviewed each teacher twice for 30 to 45 minutes. Further explanation of ethical issues is provided later.

Classroom observation

The main aim of observing participants is to allow researchers "to see things that might otherwise be unconsciously missed, to discover things that participants might not freely talk about in interview situations" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000, p. 306). It also allows the researcher to be an inside observer of a phenomenon in its natural context. This helps interpret the language of the culture in light of its context and natural cultural practices. The classroom observation gave the researcher an opportunity to participate in the pupils' culture and provided her with a clear vision of what they referred to during their focus group interviews. For example, the researcher gained a better understanding of pupils' silence during English classes by observing their teacher's practices and responses. This encouraged the researcher to ask further questions during the interviews to find out what cultural factors might affect this phenomenon, whether inside or outside the school environment.

The researcher audio recorded the classroom observations, labelling them with date, time, location, name of group, and name of the teacher. She also took some brief descriptive notes during her observations, which she subsequently expanded. Furthermore, she took into account the distinction between the observation field notes and her own comments. After each observation, the researcher tried to re-organise and elaborate upon these notes in a more detailed description and comments as her information was still fresh. At the end, the researcher wrote her notes in a handy organised way, giving each note a unique title that facilitated returning to them later with more detailed descriptions and analytical comments.

Considerations of research ethics

In any research, ethical issues, including consent, anonymity, confidentiality and protection of participants involved, play a significant role (Cohen, 2007; Fontana & Frey, 2005; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtler, 2006). It is important that participants feel secure that their information will be protected during the whole study process. Transparency is another crucial factor to ensure respondents' integrity and respect. Borg and Gall (1983) state that "the investigator should obtain the individual's consent before gathering data on him" (p. 110).

Therefore, the researcher submitted her ethics forms, research proposal, study aims and significance, study setting and length of study to her department in the university as an essential protocol. After that, she obtained permission (without amendments) to proceed with her study. She considered education and the schools' permission as a second step in conducting her study. She contacted and met with administrators to provide them with a general plan of the research, including an overview of its objectives and benefits. Appropriate anonymised forms are appended.

The researcher met with the school administrators and teachers involved, explaining the process of her study and their participation. She also met with pupils and provided them with an information sheet translated into Arabic giving them an overview of the study and how she would conduct it. She provided a written declaration to the three teachers, all the pupils and the pupils' parents with an information sheet about the study. She secured their agreement to participate in the study and to be audiotaped when interviewed and observed. Furthermore, the researcher informed participants that participating in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time. She arranged meetings with pupils and teachers according to their timetable, preference, and available location. The focus group interview lasted from 45 to 55 minutes. In between each meeting, the researcher gave participants a 10 minute break, as they preferred. She conducted all interviews in Arabic, which was also as participants preferred. She explained every aspect of the study to participants. After each meeting, she listened to each recording and registered her notes regarding any information that needed clarification from participants. She used telephone and online chat for clarifications. In addition, at the beginning of the following meeting, the researcher asked participants to verify the information and requested any additional comments regarding the topics. She tried to finish this process before the start date of the summer holiday, when the participants would become busy. However, some participants continued to send the researcher valuable data that contributed to this research, such as snapshots of their chats with friends and relatives that included some uses of English words.

Furthermore, the researcher informed participants that the data gathered would not be made available to their teachers or anybody not involved in the study. She explained that the study data would remain confidential as defined by the Concise Oxford Dictionary, 'spoken or written in confidence; charged with secrets', while anonymity is defined as 'of unknown name, of unknown authorship'. In the ethics literature, confidentiality is commonly viewed as being akin to the principle of privacy (Gregory, 2003; Oliver, 2010). Furthermore, the researcher informed all participants that the data obtained, including recordings, would only be available to her, the project supervisor and examiners. The data would be destroyed after the completion of the project and would not be used by any other third party. In addition, participants were worried about the use of their real names in the study; therefore, the researcher confirmed that real names and other identifying information of participants and the school would not be used in the study (pseudonyms were used) so as to protect their identities (Denscombe, 2002). She also took into account solutions in case of any withdrawal, such as changing the class groups or even the school, if needed.

Data collection

Data collection took four months, which is a full academic semester, and involved five groups of second-year secondary pupils. The data collection employed different qualitative methods: focus group pupil interviews, individual teacher interviews, and classroom observation. The researcher conducted pupil and teacher interviews in the pupils' resources room, except one meeting held in a teacher's room, as previously discussed.

Discussion

The aim of this paper is to explore pupils' beliefs about ESL and whether certain social factors affect their motivation to learn and use the English language in the context of Saudi Arabia.

During the data collection process, the researcher noticed different factors affecting pupils' learning of English as well as their views and attitudes towards language. These factors seem to have a direct or indirect relationship to pupils' motivation, and hence attitude and performance. Motivation can be identified as an 'internal drive' that encourages a person to do an action (Harmer, 1991). The data obtained suggest that the lack of motivation might lead to restricted language learning or even hatred or rejection of English. This finding is in line with the literature reviewed by the researcher. In this study, the researcher discusses the motivating and demotivating factors that influence young female language learners in the Saudi context. These factors might be of the most relevance to the Saudi cultural and social setting because learners are part of this society and cannot be separated from this context. In this paper, the researcher analyses several factors that motivate or demotivate language learners. This chapter discusses various motivational variables in language learning and teaching:

- Fear of social criticism as a result of the idealised view of a Saudi female, in addition to lack of self-confidence.
- Fear of teachers' reaction.
- Practise and use of English in meaningful ways.
- Pupil belief that language learning is difficult.
- Parental encouragement and awareness of the significance of English.
- The researcher provided examples from her data highlighting the sources and consequences of these motivational variables on the learning of English.



Figure 1: Girls' motivational variables

Fear of social criticism as a result of the idealised view of a Saudi female, in addition to lack of self-confidence

Throughout the data collection, the researcher noticed pupils' and teachers' concerns towards social criticism and judgment in relation to some cultural perspectives espousing the ideal view of a female in Saudi Arabia. The words 'criticism' and 'perfect' also attracted the researcher's attention as being among the most repeated words in the data, which encouraged her to explore their relevance to language learning. Moreover, participants repeatedly referred to those social stereotypes of a female as boring and disappointing. Thus, the researcher provided examples of the impact of social criticism in demotivating language learners and teachers, highlighting the sources of this criticism and how it affects female language learners. This section discusses how this social criticism is strongly related to the idealised image of a Saudi female and how it influences the way she perceives herself as a language learner.

Teacher interviews

The following quotation is a typical example from teachers' interviews explaining how society sometimes demotivates and restricts the learning of English and how these social and cultural practises might pass among generations.

Teacher 'D': Pupils do not like to speak English or choose anything because they have a fear of making mistakes in front of their friends, especially because our culture can be very critical. We are a criticising society and even when I was in the university, I avoid speaking English because I do not want to lose respect in front of my tutor. Our society warns us to be perfect and to do everything correctly and properly. The teacher should be perfect the student should be perfect. This is expected without giving others a chance to try or to learn from their mistakes.

...Our relationship with our pupils is restricted by cultural rules. I am in fear of not following these rules (Teacher interviews: June 2012).

In this quotation, teacher 'D' tried to clarify the main reason behind the social criticism of English language learners and users. She thinks that females' perceptions of themselves as ideal people are a demotivating factor in learning and practising English in the Saudi context. Females' fear of making mistakes and appearing unqualified to others is a nightmare following those learners wherever they go. Teacher 'D' described her personal experience when she was at university as an example to clarify her fear and anxiety about learning English in this critical society. The presence of the word 'warns' in the phrase 'our society warns us to be perfect and to do everything correctly and properly' emphasises the serious struggle of these learners as a result of social restrictions. This pressure forces learners to perceive themselves in light of this stereotypical view of women, which in turn forces them to feign perfection. This idealised view demotivates them to practise English to avoid the risk of making mistakes and losing respect.

Pupil interviews

Pupils also highlighted some of the reasons behind the social criticism of English language users and learners. They explained how this critical environment influences pupils' motivation to learn English. The following pupil interview quotations are examples of the power of society to discourage language learners and restrict their practise and use of English.

Azizah: Our society wants us to be perfect and ideal without make any mistake. They don't know that our mistakes might guide us to success. Our faults and mistakes is not a crime. Criticism is disappointing. We avoid saying even one word to avoid criticism. For me, I prefer to be silent than to be blamed for saying anything whether right or wrong (2-2 S: pupil interviews, April 2012).

Azizah explained how society idealises and criticises her at the same time. She described her disappointment when people around her assume her perfection and idealisation. This pressure forced Azizah to act cautiously to satisfy society, ignoring her right to learn language and benefit from mistakes. This image affected Azizah's language learning by reducing her self-confidence and increasing her fear and anxiety. She justified her preference to keep silent during English classes with her desire to avoid the risk of making mistakes in front of other learners and teachers who are used to seeing her as perfect.

Azizah: Even our society doesn't support us to learn English. It's not easy to speak English everywhere, we need to select a particular time and place to practise English language to avoid people's criticism, they criticise us when we make a mistake. We don't have enough space to practise our English language. Arabs do not accept speaking English with each other (2-2 S: pupil interview, May 2012).

Also, she felt that her use of English was restricted among those 'Arabs' who reject making mistakes or even refute English as a means of communication. She said that this critical atmosphere is disappointing and demotivating to language learners.

Fatimah: We dislike to speak English with our teacher, with some relatives as well, who always criticise and comment with silly things, I feel that I am doing the right thing, but they discourage me to carry on, they do not accept learning and trying, they want you to say everything correctly, frustrating (2-1 S: pupil interview, May 2012).

Fatimah: My mum is a teacher, she helped me subscribing to an English website for learning English, she likes English, and my sisters as well, my mum wishes to see me fluent in English like my sisters. I like to be confident like my mum and sisters. English adds a lot of things to their personality, people's respect, trust, confidence. People think that those who speak English think positively and seriously, do not think of silly things, respect people, know what is going on around them, they are stronger than me because their language is number one in the world, I wish to learn it (2-1 S: pupil interview, April 2012).

Fatimah discussed her frustration with those people who criticise her when she speaks English. Social idealisation of a female in the Saudi context has restricted Fatimah's learning of English by forcing her to act as the ideal woman. Her desire to appear perfect in front of others demotivates her and reduces her enthusiasm to learn English; she wants to avoid the risk of making mistakes. Fatimah's wish to speak English perfectly is justified by her dream to eliminate the social criticism that frustrates her. Although Fatimah seems to struggle to learn English, her imagination has inspired her to invest within this disappointing atmosphere to achieve two goals:

- To gain more social respect when speaking English perfectly without any mistakes.

- To gain more confidence, power and trust as a result of the high status of English in Saudi Arabia, which might provide English language users with more opportunities than those who do not speak it.

These concerns and wishes clarify the impact of this social pressure on English language learners, who find themselves caught between their fear of society and their dream to eliminate this fear to learn English peacefully without any restrictions.

Khadijah: Our society is critical if we make a mistake, we will be remembered with this mistake for a year and people will make fun of us for a long time. Even at home it is very difficult to speak English with my grandmother; I cannot imagine myself saying one English word in front of her (laughing) because she believes that English is the language of non-Muslims. We need to feel confident then we will practice the language (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

Khadijah also discussed the complex status of English in the Saudi context. She identified some demotivating factors that reduce her opportunities to use English. She expressed her desire to free herself of the social criticism in order to feel more confident and motivated to use English. She clarified two main reasons behind the social criticism of her use of English. First, the social idealisation of a female in Saudi Arabia forces her to appear perfect to satisfy the people around her. For example, Khadijah preferred not to use English in order to avoid making mistakes and losing face in front of her relatives who see her as ideal. Second, her grandmother's rejection of English, which is perceived as a way of Westernisation, was another demotivating factor that restricted Khadijah's English learning.

To conclude, idealising a Saudi female could negatively influence her language learning by forcing teachers and pupils to avoid speaking English to escape people's criticism. These cultural pressures obviously affect pupils' and teachers' self-confidence to practise English and influence their attitudes towards language learning. These cultural practises need more attention and investigation, particularly in the Saudi context, where culture plays a fundamental role.

Fear of teachers' reaction

During the classroom observation, the researcher noticed that most pupils were anxious, scared, and silent. Meanwhile, during the interviews, pupils frequently expressed their fear of teachers' reactions and correction, which provoked the researcher's curiosity to determine the sources of teachers' reactions towards pupils' involvement. In this section, the researcher discusses certain teachers' classroom practises that decrease pupils' motivation towards language learning. Moreover, she will introduce some of the pupils' narrations about their fear and anxiety as a result of certain teachers' practises and reactions towards pupils' mistakes or even involvement and participation during class.

Pupil interviews

The following quotations are from pupils' interviews collected over different periods of time during the data collection process; they exemplify the effect of teachers' reactions in demotivating language learners.

Ahlam: I hesitate hundred times before thinking to say anything in the class, teacher 'N' is so nice, but I do not want to be embarrassed in front of her. If I ask the teacher, she will

think that we do not concentrate with her, and she threatens us with losing marks, even if we ask. It is not important to say everything correct, we are learning from our mistakes. We wish to have more peaceful environment to learn English, and we wish to have anybody to speak English with outside the school without any worry (2-1 S: pupil interview, June 2012).

Ahlam is a language learner who struggles to free herself of the restrictions created by language teachers. She wishes to get rid of her fear and learn English in a more peaceful environment. Her teacher's threats and efforts to assign blame force pupils to prefer silence and hide behind each other to avoid the teacher's blame and embarrassment. These demotivating reactions create a scary and stressful atmosphere that makes pupils hesitate a hundred times before speaking one English word or even asking about what they do not understand.

Noorah: I do not like English classes because I cannot ask the teacher if I didn't understand something, I worry about her reactions when I ask about anything. She is not satisfied with my language ability (1-G F: pupil interview, June 2012).

Noorah also clarified the impact of her teacher's reaction in demotivating her language learning. She described her hesitation and anxiety to discuss anything with her teacher. This fear resulted from the teacher's scary reaction that revealed her dissatisfaction with and anger towards pupils' language ability. These negative reactions could reduce learners' motivation, where interest and encouragement play significant roles in the attainment of language.

Khadijah: English classes are boring and stressful. I avoid participating to avoid being corrected and blamed by the teacher. We need to be corrected, but not all the time. We need to be more confident during English classes than in other classes because it is a new language and we need to be more encouraged and motivated as well.

...My friend said that why our education is so useless in comparison to her learning in Turkey. She is so good in English, she tried to ask, but the teacher always stops her and asks her to stop, she feels that this is unfair, and our education is useless (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

Meanwhile, Khadijah mentioned her boredom and stress related to how her teacher corrects pupils' mistakes. She expressed her desire to be corrected by her teacher; however, the teacher's method was to blame rather than correct pupils. These practices could reduce pupils' self-confidence and motivation, which are vital factors in language learning (Alison & Halliwell, 2002; Chang & Cho, 2003; Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). Khadijah's narration about her Turkish friend, who was stopped and prevented from participation by the teacher, highlighted the struggle of those learners. The teacher's reaction to that pupil was an obvious message to other pupils to receive information and keep silent; otherwise, they would be stopped or ignored.

Arwa: We do not understand anything, anything at all, and it is very scary, boring, and difficult to ask the teacher. If we say even one word, we will lose marks. She threatens us with marks and we do not want to lose marks, so, we prefer to stay silent and do not participate because this participation might affect our marks. In addition, I am afraid of making mistakes in front of my teacher because she corrects our mistakes loudly and angrily and deals with us with marks. We cannot learn English and we do not know even simple words.

...At home I feel that I am learning, my brother explains everything to me. I use English words with him, we benefit from each other more than the teacher, I am scared to fail or to make a mistake in the class, I wish to learn from my mistakes, but we do not know how (2-1 S: pupil interview, June 2012).

Arwa described her teacher's scenarios during English classes as boring and scary. She thinks that her learning is useless as it is restricted by her teacher, who ignores pupils' needs and interests. The teacher's way of correcting pupils' mistakes and ignoring their involvement seems threatening and demotivating. These practises also could increase pupils' boredom, passivity and silence. On the other hand, a motivating environment could encourage pupils and increase their self-confidence. Arwa indicated that she is more interested in practising English at home as a result of the motivating environment her brother has created. Her brother's help, understanding and encouragement motivated her to enjoy and learn English without any obstacles. Therefore, addressing pupils' needs, feelings and interests could be of benefit in motivating and promoting their language learning.

Israa: Our teachers think that there should be restrictions between her and pupils.

Rana: Even participating is scary.

Muna: Even if we did not understand, we cannot ask. We are scared to ask her.

Amal: we know her answer (concentrate and you will understand), and if I did not understand, I won't ask her because I want the class to finish.

Muna: we want the class to finish, that's all (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

During pupil interviews, four participants engaged in a conversation, in which they described English classes as scary and boring. Their teacher's reaction to their participation created a frightening atmosphere that demotivated them to ask questions or even say one word. Those learners preferred not to ask questions to make the scary class pass more quickly. The teacher's ignorance of pupils' needs and interests reduced their motivation and desire to learn English, which might have an impact on their attainment of English skills.

Fatimah: The teacher just says the correct answer without explaining, it is blaming rather than correction. If we know the correct answer we do not need to go to school (2-1 S: pupil interview, April 2012).

Fatimah confirmed the same problem by describing her language experience as miserable and terrifying. The teacher's fearful, 'mad' and boring reaction towards pupils' involvement and mistakes created a negative attitude towards English and English classes. Moreover, the teacher's efforts to assign blame force pupils to remain silent and passive during class. Yet when pupils receive positive reactions, they could react positively towards language learning. Pupils' interest in using English outside the classroom was justified with their sense of liberty from the teacher's restrictions, as Fatimah argued.

Jana: I like English in chatting with my friends. When I speak English with them I feel that I'm stylish, it is more interesting. When I speak to my friends in English at home, I feel that I'm not forced by time or place or anything. But in the class I have to speak in front of my teacher, forced by the place and time, which makes me afraid of losing face and making mistakes in front of her. Even if we work in groups we chat in Arabic, not in

English. I avoid speaking English with my teachers, but I feel more comfortable with my friends. My friends help me to be more confident to speak English and promote my confidence (2-2 S: pupil interviews, April 2012).

Jana also provided a clear image of the impact of the negative and positive reactions on pupils' attitudes towards language. She compared her use of English inside and outside school, providing a set of contradicting adjectives. She feels optimistic, happy and free of time and place restrictions when she uses English with her friends. Her demotivating classroom environment resulted in encouraging, helpful and cooperative friends who enable Jana to try to enjoy learning without the fear of criticism. On the other hand, the teacher's reactions towards pupils' mistakes and involvement prevent Jana from practising English during class. Furthermore, the teacher's reactions force pupils to use Arabic during English classes to avoid making mistakes and being blamed by the teacher. This demotivating classroom setting negatively affects pupils' attitudes and restricts their language learning.

Rana: When I become an English teacher, I will make pupils love the lesson. If they like it, they will understand it. Even I want to punish pupils; I will do it in a way that does not make them hate it. I will make everything in the lesson practical because we learn language to use it practically in our everyday life. I will also encourage pupils by giving them gifts, even simple things. I remembered one of my English teachers, who gave me a crystal because I was active that day. I still have the crystal, I still remember that day (2-1 L: pupil interview, June 2012).

In this quotation, Rana's promises for when she becomes an English teacher in the future reveal her serious struggle and the need for change to learn English in a more motivating atmosphere. She promises to improve pupils' language peacefully without worry or fear. She believes that providing pupils with more opportunities to speak and practise without fear could promote their language learning. Rana promised to encourage her pupils with rewards, exemplifying that rewards from her teacher had an impact on her motivation to learn English. The positive impact of Rana's reward is evidence of the role that positive reactions and encouragement play in motivating learners. She believes that her suggestions could create a more motivating classroom that attracts pupils to enjoy learning and love English.

Teacher interviews

The following quotation is from the teachers' interviews and exemplifies how language teachers sometimes demotivate pupils and restrict their language learning.

Teacher 'D': And even if pupils have the opportunities to use language during the class, I think that this will not be that useful. It will be beneficial just for those clever pupils who want to learn, discussing them might inspire me with new and creative ideas, but I need to finish my lesson on time, but not with those tiring pupils, who could not say one correct sentence, I mean low-level pupils (Teacher interview, May 2012).

In this quotation, teacher 'D' acknowledged some of her classroom practises that prevent her learners from discussing and learning. She also acknowledged her refusal to answer pupils' questions during class, justifying her refusal with her desire to save class time. Although she believes that pupils do not speak enough during English classes, she feels that allowing pupils to speak and ask questions might waste her time and not be of benefit to all pupils. These beliefs

influence her teaching and the way she reacts to her pupils' questions. The teacher's discomfort and boredom with pupils' questions and engagement seem demotivating to learners who want to understand and learn as they need and like.

Thus far the researcher provided a number of quotations as typical examples of certain demotivating reactions and practises of teachers. She also provided some of the sources and consequences of these practises on language learning from a learner's perspective. Moreover, the researcher provided recommendations from pupils for creating a more motivating classroom environment free of fear and anxiety.

Practise and use of English in meaningful ways

It is widely believed that language practise plays a fundamental role in the attainment of language (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Anton, 1999; Ellis & Fotos, 1999; Hall, 1995; Lantolf, 2006; Long, 2006; Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). A second or foreign language is not only a concrete subject or a group of grammar rules to be studied, but also a dynamic process of communicative competences that allow learners to use language practically as a tool of communication. In addition, it is essential to understand that the main aim of learning grammar rules is to employ those rules communicatively in everyday life (Long, 1981, 1996).

During the data collection, the researcher noticed that language teachers focus on the traditional teaching methods that centralise the role of the teacher, while pupils' role was restricted and passive or even ignored. Moreover, teachers' and pupils' interviews confirmed the lack of using English communicatively whether inside the classroom or in everyday life. Therefore, pupils' negative attitudes towards English could be justified with their belief that English is only a concrete subject rather than a live language. Furthermore, the data obtained suggested educational and cultural factors in the Saudi context that restrict the use of English. All these obstacles seem to reduce pupils' motivation to practise and use English in meaningful ways or even lead to their resistance to language learning. The following quotations are examples of the impact of certain educational and cultural factors in motivating or demotivating young Saudi female pupils to use English communicatively and in meaningful ways.

Pupil interviews

During the interviews, pupils discussed the influence of educational and cultural practises on motivating or demotivating their use of English interactively as a tool of communication.

Arwa: The teacher just allows us to say easy answers like yes and no, or rearrange a sentence, she does not allow us to say even two or three sentences, just words like kids, we wish to speak friendly with the teacher and our peers. I think no way to learn English at school; we study English to pass, that's all.

... We want conversations to apply these grammar rules we studied, we hate memorising sentences and passages for the exam. We want to study English as a language not as grammar and concrete subject, when I travelled to Dubai, I could not even order a glass of juice in a restaurant, I feel that all the English classes I studied were wasting of time, I could say only several words, shame, I feel that they are not English, I could not catch up what people were saying, embarrassing, so difficult if you want to say something, but you cannot.

...If I will be a teacher, I will be honest with my pupils, let them talk, activate their role, integrate games to motivate them. Let them work in groups as one team, teach them practically, not theoretically. Language is communication in real life (2-1 S: pupil interviews, March 2012).

Arwa explained her struggle as an English language learner in a context where English use is not encouraged either within or outside of school borders. She seemed disappointed and demotivated by her teacher, who restricted her use of English. The teacher's lack of awareness of the importance of using language communicatively meant that pupils were not provided with enough opportunities to practise English, which resulted in their feeling shy about and frustrated with their language ability. Furthermore, the teacher's excessive-focus on grammar rules and memorisation restricted pupils' use of English and allowed them to employ only simple sentences. Arwa's experience in Dubai, where English is used communicatively, opened her mind to think seriously about her English learning. Her lack of communicative language learning prevented her from ordering a glass of juice in a restaurant, which seemed to reduce her motivation to continue learning English. Arwa's wishes at the end of her interview clarified her need as a young Saudi female learner to deal with English as a live language and not as a concrete subject.

Abeer: I do not like English, I always fail, and I cannot learn it. At school they do not help us to use English, they give us several words to memorise before the final exam, and this is the Saudi style of language teachers, no way to speak a word. All English institutions that have non-Saudi teachers are better than schools, they are so understandable; they help us to learn, not say everything and go out like our school teachers.

... I started learning English at summer in an institution, I like it, I felt that I am learning a real language, she gave us a chance to speak, to chat, to interact, to decide and to play.

...I use English at home with my father, in my computer, my phone and TV, but it is just words, the teacher does not teach us how to make full sentences. We do not speak at school, our lessons are so boring and repetitive, we need interesting and enthusiastic teaching method. But no way to learn it as our teachers always say that it is so difficult and we will fail.

...If I becomes an English language teacher, I might change a lot of things, I will change the curriculum, integrate conversations, I will bring a foreigner group of counsellors to create new curriculum, they are more aware of pupil needs, one of my friends was Egyptian, she was better than our English teachers, she was not allowed to ask the teacher because she was better than her, I asked her about how she could speak English fluently and she said that they were using English during the class, she said that their teachers were so flexible and cooperative, they taught them real language and let them apply the curriculum in their everyday life, she said they did not speak one word in Arabic, this way forces pupils to use English (2-1 S: pupil interviews, March 2012).

Abeer's demotivation to learn English resulted from various educational and cultural issues:

1. The classroom's excessive-focus on memorisation and grammar rules, thereby limiting pupils' opportunities to use English communicatively and deactivating pupils' role to speak, discuss and use English interactively.
2. The cultural perception of a female as an ideal person.
3. Teachers' and pupils' belief that English is difficult and cannot be mastered easily.

Abeer's comments clarified that some educational and cultural factors interfered and created dissonance towards language learning. The teacher's resistance to employing more communicative strategies could be justified by her desire to appear ideal and perfect as her community expects, which leads to the perception of language learning as difficult or impossible. Abeer's experience and the Egyptian girl's situation clarified the impact of certain cultural factors on the teaching and learning of English in the Saudi context. The teacher's resistance to engaging fluent language learners justified idealising females and forcing them to act perfectly to satisfy people around them even at the expense of their own benefit or that of other learners. The teacher's fear of appearing unqualified in front of her pupils forced her to keep learners as silent as she could. These restrictions also transcended the classroom and reduced learners' opportunities to use language in meaningful and communicative ways. Although Abeer has more chances than other pupils to use English at home, her lack of communicative competence reduced her motivation to speak English and even affected her attitude to perceive language learning as a complicated task that is impossible.

Abeer's comparison between language learning at school and in private language institutions opened her eyes to the difference between language as a concrete subject and language as a tool of communication. The Egyptian friend's experience also enabled Abeer to distinguish between a 'dead' and a 'live' language. Abeer's realisation of the problematic areas in her language learning encouraged her to promise to engage her future pupils in more motivating, effective and communicative language learning that appreciates their needs to learn English as an authentic language.

Rana: I will relate the lesson to their everyday life. Not as a concrete thing, talking about their life, food, clothes (2-1 L: pupil interview, June 2012).

Amal: We like to use English without restriction, to work in groups, to cooperate, to explain to each other, to practice the language by speaking to each other in English. It gives each pupil a chance to learn and do something instead of just staying silent.

...We could not enjoy our learning of English as a real language. As most parents in Saudi are not educated, they know nothing about English, and they just know that it is difficult (2-1 L: pupil interview, June 2012).

Areej: We study what is in the book and we don't practice English outside school. We need to study a language, not an English subject. We need to live with English and to feel that it is part of our daily life. The teacher cares only about how to finish the curriculum.

...If I become an English teacher, I will integrate only the topics that pupils can benefit from. One of my brothers spent three years in learning English and it was just a waste of his time, then he travelled abroad and got it in only three months, and the difference is he used the language abroad in his everyday life. I spent seven years of my life to learn English without any benefit (2-2 S: pupil interview, May 2012).

Azizah: Because English helps us to communicate with other people. At school it's just learning English as a subject, not as a tool for communicating with people. At school we are not motivated but at home most of my family members are good in English, especially my father. So I feel that English is a language that I can speak naturally without being forced with the idea that it's a subject that I need to study and learn (2-2 S: pupil interview, May 2012).

Rasha: I feel that I'm studying a concrete subject, not a live language. We need to use English to be familiar with it. We need to learn English in an early age. To naturally feel familiar with it, like kids when they learn English they feel that it's a real language, they live with it, use it in their everyday life comfortably.

...Our language learning is out of culture, and we are learning dead and boring language, only grammatical rules.

...If I become an English teacher, I will make language learning interesting and more interactive. Make it more close to pupils' everyday life. I will talk about things outside the educational environment like talking about feminine subjects such as fashion, technology, and hobbies (2-2 S: pupil interview, May 2012).

Areej, Azizah and Rasha also clarified their desire to learn English as a real language that can be used for communication in everyday life. Areej exemplified her argument with her brother's experience; he learned English quickly and easily abroad as a live language. Areej's artificial language learning at school only allowed her to learn words out of context as a result of dealing with language as a subject. Azizah's comparison between her opportunities to speak English at school and at home clarified how learning English communicatively can motivate learners. Azizah argued that speaking English naturally as a language could help pupils live and feel familiar with English, like a child who acquires language naturally without learning grammar or being forced to learn it as a subject. Rasha's promise to provide her future pupils with more motivating and communicative uses of English indicated her need and desire to learn English as a real language.

Amal: Teachers do not like us to speak, to talk, to be involved in the class.

Israa: They do not give us a chance to speak, or to discuss anything.

Rana: There are a lot of restrictions between pupils and teachers. They do not accept our discussion.

Israa: No way.

Amal: Teachers think that our English language won't improve.

Rana: Yes they think we won't improve.

Israa: Our language ability is too low, and if we speak in English she will insult us and say that do you see, you can't say even a word correctly.

Amal: Our current situation is very difficult, and our English is so bad, it won't change, this is the problem. We memorise passages for the exam. We cannot write, just memorising. The teacher gives us some passages and says one of them will be in the exam.

Khadijah: All teachers do not give pupils a chance to discuss or decide. They think that a teacher is a teacher, as they say, and pupils are only receivers.

Rana: Do not talk, do not ask, do not negotiate or select, just stay as a chair.

Amal: They think that this is one of their rights.

Khadijah: They think that a teacher should seem perfect in front of her pupils, and we might embarrass them by saying our opinions or asking questions that she may not know its answer.

Israa: There are bad teachers of other subjects, but English teachers are the worst.

Amal: Our silence is a problem in all subjects, but English class is the worst because we need to speak and talk more during this subject as a language.

Israa: Only yes-no questions, and sometimes she does not give us a chance to say yes. She embarrasses us by ignoring us.

Amal: Just saying 'yes, no, -ing, -s' and when I start asking or saying anything, she said give other pupils a chance to participate (Ss laughing). I remembered only one day that she spoke English outside the class saying 'out' (laughing) 'out' (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

In a conversation among four language learners during the interviews, pupils discussed their struggle to gain more communicative language learning that allows them to participate in discussions and be more fully engaged. The language teacher's resistance to employing communicative teaching strategies was justified with various reasons. The teacher's over-use of the grammar translation method focusing on grammar rules, does not encourage the teacher to employ these rules in meaningful ways and reduces pupil motivation to practise English. In addition, the teacher's sense of herself as an ideal person who should always appear perfect could also justify her resistance to applying a communicative teaching method. The teacher's fear of appearing unqualified if asked a question she could not answer pushed her to resist the communicative teaching method, which promotes speech and discussion. The teacher's ignorance of the need for pupils' discussion and communication left pupils feeling passive and perceiving themselves as silent 'chairs' during class. Moreover, the teacher's resistance to using English communicatively could result from teachers' strong belief that English is difficult and pupils' communicative competence cannot improve. This negative belief could reduce pupils' and teachers' motivation towards language learning, which in turn could restrict their discussion and interaction with each other.

Amal: We do not enjoy English because people criticise us when we speak it, I do not know why, (laughing), they feel that English is the language of the Western culture that sometimes contradicts our culture and religion.

...My brothers also make fun of me when I say words in English because they feel that I am arrogant and ignoring them when I speak some words in English, If I travel abroad, I might learn English in only two weeks because I will speak and break my silence, I will be free from the social criticism (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

Amal explained her struggle to gain more opportunities to use English communicatively. She justified her demotivation towards English learning with the social criticism she experiences

when using English. This criticism results from the social belief that English is a language of the Western culture that might clash with local Islamic ideologies. Moreover, Amal's relatives' perception of English as the language of high-class people was another demotivating factor that forced her not to use English and not to appear to show off or be arrogant, as society might think. All these cultural ideologies influence language learners and reduce their desire to practise English. At the end of Amal's interview, she stated that eliminating these cultural practises in Saudi Arabia could motivate, facilitate and speed language learning.

Eiman: When I have somebody to speak with, for example, I feel so happy to speak English such as my friends, because they all speak English with each other. I have a Chinese friend. Wow, I wish to travel abroad and see her, she helped me love English, but with my relatives I feel disappointed (1-G F: pupil interview, June 2012).

Finally, although Eiman believes that English has become a social demand and sign of prestige in the Saudi context, it is not easy to use English because some cultural and social ideologies perceive using English as a way of showing off. This view towards English is a demotivating factor that decreases pupils' interest in using English. Eiman's experience with her relatives and friends clarified how some cultural factors motivate or demotivate the use of English. Amal's happiness and enthusiasm when using English among her friends resulted from a sense of freedom from all social restrictions that allows her to use English freely with no worries. On the other hand, using English among criticising relatives reduced Amal's motivation and restricted her use of English.

Teacher interviews

The following quotations are from interviews in which teachers discussed their perceptions of their resistance to the use of English in meaningful and communicative ways.

Teacher 'D': I think that English should be just speaking and practising the language, without necessarily always teaching it as a subject. I feel this way is effective because pupils should not learn English only to pass the exam, but to use it in everyday life. Our education in Saudi Arabia is theoretical not practical, so it teaches us to pass exams. While in the Western countries English is taught practically to facilitate communication (Teacher interview, May 2012).

Teacher 'N': We are struggling (very long intonation) in Saudi Arabia with English speaking because pupils learn English as a subject that they only need to memorize, and pupils should practise English in their everyday life (Teacher interview, May 2012).

Teacher 'N' justified her resistance to teach English communicatively with her fear of losing time. Her admiration of her daughter's teacher's communicative teaching method did not encourage her to employ communicative strategies. She believes that the lack of communication during class could be resolved by recommending that pupils use English communicatively at home, ignoring the pupils' limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom.

Teacher 'W': I think that making training courses for parents to learn English is a good idea to motivate parents and motivate pupils as well to learn English. We concentrate on silly things and ignore the important use of English. Pupils should be motivated to employ language.

...Teaching pupils this huge amount of information is difficult and does not allow a teacher to speak and discuss things with pupils.

...There should be English clubs in schools. This would allow pupils an opportunity to practise English and speak without any restrictions. I think that pupils of good ability in English will benefit from these clubs more than low-level pupils. Even classroom discussion depends on a student's ability. There should be discussion if pupils are fluent in English (Teacher interview, June 2012).

In addition, teacher 'W's belief in the utility of using English communicatively has not encouraged her to employ communicative strategies. She justified her hesitation to allow discussion and interaction with her fear of losing time to cover the huge amount of information she must teach. She feels that this problem can be resolved by creating school English clubs to provide pupils with more opportunities to speak English. She also thinks that parents' awareness and motivation play a significant role in motivating children's use of English at home. The teacher's ignorance of her role in motivating pupils' use of English reinforced her resistance to allowing communicative language learning.

These findings provided typical examples of the influence of teachers' and society's resistance to using English communicatively on demotivating and restricting pupils' use of English. Sources and consequences of this resistance have been introduced from learners' and teachers' perspectives in an attempt to deeply explore this phenomenon.

Pupil belief that language learning is difficult

While collecting the data, the researcher noticed a lot of complaining from both pupils and teachers that English is difficult or impossible to learn. This provoked the researcher's curiosity to investigate the sources of this belief and how it could affect pupils' and teachers' reactions towards language. The researcher kept these complaints in her field notes and added questions to her interview to investigate this phenomenon, which helped reveal the relevance of pupils' negative beliefs about language and anxiety. The researcher noticed a relationship between learners' beliefs about English learning and their beliefs about failure and success. In addition, she found that teachers who think that language is difficult have false expectations about pupils' progress, which might affect their reaction towards pupils. The following quotations are examples of the sources and the impact of believing that English learning is difficult on pupils' and teachers' attitudes.

Pupil interviews

These quotations from pupils clarify why some pupils and teachers think that the English language is difficult and how this can influence their reactions towards the language.

Khadijah: We need to feel confident then we will practice the language. Everybody around us say that English is difficult and we will fail, our teacher and even our friends believe that English is something impossible. How can we succeed? How can we speak and practice English with this frustrating environment?

... We cannot learn English, we suffer from lack of encouragement even at home, they just criticise us if we make a mistake, but when we do a good thing, they ignore our effort, we lost hope, and we lost our confidence.

Israa: We do not study English because we believe that we won't succeed. The teacher brought some teaching materials at the beginning of the year, and then she stopped. She says you will fail, so, I won't bring anything for you anymore. She should help us and pay more attention to improve us (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

In this quotation, Khadijah serves as an example of those learners who lost their motivation and confidence to use English as a result of negative beliefs about English. She complains about her teacher and friends who remind her of failure and weakness. In addition, the lack of encouragement and help increased Khadijah's sense of failure and frustration with English. This disappointing atmosphere reduced Khadija's self-confidence, motivation and hope and influenced her attitude towards English learning.

Israa explained that she experienced the same struggle with her teacher, who demotivates pupils through her negative beliefs. The teacher gave up motivating her pupils as she thinks they will not improve. This negative belief towards pupils' progress resulted from her belief in the difficulty of English, which seems not only to influence pupils, but also to affect the teacher's teaching process.

Muna: No way to learn English, it is so difficult

Amal: it is difficult.

Muna: English is difficult and stressful.

Rana: Even if we like it, it is difficult.

Amal: We do not like it because it is so complicated. And I do not like any English teacher (Ps laughing).

Amal: When we start learning English we were so optimistic and we thought that we will succeed, but because our English teachers forced us to feel with fail, we become so frustrated, I was so ambitious from my childhood, I was called the health minister, it was a wish, but because of this negative belief, I do not think I can succeed. Teacher say we will fail, then we passed without being able to say one correct sentence and we cannot improve, I passed all the previous years without even know some English letters.

...I tried to learn English, but I could not because I feel that I cannot do it, and my family do not help me or encourage me to speak English, they are not aware of its importance and benefit, and I will pass at the end of the year (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

Three pupils engaged in a conversation about their feelings towards language learning. These learners think that English learning is not easy and that there is no way to learn the language. They lost their motivation and desire to learn English as a result of their belief that English is complicated or impossible.

Believing that English is difficult also affected Amal's optimism and hope to learn English and achieve her expectations. Amal started learning English with high motivation and hope, seeing herself as the future Minister of Health; however, this hope was lost as a result of her teacher's negative belief about English. The teacher's belief was transferred to pupils, killing their ambition and motivation towards English. In addition, Amal's family's ignorance of her education and language learning negatively impacted her attitude towards English. Amal feels

that the lack of encouragement and negative beliefs can influence pupils' attitudes towards language learning by increasing their anxiety and fear of failure, which can also influence their performance.

Hanoof: It's very difficult to learn English. I have a strong belief that I cannot learn English. I started learning English four years ago, and I could not say one correct sentence. I wish to speak English, and I am so curious to discover that world, I really need it (1-G S: pupil interview, 19/5/2012).

Fatimah: I do not have enough words to speak English, my mum keeps pushing me, but English is so difficult, our teacher says that she is an English teacher and found it difficult, what about me? It is not that easy as my sisters say. I do not like to study it (2-1 S: pupil interview, May 2012).

Although these learners received some sort of encouragement, they lost their enthusiasm and hope as they feel that English learning is not easy. Although, one of the pupils was encouraged by the idea of discovering the world through learning English, her curiosity and wish waned due to her strong belief that she cannot learn English.

Fatimah's comment 'I do not like it (English)' clarified the impact of negative beliefs on demotivating her and influencing her attitude towards English. The encouragement of Fatimah's mother failed to motivate her daughter to study English; her confidence dropped and she was influenced by her sisters' negative beliefs towards English. Moreover, Fatimah's teacher's belief that English is difficult was passed to pupils and impacted their reactions towards English.

To conclude, negative beliefs towards language can be a demotivating factor that reduces learners' enthusiasm and hope to succeed. They can also negatively affect teachers' reactions towards pupils' progress, which in turn might demotivate those teachers to achieve their curriculum objectives. In addition, believing that English is difficult might increase learners' and teachers' anxiety and feelings of frustration and failure, which could also negatively affect their motivation and attitudes towards English. Therefore, language teachers and parents should be cautious in displaying their beliefs towards language as these beliefs can become demotivating or motivating factors for language learners.

Parental encouragement and awareness of the significance of English

In the field of foreign and second language learning, home environment plays a fundamental role in motivating learners (Gardner, 1985; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; S. Ryan, 2009; Williams & Burden, 1997). Parents' help, encouragement, and positive attitudes that value language can also motivate children and facilitate their learning. In contrast, parents who are passive in encouraging their children or show negative attitudes towards language can reduce their children's motivation.

In this paper, the researcher refers to the impact of parental encouragement and help on pupils' language learning, clarifying the sources of this encouragement. She also discusses the situation of those learners who struggle to gain more parental encouragement, explaining the consequences of this lack of encouragement. In this section, the researcher examines variables that affect parents' attitudes towards their children's language learning, such as fear of Western culture, lack of awareness that English is important and lack of education.

The following quotations help analyse those variables influencing parents' willingness or unwillingness to support their children's language learning; they reveal the sources of parents' reactions and their impact on pupils' motivation in relation to the study context.

Pupil interviews

The following quotations are from pupil interviews collected over different periods of time; they exemplify how and why parents motivate or demotivate their children's language learning. They also discuss the impact of certain practices of some parents that can motivate or demotivate children to learn English.

Amal: I tried to learn English but I could not because I feel that I cannot do it, and my family do not help me or encourage me to speak English, they are not aware of its importance and benefit, and I will pass at the end of the year, but with nothing as any student in Saudi, look at second pupils, they are better than us, they can speak and understand English because they enjoy their learning by the help of their parents. Second parents are aware of the importance of English, so they encourage their children to learn, while most parents in Saudi are not educated, therefore, they know nothing about English, they just know that it is difficult.

... My parents do not want me to learn English (laughing), they feel that Westerners are wrong, and English is the language of Westerners because they look at the bad side of the Western culture that contradicts with our culture and religion (2-1 L: pupil interview, June 2012).

This quotation indicates, Amal explained her struggle to gain more parental encouragement to learn English, justifying her lack of encouragement and help at home with various factors, such as lack of education, lack of awareness and fear of Western culture. Her parents' lack of awareness of the significance of English resulted from their lack of education, which blocked Amal from opportunities for encouragement and support. Moreover, their fear of Western ideologies has also increased their anxiety towards English and created a demotivating language environment at home for their children. For example, her mother's negative view of English and its culture negatively affected her attitudes towards language learning, which in turn resulted in resistance towards her daughter's English learning. Amal's story with her mother, who perceives speaking English as improper, exemplifies the resistance of some Muslim parents towards their children's English learning as they are anxious about its impact on their Islamic ideologies. The comparison Amal provided between Saudi and foreign parents clarified her awareness of the role parents play in motivating and supporting their children's language learning. It also expressed learners' serious need for their parents' encouragement and motivation to learn language without fear or boredom.

Muna: Parents do not support our language learning, they feel that English is dangerous, we lost hope. They are not aware that we need English. We need English everywhere in using the computer and the internet, in hospitals in schools and universities. I remembered when I want to buy a bag, its name was in English, I could not buy it because I did not know its name, it was in Saudi, English is important, everything depends on English (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

Khadijah: We need to make people around us know the importance of English and how to use it in a way that does not harm our life and culture (2-1 L: Pupil interview, June 2012).

Muna justified her lack of encouragement at home with the same reasons that Amal provided. She described how the lack of parental help can negatively affect children's motivation to learn language. Muna lost her hope and interest to learn English because she did not receive enough encouragement at home because her Muslim family is scared of English. This fear influenced Muna and increased her worries regarding English. Muna's bag story clarifies the serious need for English in the Saudi context; however, it also exemplifies the struggle to learn English in a demotivating environment.

Meanwhile, Khadijah's lack of motivation was justified with her parents' negative practises at home as her parents perceive English as harmful and unimportant. The pupil's lack of confidence, hope and enthusiasm was due to family ignorance, criticism and a lack of help. This demotivating and criticising atmosphere could influence learners' attitudes towards English and reduce their motivation and self-confidence where positive beliefs play a significant role in promoting language learning.

Amirah: my mum does not mind if I fail, she says if you succeed, it is for you, and if you do not pass, you will only harm yourself. No way to convince my parents to love English. I asked my mum one day to go to my friend to teach me English, she agreed, but I could not go because I am so frustrated do not like studying English (2-2 S: pupil interview, April 2012).

As parents' negative beliefs towards English might influence children's attitudes, ignorance can also play a role in demotivating children's language learning. Amirah's experience with her parents, who do not like English, exemplifies those Saudi parents who demotivate language learning through their ignorance and carelessness towards their children's learning. Although Amirah's mother agreed to let her daughter study English with her friend, the lack of parental encouragement forced Amirah to reject this opportunity as she felt bored and frustrated. Amirah's mother did not resist language learning, but her ignorance and lack of awareness reduced Amirah's interest and hope to learn English.

Yet the home environment could be a motivating factor that facilitates language learning by providing learners with sufficient help and encouragement.

Azizah: Most parents in Saudi are not educated and know nothing about English. They do not support their kids because they are not aware of the importance of English learning. Some pupils do not have even friends to practice their language with.

...My mum is a teacher, she helped me subscribe to an English course during summer, she likes English, and my sisters as well, and my mum wishes to see me fluent in English like my sisters (2-2 S: pupil interviews, April 2012).

As this quotation demonstrate, Azizah emphasised the importance of family encouragement in motivating language learners by comparing her motivating environment at home with those who suffer from a lack of motivation and encouragement. Parents' positive beliefs towards language can encourage children to learn English. Azizah's educated, respected

and self-confident mother and sisters encouraged her to perceive English positively to become like them. These positive beliefs about English motivated Azizah by imagining her possible selves in the future as more respected, educated and self-confident. Therefore, family encouragement and positive views towards language and its speakers can motivate children by increasing their hope and inspiring their possible selves in the future.

Amal: Another thing. We need our families to communicate more with the school. We suffer from this gap between school and home. Our families do not know anything about our education, even if the school arranges a parent meeting. It is silly, not practical. They do not give our mums practical tips for helping us. They do not make them aware of the importance of our learning. My mum does not care if I fail because English is not important to her. How do you want me to speak English at home in this environment? (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

Hanoof: It is important to help people be aware of the importance of English, especially parents. I will help my children in the future doing their homework and give them a chance to practise the language like watching English television channels (1-G S: pupil interview, June 2012).

Some pupils expressed their lack of support at home positively and provided some recommendations for resolving their problems. Amal's struggle with her demotivating family pushed her to think positively and find effective solutions to learn English in a more encouraging environment. These recommendations clarified pupils' awareness of the role a family plays in enhancing children's language learning. Amal thinks that a lack of parental encouragement and support can be resolved by enhancing communication between school and home. She thinks that this strategy can help pupils by making parents more aware of their children's education.

Teacher interviews

The following quotations are from teacher interviews discussing how and why some families demotivate their children's language learning and how this can be resolved from the teachers' perspective.

Teacher 'D': Our culture is not aware of the importance of English, Saudi parents are not aware even of the importance of education. They do not ask their children about what they have learned in school, while, second kids are better than Saudis in English as their families are more aware and value English.

... Sometimes a student likes to learn English, but she feels that she doesn't have enough support at home. Even talented pupils do not receive enough support in our society, and I cannot help those pupils because I do not want them to be better than me (Teacher interview, May 2012).

Teacher 'N': I think that pupils of second parents have more chances to practice English and are more aware of the importance of language than those of Saudi parents. I usually ask pupils if they speak English at home and I notice that most of the pupils who raised their hands are of second parents, and also because some Saudi parents are not well educated (Teacher interview, May 2012).

The above two quotations are examples of pupils who struggle to gain enough encouragement, whether at home or at school. Teacher 'D' explained the consequences of parents' lack of education and awareness on children's language learning. Teacher 'D' thinks that it is not only language learners who are not supported in the Saudi context, but even talented pupils do not receive sufficient encouragement. Although, the teacher believes in the role that encouragement plays in supporting language learners, she expressed her unwillingness to help pupils as she does not want them to become more skilled than she is. This negative attitude towards pupils' success can also be a demotivating and disappointing factor for pupils. These demotivating atmospheres might negatively affect language learners and reduce their motivation to learn English.

Both teacher 'D' and teacher 'N' think that the home can promote and facilitate language learning by providing pupils with more support, encouragement and opportunities to practise English. Teachers' comparison between Saudi and foreign parents emphasises the role a family plays in motivating and demotivating language learning.

Teacher 'N': Speaking English in all the Arabian Gulf countries is better than in Saudi, I don't know why it is better in Kuwait, in Emirate, in Qatar, and in Egypt. This is even the case if they are uneducated. Maybe this is because people in Saudi Arabia have more fear about losing their religion than in other countries. Rejecting the teaching of English from primary school is good evidence of this. Many people refuse to allow their kids to speak English and criticize parents who do allow their kids to speak in English (Teacher interview, May 2012).

In this quotation, teacher 'N' justified why foreign parents encourage their children's language learning more than Saudis as those parents are more educated and aware of the benefit of English. She also thinks that the resistance of some Saudi families to language learning can be explained by their lack of education and the Saudi culture that still fears English and Western culture more than other countries. This resistance could also result from a fear of social criticism in a society where English is not valued, but is perceived as dangerous and harmful to the Islamic identity.

Teacher 'W': I think that making training courses for parents to learn English is a good idea to motivate parents and motivate pupils as well to learn English. We concentrate on silly things and ignore the important use of English. Pupils should be motivated to employ language.

...Teaching pupils this huge amount of information is difficult and does not allow a teacher to speak and discuss things with pupils.

...There should be English clubs in schools. This would allow pupils an opportunity to practise English and speak without any restrictions. I think that pupils of good ability in English will benefit from these clubs more than low-level pupils. Even classroom discussion depends on a student's ability. There should be discussion if pupils are fluent in English (Teacher interview, June 2012).

Finally, teacher 'W' recommended that language teachers resolve the lack of home encouragement by providing families with opportunities to learn English as a way to motivate

them and increase their awareness of the importance of English. This could also further reduce parents' fear and anxiety towards English, which might positively affect their children's learning.

The above quotations represent typical examples of the importance of the home as a motivational factor in language learning, providing the sources, the consequences of certain parental practises towards language learning and how these practises can be resolved if negative.

To conclude, the researcher discussed social factors that have a direct or indirect relationship with motivating young female language learners in the Saudi context. Some factors are relevant to teachers' reactions and classroom practices. Others are relevant to social criticism and opportunities to practice English. Furthermore, some beliefs towards language learning seem to affect pupils' motivation, such as perceiving English as a difficult task. Finally, parental encouragement and awareness of the significance of English can also influence learners' motivation to learn English. The outcomes indicate that fostering pupils' motivation can enhance and facilitate English learning, while a lack of motivation can restrict language learning.

This study investigates the impact of social and cultural factors in the creation of an interactive and dialogic ESL setting in Saudi girls' schools. The current study aims to explore how girls and teachers account for their attitudes and assumptions and what their practices in ESL usage show about their attitudes and assumptions regarding the English language and culture.

Conclusion

This paper has explored pupils' beliefs about ESL and whether certain social factors impact their motivation to learn and use the English language in the context of Saudi Arabia.

During the classroom observations, the researcher noticed that most pupils seemed bored, they were silent and inattentive. This apparent lack of motivation is supported by the definition of Lightbown et al. (2006) who identified motivation and asserted learners' need to communicate during class. They sometimes demonstrate a preference to sleep or leave the room, pretending that they were sick or going to the toilet to escape the boring atmosphere. These practices suggest their lack of motivation and interest. These findings are similar to the results of other research (Spolsky, 1989) arguing that a lack of motivation could affect pupils' attention and lead to misbehaviour. Pupils' narrations also suggest various factors beyond their lack of interest in the English learning. The findings suggest four factors that affect girls' motivation in the Saudi context, which also impact girls' attitudes and assumptions about English language and culture as follows:

- Fear of social criticism as a result of lack of confidence and the idealised view of a Saudi female.
- Fear of teachers' reaction.
- Lack of opportunities to practise and use English in meaningful ways; and
- Lack of parental encouragement and awareness of the significance of English.

The findings reveal the pupils' claim that they hate English because of their fear of using it in their society, which does not value English learning. Pupils also think that their lack of interest in English learning resulted from their fear of making mistakes and appearing unqualified in

English, which reduces their self-confidence and increases their anxiety and disappointment with English.

The findings also appear to indicate the teacher's role as a motivating variable in language learning. These findings are similar to those of other research empowering the teacher's influence in motivating learners and improving their performance (Arai, 2004; Dornyei, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Falout& Maruyama, 2004; Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Kojima, 2004; Tanaka, 2005; Tsuchiya, 2006). The findings also align with other research outcomes (Chambers, 1999; Dornyei&Ushioda, 2011; Hirvonen, 2010) identifying the teachers' role as one of the major demotivating factors in the classroom.

In addition, the findings suggest that pupils think that teachers' reactions are threatening, demotivating, scary, and stressful and might lead them to prefer silence or passiveness as well as hide behind their peers to avoid teacher blame and embarrassment. These findings reiterate Alison's and Halliwell's (2002) findings, which state that some teachers' classroom behaviours could affect pupils' motivation; they also seem to indicate the difficulties teachers have with the status of English in the Saudi context. On the other hand, pupils think that positive teacher reactions towards pupils could increase learners' self-confidence and enthusiasm to learn English. These findings align with Oxford's (2003) study emphasising the significance of the student-teacher relationship in demotivating pupils. Moreover, this emphasises the complex status of English in Saudi Arabia that resulted from different educational and social factors.

Pupils' narrations indicated that the lack of opportunities to use English communicatively, whether inside the classroom or in everyday life, was demotivating. These findings are similar to those of Williams and Burden (1997), who argued that the teacher dialogue and interaction with pupils is crucial in stimulating them. Pupils expressed that the teacher's overemphasis on grammar rules and memorisation was a demotivating factor in ESL. Pupils also seemed disappointed and demotivated by teachers' ignorance of the importance of their roles and use of language during class. These findings align with the study by Chang and Cho (2003), who emphasised the impact of deactivation of learners' role in the teaching process on reducing their motivation. Furthermore, pupils believe that teachers avoid communication with pupils during the class to avoid making mistakes and appearing unqualified before them.

Pupils often express beliefs that parental encouragement and positive attitudes toward language could motivate them and facilitate their learning. These findings support other research (Gardner, 1985; Kormos&Csizer, 2008; S. Ryan, 2009; Williams & Burden, 1997) stressing the influence of parental encouragement in increasing learners' motivation. These findings also indicate that the lack of parental encouragement and help could reduce pupils' motivation and self-confidence and could negatively influence their attitudes towards English learning. These results reiterate other research (Kormos&Csizer, 2008; Taguchi et al., 2009) highlighting the influence of parents on children's self-esteem and future self-images. Such findings indicate that pupils do not prefer to use English because they do not receive enough parental encouragement and support. Pupils have suggested that parents' fear of the ideologies connected to the English language and lack of education are some of the factors that discourage parents from supporting their children's language learning.

The findings appear to indicate that negative perceptions towards English, such as perceiving it as a way of showing off or as a complicated task could demotivate language learners. These findings are supported by Karahan , who state that “positive language attitudes let learners have positive orientation towards learning English” (2007, p. 84). They also align with Oxford’s study (Kramsch, 1998), emphasising the role of teachers’ beliefs about the course in demotivating learners. The findings appear to indicate that perceiving English as a difficult task is an obstacle to learning English and could impact pupils’ optimism and hope to use English to achieve their expectations. Furthermore, believing that English learning is difficult can increase pupils’ anxiety and fear of failure, which can also influence their performance. These findings reiterate Ellis’s (1994) and McDonough’s (1986) arguments that motivation is a key factor in language learning and one of the most significant factors in pupils’ success or failure in language learning. These findings also support other research (Bandura, 1986; Chang & Cho, 2003; Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011) found that negative beliefs toward language learning and towards one’s self-capabilities could reduce pupils’ enthusiasm. In addition, these findings are similar to previous research (Arai, 2004; Atkinson et al., 1974; Bandura et al., 1996; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Kojima, 2004; Tsuchiya, 2006), arguing that beliefs about success and failure could also influence pupils’ motivation while reminding learners of failures and difficulties in language learning could reduce their enthusiasm and negatively impact their performance. Moreover, these findings align with Lamb’s (2010) research that emphasise the impact of ideal self-images in motivating language learners.

Moreover, the findings suggest that teachers believe that motivation is one of the most important factors in language learning; however, their practices suggest the opposite. These findings are similar to other research (Chambers, 1999; Dornyei, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Tanaka, 2005) highlighting the role of the teacher in energising learners’ motivation. One of the teachers explained that motivation is significant in language learning; however, she appeared to demotivate pupils with her belief that not allowing them to talk, discuss, and ask questions empowers the teachers’s role, ability, and authority and saves time in class. These findings reveal that certain teachers’ practices demotivated pupils, which supports findings from previous research (Alison & Halliwell, 2002; Williams & Burden, 1997) stressing the importance of teacher-learner interaction in motivating learners. Another teacher expressed her desire to motivate learners; however, she restricted motivation when she claimed that only clever and creative pupils could be motivated to use English communicatively. These findings align with those of Oxford (1998) that empower the role of teachers’ beliefs and the student-teacher relationship in motivating pupils.

The teachers suggested many variables that might impact ESL learning and pupils’ attitudes and assumptions about the English language and culture. They expressed the belief that pupils’ and teachers’ fear of making mistakes in front of each other and their desire to appear perfect are demotivating factors in using English in the context of Saudi Arabia. One of the teachers also asserted that pupils’ negative perceptions of success area demotivating factor in ESL learning. Moreover, the teachers appeared to empower the parents’ role in motivating children and argued that parents’ beliefs about the English language and culture, such as perceiving it as a threat to the Islamic identity, are demotivating factors in language learning. These findings reiterate Bandura’s (1997) findings, which stress the importance of a person’s beliefs about his or her abilities in motivating her/him to perform an action.

To conclude, the outcomes indicate the impact of various social factors relevant to the Saudi identity, culture and everyday life on girls' ESL learning in the Saudi context. The study findings seem to be interrelated and merge with each other in a way that enriches the data and suggests various interpretations. Girls' and teachers' beliefs and practices of ESL appear to be influenced by certain imaginative views towards their local identities and cultures, their possible selves in the future, and the linguistic communities. Participants' narrations and practices indicate the effect of the Saudi and Islamic culture in identity construction on ESL learners in the Saudi context. On the other hand, the Saudi and Islamic cultures affected females' identity creation and influence the way females perceive themselves and the people around them. This interrelationship among ESL, identity and culture suggests the complex circumstances of those ESL pupils and the complicated social network in which they live. In addition, findings regarding autonomy indicate that identity and cultural attributes have an impact on teachers' and learners' roles in the classroom. Moreover, these social attributes can affect learners' motivation not only inside, but also outside the classroom, such as at home or within friends' and relatives' networks.

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The Religious Crisis and the Spiritual Journey in T.S. Eliot's *The Waste Land*

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Abstract

In T.S. Eliot's "The Waste Land", there is a quest for psychological and spiritual unity, which is vindicated in the poem's pattern of a spiritual journey. Reading the poem as such provides the reader with a tie that brings together its fragments, albeit being said to be formless. As the paper shows, the ultimate panacea to the psychotic's problems is believed to hinge on religion. Such a remedy makes possible the unity of the modern man's fragmented self in an age marked by spiritual sterility and sexual promiscuity. Therefore, religion emerges as the fructifying power that can restore fertility to the spiritual aridity of modern civilization. Despite his theory of impersonality, the poem also addresses Eliot's religious questioning and quest.

Key words: Organic unity, spiritual crisis, spiritual journey, The Waste Land, T.S. Eliot

Introduction

With the advent of the modern age, the spiritual life of the West has withered and the individual has experienced the death of the spirit, to the extent that s/he has become stripped of spiritual values. Besides, the absence of religion renders the modern world a waste land, cursed by its creator, and full of dispirited and lifeless beings. In the midst of such a waste land, the core of the individual erodes with personal suffering and decadence. In the absence of religion, in the modern times, desire becomes the engine which directs the individual's life. Sexual promiscuity makes the modern man sink into a spiritual desert; hence, he becomes in a constant search for a spiritual home. The latter is found in religion which is the only means that can restore the modern man's psychological equilibrium. Thus, Eliot's *The Waste Land*, which depicts emotional carnality and spiritual sterility, is a spiritual peregrination in search for purgation and salvation. In fact, the formlessness of the poem is concomitant with the fragmented psychological make-up of the individual. So, reading it as a spiritual pilgrimage gives the poem a unified structure despite the fact that it is read by critics as a kaleidoscopic piece of disconnected ideas.

Desire and the Religious Crisis

If the Cartesian axiom is "I think therefore I am", then Freudian one is "I feel therefore I am". In other words, what makes the essence of man for Sigmund Freud is desire, as is evident in the poem. Characters in "The Waste Land" have carnal desires and crave hearts. This is evident in the speaker's confession: "What have we given?/My friend, blood shaking my heart/The awful daring of a moment's surrender/Which an age of prudence can never retract/By this, and this only, we have existed" (Eliot, 1968, p.42). The lines imply that emotions and desires are at the core of the individual, but the wastelanders cannot control their fleshy instincts. Thus, the sensual triumphs over the spiritual. Sexuality, in *The Waste Land*, becomes a matter of illicit relationships and stultifying sentimentalism. In fact, excessive and morbid desires have ruined life in the modern age.

Indeed, a number of critics read the poem as a representation of the twentieth-century degradation of values and the breakdown of morality. The critic Coote, (1985) for instance, states that the poem is "a profound and a very moving picture of modern man's spiritual plight" (p.31). This is shown in the poem's opening line that signals the centrality of desires and senses to the misery and suffering of human beings. The speaker's view of "April [as] the cruelest month" (1968, p.31) suggests that the ignited senses are dangerous when they are awake because they stir desire and lust. Thus, they are better when left dormant and hidden. As Morrison (1996) contends, "April is 'the cruelest month' [...] because it awakens 'savage' or archaic [sexual] desires" (p.100). In the poem's first section, "The Burial of the Dead", the inability to control desire is similar to the thrill and risk of a sleigh-ride. When people allow emotions and feelings to blindly guide them, their minds lose control and are compulsively driven into disaster. In the same vein, the image of "crowds of people, walking round in a ring" suggests that wastelanders wander aimlessly in pursuit of pleasure, comfort and excitement because their lives are empty, meaningless and devoid of any spiritual guidance. The spiritual crisis, which results from the valorization of the sensual over the spiritual, has left the modern individual with a despairing, pessimistic, and morbid mood.

Furthermore, the prophetic figure in "The Burial of the Dead" warns the wastelanders against the spiritual devastation and the coming of false prophets, which he describes as broken images: "What are the roots that clutch, what branches grow/Out of this stony rubbish? Son of man,/You cannot say, or guess, for you know only/A heap of broken images, where the son beats,/And the dead tree gives no shelter, the cricket no relief,/And the dry stone no sound of water" (Eliot, 1968, p.27). Although there is no answer to the question, it is obvious that no roots can survive in the desert; that is, life without faith is a form of death in life. These lines allude to the Bible, where God, addressing Ezekiel by Son of Man, chooses him as His messenger to Israel which becomes a waste land because of the Israelites' wickedness. He says: "And he said unto me, Son of Man, stand upon thy feet and I will speak unto thee. And the spirit entered into me when he spake unto me, and set me upon my feet, that I heard him that spake unto me"(qtd in Weirick, 1971, p.16). These "broken images" can be seen as the idols that the Israelites have erected in worship of false gods, thereby signaling the breakdown of morality. Also, the "dead tree" in "The Burial of the Dead" is the antithesis of the Tree of Life, in the sense that it symbolizes the spiritual values that have been demolished because of modern materialism which diverts the individual from moral and religious obligations. In the same vein, wastelanders' spiritual death is evident in their fear of salvation. The speaker's warning to "show you fear in a handful of dust" (Eliot, 1968, p.28) evokes the image of the burial service in the Book of Common Prayer, which says that man is made of dust and shall return to dust after death. Besides, the failure of the speaker to comprehend the spiritual enlightenment is entailed in the following line: "Looking into the heart of light, the silence" (Eliot, 1968, p.28). Light here refers to Christ or spiritual knowledge and the word "heart" has a spiritual connotation that might be read as an allusion to "The Sacred Heart of Christ." Thus, the previous line suggests the spiritual blindness of the inhabitants of the modern waste land. For example, the quester in "The Burial of the Dead" seeks spiritual enlightenment in the wrong place. He is drawn to the superstition of a fortune-teller with "a wicked pack of cards." (Eliot, 1968, p.28). He is the same person who appears in "The Fire Sermon", "fishing in the dull canal/On a winter evening round behind the gashouse" (Eliot, 1968, p.189-90). The disillusioned fisherman follows the wrong path to obtain spiritual enlightenment because it is not wise to fish in a polluted river in a winter evening. Instead of looking for guidance in the Bible, the modern man looks for spiritual enlightenment in the cards of fortune tellers, such as Madame Sosostris. One can read the word 'prophet' as 'profit' in the modern age. This means that Sosostris is a professional fortune-teller who is paid for her wisdom. Thus, the French name "clairvoyante" is the best expression to describe her because "seer" is another name for prophet.

Madame Sosostris' warning to "fear death by water" reveals the horror of death, which is at the core of the poem. However, it also points out that Sosostris is a non-believer who does not even believe in a hereafter. This absence of faith keeps the inhabitants of "The Waste Land" constantly plagued by a sense of insecurity, especially as Madame Sosostris is herself a wastelander who cannot offer any resolution to the pilgrim's problems.. This is evident in her failure to see the blank card which represents the Hanged Man. As she confesses: "I do not find/ The Hanged Man" (Eliot, 1968, p.28-29). These lines show her spiritual emptiness and shortsighted vision, which are reinforced by the poet's ironic description of her as "Madame Sosostris, famous clairvoyante./Had a bad cold" (Eliot, 1968, p.28). Although God exists, the human self is unable to grasp or reach Him. Hence, the modern man is seen as a lonely entity or being that is enclosed in its own sphere and alienated even from the Creator.

In "Gerontion", which is a part of the original version of the poem, the speaker says: "After such knowledge, what forgiveness? Think now" (Eliot, 1968, p.19). Knowledge here might refer to man's realization of his spiritual emptiness and the 'horror' within him. The one-eyed merchant in Sosostris' Tarot card symbolizes the one-dimensional vision of the capitalist who throws religion aside. In my point of view, the merchant is the antithesis of Tiresias, the prophet in Greek mythology, who, despite being blind physically, is gifted with spiritual enlightenment. As a result, the wastelanders, unlike Tiresias, are physically sighted but spiritually blind and impotent: they are dead in life. This idea is further emphasized by "That corpse you planted last year in your garden" (Eliot, 1968, p.29), suggesting that the speaker has long been spiritually dead and that the corpse connotes a body devoid of soul and a dead spirit which awaits revival. The line thus recalls the speaker in "So through the evening", who makes a similar confession of spiritual death as follows: "It seems that I have been a long time dead/Do not report me to the established world"(Eliot, 1971, p.12). In light of the above mentioned points, it is possible to argue that the spiritual plight in the modern waste land is concomitant with the age's conditions. In modern philosophy, knowledge can be obtained only through experience, that is, sensual experience becomes the solid ground on which the house of knowledge is built. The hysterical woman in "A Game of Chess" might be referring to such empirical knowledge: "Do /You know nothing? do you see nothing?"(Eliot, 1968, p.31). Eliot was very much influenced by F. H. Bradley, and his Ph.D. thesis was titled Knowledge and Experience in the Philosophy of F. H. Bradley (1964). Knowledge for the wastelanders is devoid of any spiritual Substance. Furthermore, the spiritual crisis is attributed to industry which partakes in the religious crisis and the abandonment of Christ. The following line is a metonymy for the expansion of knowledge in the modern civilization: "I read, much of the night, and go south in winter" (Eliot, 1968, p.27). It follows that the conditions of the twentieth century stimulate these secular ideas which derive mainly from the atheism of Darwin, Nietzsche and Marx. For example, the 'Dog', in "The Burial of the Dead", stands for science which deprives the individual of the spiritual side. As Brooker and Bentley (1990) write: "The dog 'that is friend to men' suggests a modern god substitute which seemed to be a friend but which has become in numerous senses a destroyer. Eliot is here concerned with a rampantly reductive scientism (including that practiced by Frazer) that demythologizes myth by digging up the buried god or hero and revealing its nature"(p.36).

In other words, modern science has waged a war against the beliefs and spiritual values that have given sense to the lives of people for centuries, thereby resulting in 'the death of God'. Obviously, the religious crisis started when God was executed and science became the new religion of Europe. As Modernists believe, science could sweep away all human problems and misery and elevate the individual above the world. This is why they view religion as irrational or a sort of madness. According to McGrath (2004, p.220), "the reemergence of atheism as a serious intellectual option dates from the dawn of modernity: Atheism is the religion of the autonomous and rational human being who believes that reason is able to uncover and express the deepest truths of the universe." With the absence of religion, man becomes an autonomous and self-sufficient being, who needs to look no further than himself to explain the meaning of life. Consequently, agnostic thought prevails, as man is free only if he owes his existence to himself. Hence, atheism is seen as a means of escape.

The spiritual decadence of the Western world is also represented in the passage about Marie from "The Burial of the Dead." Her anxiety and insistence on not being Russian are possibly a reaction to the communist system which is based on the exclusion of God. That is, Russia evokes the triumph of secularism in the modern age and the decay of faith, where matter solely cannot define the human nature. Rather, it is the spiritual side which makes us human. Indeed, all secular and psychological therapies cannot offer man solace and relief from the maladies of the soul. Yet, religion is the only recuperative power without which life becomes worthless. Thus, the ruin and decadence in the modern waste land are attributed to the spiritual sterility brought about by modernity.

These arguments justify why Eliot uses strong symbolic images in the description of spiritual devastation. The metaphor of water, for example, plays a major part in the poem. According to Wilson, "[A]s Gerontion in his dry rented house thinks wistfully of the young men who fought in the rain, as Prufrock longs to ride green waves and linger in the chambers of the sea, as Mr. Apollinax is imagined drawing strength from the deep sea-caves of coral islands, so in this new poem Mr. Eliot identifies water with all freedom and illumination of the soul" (2001, p.142). The absence of water, in *The Waste Land*, suggests the absence of faith and salvation.

Also, the images of dryness and sterility in "The Burial of the Dead" symbolize the dryness of the spirit. The image of the "dry stone" with "no sound of water" (Eliot, 1968, p.27) evokes a sense of spiritual and moral sterility in the twentieth century. For example, in biblical times Moses could procure water from rocks using his "divining" rod in order to help the thirsty Israelites wandering the desert. By contrast, the wastelander in the modern times finds no water among the rock. This hope of drawing water from the red rock is a metaphor for drawing substance from matter; however, this is denied for the inhabitants of the modern waste land. Another similar image is the "dead sound on the final stroke of nine" (Eliot, 1968, p.29) that evokes the ninth hour of Jesus' crucifixion. This image or line not only represents Church as a decaying crumbling house but also evokes the decadence of faith and the dwindling of life. As such, contemporary London becomes an unreal city; a hellish place where people cross the church in their way to work; nonetheless, they overlook such a holy place which often symbolizes grace and salvation.

In addition to its religious symbolism, the red rock reminds the wastelanders of the void of their spirits. As Rosenthal (1960) puts it: "The rock's shelter holds another terror, however: that of our recognition of our soul's peril and of the sacrifices needed for self-purification. 'I will show you fear in a handful of dust'" (p.91). The red rock is symbolic of religion or faith. Hence, the following line might be read as a direct invitation (by Eliot) for the wastelanders to enter the kingdom of God: "(Come in under the shadow of this red rock), /And I will show you something different from either)" (Eliot, 1968, p.27). In addition, the dead tree, in "The Burial of the Dead", symbolizes the absence of faith. According to Campbell, "The Christ story involves a sublimation of what originally was a very solid vegetal image. Jesus is on Holy Rood, the tree, and he is himself the fruit of the tree. Jesus is the fruit of eternal life, which was on the second forbidden tree in the Garden of Eden" (1991, p.88). The dead tree might be seen as the antithesis of the Tree of Life. The demise of the tree is suggestive of the spiritual crisis. In the Christian cult, spring signals the coming of Christ, resurrection, and regeneration; however, in "The Waste

Land", the speaker's description of April as the cruelest month implies the spiritual death of the wastelanders, as argued before.

The title of the second section, A Game of Chess, is also symbolic of the wicked play with emotions and sexual desires. Eliot's reference to Cleopatra is very significant because it indicates the destructive effects of excessive desire. In the case of the famous lovers, Antony and Cleopatra, their inability to control their sexual desires has wiped out a whole empire. This failure to control desire is considered the central reason behind the discontent and degeneration of modern civilization (Nordau, 1895). In "A Game of Chess", the wastelanders are afraid of salvation, as is the speaker who says: "If it rains, a closed car at four" (Eliot, 1968, p.32). This line suggests that water in the poem exists in a state of contradiction; that is, it is found in contexts where it is not recognized as a means of survival and salvation but is absent when it is needed. As Brooker and Bentley (1990) comment, "Death, in his sources, particularly in Frazer, Weston, and the Bible, is the prerequisite for life, and in all three, death by water is a central ritual in physical and spiritual rebirth. In all three, death is an end which is a beginning" (160). Death by water here can be symbolic of the soul's rebirth which is frightening for the wastelanders and hence of the poem's extreme denial of the spiritual life. As Madame Sosostris says, warning her client: "Fear death by water" (Eliot, 1968, p.29).

Desire also stands as one of the prominent concerns in the poem. In "The Fire Sermon", Sweeney and the lascivious Mrs. Porter, for instance, respond only to the rhythms of their hormones: they stand completely outside the grace of any ritual. In the same section, the image of the fisherman "fishing in a dull canal/On a winter evening behind the gashouse" (Eliot, 1968, p.34) is the best objective correlative for sexual incest. In this context, Weirick (1971) writes:

To fish in [the] Biblical sense is to seek salvation and eternal life. But here in The Waste Land the spiritual meaning has been lost. Indeed, the meanings are different on every level. The fisher king is now seeking his catch not in a clean, vital, exhilarating medium, but in an industrially-polluted canal. Finally, these lines suggest illicit sexual activity of the most impersonal and unrewarding kind" (p.57).

Fishing in the dull canal suggests the search for self-fulfillment not in religion but in sexuality. In another instance, "Thames-daughters" lose their virginity and dignity because of their sexual desire which they cannot control. Such a desire cannot procure an individual's satisfaction or pleasure. This tells why Tiresias confesses that he has witnessed the same story taking place in millions of lives; a story about how a man's undisciplined desire leads to his failure to possess anything that satisfies his cravings.

This explains why the title, The Fire Sermon, is reminiscent of Buddha's sermon which presents man burning in the fire of lust, desire, and greed. According to Buddha, man feels complete only if he is detached from lust, and this detachment liberates him from all the selfish desires in order to make him happy and satisfied. According to Buddha (qtd in Coote, 1985),

All things are on fire, forms are on fire, eye-consciousness is on fire, the impressions received by the eye is likewise on fire. And with what are these things on fire? With the fire of lust, anger and illusion, with these they are on fire, and so were the other senses

and so was the mind. Wherefore the wise man conceives disgust for the things of the senses, he removes from his heart the cause of suffering" (Coote, 1985, p.120).

So, the only way out of the waste land is to free oneself from the blinding power of desire. Buddhism promises to offer man palpable solutions to his misery and to free him from lust that inflicts upon him. This could explain why Eliot has been encumbered with Buddhist feelings at the time of writing the poem. Eliot's biographer Ackroyd (1984) maintains that:

Eliot's attraction to Buddhism was not simply a philosophical one. Nirvana is extinction-the annihilation of desire, the freedom from attachments-and there was, as can be seen in his poetry, an over-riding desire in the young Eliot to be free [...] the Eastern religion had more romantic affiliations for someone who wished to break free of the familial bonds which otherwise held him (p.47).

Freedom can be achieved only when lust and desire are overcome. As Weirick (1971) contends, "The Waste Land is full of different manifestations of lust, and Eliot illustrates how the inhabitants are enslaved. Freedom will come only when lust has been overcome" (p. 49). Given that the only way to do so is by turning to God, Marie voices this view as follows: "In the mountains, there you feel free" (Eliot, 1968, p.27). Here, the freedom that Marie is longing for is probably the freedom from desire. In Christianity, the mountain often stands as the symbol of spiritual enlightenment. According to Ferber (1999), mountains in "the western tradition, [...] are often the homes of gods, being near to heaven and dangerous to mortals [...] In the Bible, mountains are the sites of revelation both natural and supernatural. Christ gives a 'Sermon on the Mount' [...] and] Christ's temptation in the wilderness takes place "on an exceeding high mountain"(129). This quote denotes the fact that the quester in *The Waste Land* seeks spiritual transcendence. This makes Marie the mouthpiece of Eliot who has a deep yearning for purification.

However, water which is a means of salvation in "The Fire Sermon" becomes polluted: "The river bears no empty bottles, sandwich papers, / Silk handkerchiefs, cardboard boxes, cigarette ends / Or other testimony of summer nights. The nymphs are departed" (Eliot, 1968, p.34). This image of the polluted river, which turns into a place of prostitution, symbolizes the polluted soul. Water in the poem can thus be read as literal; it is no more symbolic. In "Death by Water", drowning does not lead to any transformation or because Phlebas has lived a material life. He is the alter ego of Mr. Eugenides, as is emphasized by the use of the pun: currants/current. In other words, Phlebas lives in materially prosperous life conditions, and this is why the Phoenicians believe that by drowning the god, fertility of the land will be restored. But in the waste land of the twentieth-century, death by water is frightening. It is like the case of Phlebas, a fruitless one. In the case of Mrs. Porter and her daughter, water loses its symbolism in the sense that it becomes merely an H₂O. This makes the act of cleansing their feet in the soda water ironic, given that water purifies and cleans the soul; i.e. it is a means of baptism.

Similar to the symbolic images of water, the fish is considered an ancient symbol of fertility as well as a symbol of faith in Christianity. According to Weirick (1971), "The fish in this Biblical sense is to seek after salvation and eternal life" (p.57). However, in the modern

waste land, the fish is no longer symbolic of spirituality, because the wastelander is "fishing in the dull canal/On a winter evening round behind the gashouse"(Eliot, 1968, p.34). That is, the fisher is unlikely to catch any fish because it is not wise to fish in a winter evening and in a dull, dirty canal polluted (literally and figuratively) by the industrial revolution. Thus, the protagonist, in "The Fire Sermon", seems to be at the edge of collapse because he has little hope of receiving any religious illumination.

It is worthy to note also that the three commands of thunder, which the section "What the Thunder Said" identifies as "Give, sympathise, control", suggest that passion is a human quality that should be expressed or given while simultaneously controlled by means of faith. However, this does not apply in the context of the modern waste land. In Ecclesiastes 12, God says: "And when shall they be afraid of that which is high, and fears shall be in the way, and the almond tree shall flourish, and the grasshopper shall be a burden, and desire shall fail because man goeth to his long home, and the mourners go about the streets"(qtd in Brooks, 1966, p.140). This shows that desire should be temperate; otherwise it will turn into vice.

Moreover, a weak management of the instincts or a permanent failure to gain gratification could give rise to neurosis. As Bush (1984) writes, "Little wander that in the waste land, 'the awful daring of a moment's [sexual] surrender' generates feelings of 'a broken Coriolanus'"(57). That is, for Eliot, desire is an agent of destruction that is threatening to man's existence. He talks about his experience with sexual desire and religion but confesses that it is religion which has brought him a durable satisfaction (Gordon, 1977, p.72). As such, the poem might be read as a recapitulation of these two experiences.

On the one hand, the poem's title alludes to Weston's *From Ritual to Romance* (2011) in the sense that both view the barren waste land as a result of moral degradation. According to Weston, the wound of the Fisher King, according to the legend, is caused by passion, and this tells why the legend relates sterility with sexual sin. As mentioned in one of the versions of the Grail, some maidens lived in the secret hills and had golden cups to offer hospitality to the passers-by. One day, one of these maidens was outraged by this king who, along with his knights, stole the golden cups. These maidens were raped by the chieftain, an incident that fueled the rage of the priestesses of the vegetation cults, and this explained why the land became waste and sterile (Coote, 1985, p. 102). In his discussion of the Holy Grail legend, Brooks (1966) writes: "the court of the rich Fisher King was withdrawn from the knowledge of men when certain of the maidens who frequented the shrine were raped and had their golden cups taken from them. The curse on the land follows from this act"(p.138). For me, the story recalls the Oedipus myth that narrated the story of the plague inflicted upon Thebes and its inhabitants because of the incestuous marriage of Oedipus with his mother, although he was unaware of his sin (Edmunds, 2006). On the other hand, the title of the poem, "The Waste Land", is symbolic of man's withdrawal from God. The poem might be read as Eliot's spiritual autobiography, which bears flagrant similarities to that of St. Augustine for whom Eliot read in his early years. After his conversion, Augustine confesses: "But I deserted you, my God. In my youth I wandered away too far from your sustaining hand, and created of myself a barren waste"(qtd in Coote, 1985, p.43). Thus, life without God is sterile and aimless; it is a long journey that has no direction and no hope of self-discovery and revival. Like Carthage, at the time of St. Augustine, Europe in the twenties was seen as a picture of moral waste land. Wilson (2001) asserts that:

Mr Eliot uses *The Waste Land* as the concrete image of a spiritual drouth. His poem takes place half in the real world-the world of contemporary London, and half in a haunted wilderness-the waste land of the medieval legend; but the Waste Land is only the hero's arid soul and the intolerable world about. The water which he longs for in the twilit desert is to quench the thirst which torments him in the London dusk (p. 141).

The poem thus reflects not only the modern man's (mental) state of existence but also Eliot's state of mind and spiritual collapse. Before his conversion to Anglo-Catholicism, Eliot experienced a long process of spiritual torment and struggle which culminated in "*The Waste Land*". This could tell why Eliot wrote this suggestive poem as not only a literary piece but also a timeless journey in which readers today can see reflections of their lives.

The Spiritual Pilgrimage

Although Eliot's pursuit of philosophy destabilized or shook his religious certainty, he finally found in religion the only panacea to his psychological problems and dualistic thinking. Prior to converting into Catholicism, Eliot experienced different beliefs that made him realize that life without faith was a waste land. It made him attentive to the fact that religion might deliver a centre of solace and equipoise that he really needed. As Brooker (1944) contends: "One by one, like an inventory examiner, he rejected Bergsonianism, humanism, aestheticism, and other early twentieth-century '-isms'; and in the light of Christianity, he rejected them all as inadequate" (p.123). Therefore, Eliot's religious doubts end by his conversion to the Anglican Church, where he embraced a Christian worldview even before writing "*The Waste Land*". His moments of illness were necessary for him as a means to reflect on himself and to concentrate on his self-definition. His experience of breakdown, fragmentation and self-division was a preliminary step that would empower him to create himself anew.

Indeed, Eliot's conversion to Catholicism began much earlier than 1927, that is, it started during the time of writing "*The Waste Land*". This poem can be seen as a journey in search for one's self and faith. The speaker's search for spiritual truth begins in "*The Burial of the Dead*". This view of religion as an alternative to living in the waste land is implied in the speaker's invitation: "*The Burial of the Dead*": "come in under the shadow of this red rock, / And I will show you something different from either" (Eliot, 1968, p.27). In the Bible, the rock usually symbolizes God or spiritual power; however, this is not the case in the modern state. For Eliot, neither Fascism nor Communism is an adequate alternative because both of them are viewed as images of a modern Satan. This is why Eliot has found his long-sought-for internal tranquility in Christianity and later in the Anglican Church. In the previous quote, the shadow might refer to a moral problem. Discussing the shadow symbolism, De Laszlo (1958) maintains that "The shadow is a moral problem that challenges the whole ego personality, for no one can become conscious of the shadow without considerable moral effort. To become conscious of it involves recognizing the dark aspects of personality as present and real" (p.7). In other words, awareness of one's wickedness is a moment of spiritual awakening, and it is essential for the progress of the soul. So, the speaker, in "*The Burial of the Dead*", becomes aware of his spiritual death and emptiness; similar to Kurtz in Joseph Conrad's *Heart of Darkness*, he seems to cry in whisper: "the horror! The horror!" Thus, the shadow in the first section might stand for the terrible knowledge of spiritual emptiness which pushed him (the speaker) to start a pilgrimage towards the city of God. The speaker's cry "HURRY UP PLEASE IT'S TIME" (Eliot, 1968, p.33) is an

English dialect for the last call at the bar, but in the poem, it might be read as an invitation for salvation, redemption and purification. This line implies that life is short and that one should cease the opportunity in order to follow the right path. Furthermore, the lines "shadow at morning striding behind you/Or your shadow at evening rising to meet you" (Eliot, 1968, p.28) suggest the presence of a speaker, who is going towards the East to undertake a spiritual journey. Facing the East symbolizes man's search for spiritual wisdom. The nameless wastelander (the speaker of the previous lines), is a pilgrim poised at the extremity of a dry season, waiting for rain which is considered a symbol of grace and fertility. Thus the journey towards the city of God is not an easy one, especially as this is symbolized by the cruelty of the seasons and the sluggish response of nature.

From a similar perspective, the sporadic and sordid sexual desire culminates in "The Fire Sermon"; however, the section concludes by the quester's painful awakening to his sins and his recognition of the necessity for purification and redemption. Purification comes in "Death by Water" followed by "What the Thunder Said". Convinced that the solution to his problems is ascetic and spiritual, Eliot offers a glimpse of hope by referring to Augustine, Buddha, and Christianity. Augustine and Buddha best exemplify the followers of the spiritual path. Religious emotion and remorse for a sexual sin are deeply felt in the way Eliot alludes to St. Augustine. In his *Confessions*, Augustine confesses that his sexual drives are unable to grant him pleasure or heal his spiritual emptiness. Self-fulfillment and happiness, he thus comes to realize, can be attainable through union with God. As Coote (1985) notices, "The presence of St. Augustine and hence of a deep-seated sexual unhappiness in a civilization collapsing through the lack of spiritual resources, enriches *The Waste Land* considerably. The inclusion of St. Augustine at the climax of 'The Fire Sermon' may be felt through the whole poem" (p.129). In the poem, the scenes of sexual promiscuity at Margate and on Margate sands are followed by the allusion to St. Augustine. For Eliot, religion is the only means of purging the individual from excessive sexual desire that ruins one's soul. In her commentary on these lines, Gordon (1977) suggests the following interpretation:

Again sexual guilt precedes religious fervor. The penitent confesses, in the manner of Augustine, to his idle lusts, and his sense of sin propels him smoothly into the burning routine. There is no concern for the abused London women, only for his own purification" The speaker's guilt is evidenced in the following line: "He wept. He promised "a new start (p. 98).

Following Gordon's line of thought, one might say that the poem is a spiritual peregrination which is geared towards deflection from the sensual world. Since sexual desire distracts man from the spiritual path, the quester has transcended the flesh.

Similarly, Eliot's reference to Buddhism is significant because it is considered a psychological religion which rescues the sufferers from the turmoil and sorrow of life and elevates them into the so-called state of Nirvana, where the individual is released from desire. The merging of Eastern and Western religions (Buddhism and Christianity) becomes a symbolic act of marriage that unifies the fragments of religion to bring back God whose image is distorted and turned into "a heap of broken images".

The pilgrim, who traverses a waste land in quest for grace, reaches the spiritual truth in "What the Thunder Said". Commenting on the final part of the section, Gordon (1977) writes: "I am sure that before Eliot could have written this section he must himself have had some 'sign'. He said that religious poetry is so difficult to write because it demands actual experience, those moments of clarification and crystallization which come but seldom" (p. 114). In other words, Eliot, who strives for faith and order succeeds, at last, in making peace with himself. This is evident in the way the poem ends with a Christian benediction: "The Peace which passeth all understanding" (Eliot, 1968, p.43).

Indeed, readers of the poem might discern many traces of spiritual enlightenment. "What the Thunder Said", for instance, opens with the Savior's death in order to secure the cultural and spiritual life of his people. As the speaker says: "He who was living is now dead/We who were living are now dying/ With a little patience" (Eliot, 1968, p.40). This death is followed by rebirth; it is the figure or shadow that is always "walking beside you" (Eliot, 1968, p.41). The shadow, which evokes spiritual rebirth, alludes to a Biblical story about the stranger on the road to Emmaus who turns out to be Jesus Christ. Archetypally, Christ represents the wholeness and unity of the human self. As De Laszlo (1958) explains, "Christ exemplifies the archetype of the self. He represents the totality of a divine or heavenly kind, a glorified man, a son of God [...] unspotted by sin" (p. 36). So, the wastelander reaches his quest for internal union by being a potential candidate for religious life.

This is why the theme of death winds throughout the poem. In Christianity, crucifixion and sacrifice are pre-requisites for spiritual rebirth. Hence, Sybil's longing for death in the epigraph followed by the pilgrim's longing for the revival of the buried corpse, in "The Burial of the Dead", suggest the poet's eagerness for spiritual illumination. In "The Journey of the Magi", Eliot reiterates the same idea as follows: "I had seen birth and death,/But had thought they were different; this birth was/Hard and bitter agony for us, like Death, our death./We returned to our places, these Kingdoms, /But no longer at ease here, in the old dispensation, /With an alien people clutching their gods./I should be glad of another death" (Eliot, 1968, p.66). In these lines, death is seen as the first step toward the renewal of one's life. According to Schwartz-Salant (2005), "death is an interim stage to be followed by a new life. No new life can arise, say the alchemists, without the death of the old. They liken the art to the work of the sower, who buries the grain in the earth: only to awaken to new life" (p.170). This suggests that the acceptance of death in the poem implies the poet's or the wastelanders' attempt to embark on or begin a new life under the guidance of the Christian Gospel.

From a different perspective, the death instinct, as an opposing drive to life instinct, propels organism to go back to its first state of wholeness and purity. Contrary to Freud's concept of death, which is literal and corporeal, Karl Jung's Thanatos, according to Welman, is a psychological state or reality. For Welman (2005), the Jungian concept of death implies a return to the original state of unity: "Thanatos is oriented on the one hand towards a 'return' of the ego to its primal origins and on the other hand towards a transcendent union of opposites" (p.132). This means that death implies a movement towards reintegration and the restoration of the lost unity. As Welman (2005) adds, "Experiences involving the collapse or the transcendence of personal boundaries are captured by the imagination as images of death. In these terms, death and dying are metaphors through which is lived and awakening of symbolic life and a deepening of personal identity and of one's experience of the world" (p.135). Therefore, Sybil's wish for

death entails a return to the original state of wholeness, while the poet's struggle to escape from his state of dualism partly accounts for his obsession with death in "The Waste Land".

The last section of the poem is rich in symbolism which evokes Christian faith and the real possibility of redemption. The protagonist's search for water, for instance, is a quest for personal salvation. This idea is echoed in the other poem by Eliot "Gerontion", as follows: "Here I am, an old man in a dry month, /being read to by a boy, waiting for rain" (Eliot, 1968, p. 18). In "What the Thunder Said", the thunder comes with the cleansing rain: "In a flash of lightning Then a damp gust/Bringing rain"(Eliot, 1968, p.42). The coming of rain, which suggests purification and baptism of humanity, is associated with lightening which is an Indian symbol of enlightenment. In addition to water symbolism, the crowing of the cock represents a moment of revelation. The Cock, whose crow in the Gospel announces Christ's betrayal, sings to awaken humanity to a new start, to the birth of a new order and a new meaning of life. Hence, the cock announces the coming of dawn which lifts the weight of darkness and suffering from life.

In the same vein, the chapel with the dry bones in the last section of the poem symbolizes the house of God. According to Brooker (1994), "In the Church Age. i.e., after Pentecost, the bodies of Christians constitute the house of God"(p. 97). Interestingly, the walk towards Emmaus in "What the Thunder Said" is mixed with the approaching of the chapel perilous. The latter, according to Weston, signifies initiation into the mysteries of physical and spiritual union (Weston, 2011, p.105). If the success of the quest in the medieval legends signals restoring the fertility of the waste land and the reproductive powers of its King, then the success of the quest in Eliot's *The Waste Land* is purely psychological and spiritual. By mentioning Tiresias, in the last section, Eliot gives a glimpse of hope or an omen that there will be a way out of the waste land because in the *Odyssey*, it is Tiresias who helps Odysseus to find his way home. What is significant there is the passage of the thunder commands. The words of the thunder confer on the poem's protagonist a divine call. In this regard, the critic Miller (2006) maintains that the stanzas of the thunder commandments "suggest a spiritual transformation of the hero, as though he has given alms, found compassion, and leaned self-control"(p.136). The thunder preaches three disciplines that must be followed: give, sympathise, control. The thunder's first command "give" offers a way to step out of one's selfishness, self-centeredness and isolation. Commenting on this virtue, Patea (2007) states that: "The ethical Hinduism of the Upanishads conceives life as a form of "being", not of "having" [...] Human value is not a function of "I am what I have" but of "I am what I give" (p.109).

The second virtue preached by the thunder is 'sympathise'; it invites the wastelanders to be compassionate. This virtue is at the heart of Christianity. In this regard, Campbell (1991) writes:

Son of God came down into this world to be crucified to awaken our hearts to compassion, and thus to turn our minds from the gross concerns of raw life in the world to the specifically human values of self-giving in shared suffering. In that sense the wounded king, the maimed king of the Grail legend, is a counterpart of the Christ. He is there to evoke compassion and thus bring a dead wasteland to life (p.94).

The thunder's third command is "control". It means controlling one's excessive desire; thus, achieving a kind of harmony between the intellectual and the emotional sides. As Fulweiler

(1993) writes, "After commanding a self-giving surrender and sympathy, the thunder announces the third saving virtue, control. The image Eliot uses is one of organic unity: human cooperation with the wind, the archetypal image of spirit, a union of heart and skillful hands"(p.182). This means that the collision of feeling and intellect, of subject and object enables the individual to overcome inner contradiction or dualism that results in an utter sense of emptiness and nihilism.

One way of proclaiming purification and salvation is by abandoning the world and seeking solitude and loneliness. The protagonist's loneliness, by the end of the poem, is the quality of a mystic who has reached spiritual awareness. As Unger points out, "Isolation and alienation from the world become a stage in the discipline of religious purgation, an ideal to be further followed"(1970, p.19). The speaker becomes like Buddha, who seeks solitude and then sits beneath the bo tree, the tree of immortal knowledge, where he receives an illumination that has enlightened Asia for twenty-five hundred years. Jesus also went into the desert for forty days; and it was out of that desert that he came with his message. Thus, to achieve a sense of unity with self, one needs some solitude, as is the case of Eliot in "The Waste Land". In line with Unger, Gordon contends that the lonely pilgrim, who "sat upon the shore/Fishing, with the arid plain behind me" (Eliot, 1968, p.43), is the poet who has traversed a psychological waste land via religious fervor. According to Gordon (1977),

Early in the history of the manuscript, in 1915, there appears an interesting personality, a would-be saint, who was to become shadowy and diffuse in the long, more impersonal *Waste Land*. Eliot named the character After Narcissus, Bishop of Jerusalem [...] In *The Waste Land* the Narcissus figure reappears as the prophet in the desert in "The Burial of the Dead", as the penitent who is 'burning burning' at the end of 'The Fire Sermon', and as the solitary pilgrim in "What the Thunder Said", who abandons civilization and its history in search of a new life (p. 91).

As a result, the ending line of the poem evinces the poet's movement toward a transcendental experience. It is possible to say that the experience of the self in "The Waste Land" resembles F.H. Bradley's movement from 'relational experience' to 'transcendental experience'.

While "The Burial of the Dead" represents a moment of relational experience, which is the state of fragmentation and disunity, "What the Thunder Said" represents a moment of transcendent experience where there is a movement towards self-reintegration and unity. To phrase it differently, religion transforms the poet from a sick person into league with God. Hence, religion might be the centre towards which all fragments should move in order to recover the lost unity. As Ackroyd writes: "the attachment to something outside oneself can create a sense of the self as whole again, united in the act of worship. He wanted an object for his intense feelings which was not human, in order to heal a personality which threatened to shatter apart" (1984, p. 161). The narrator's line: "I can connect nothing with nothing" followed by the allusion to Augustine's confessions suggests that religion is the only way for rebinding fragments and achieving unity. Religion is the cure and the means for achieving inner peace and harmony. According to Brooker and Bentley, "The very word "religion" comes from roots meaning rebinding, retying, transcending brokenness and regaining a primal condition of harmony. Although the twentieth-century waste land is a place of intense awareness of disunity, it is only a recent version of a constantly recurring condition. Eliot's nostalgia is for a community that he

knows has not existed in history" (1990, p. 211). In fact, religion is important for fulfilling the quest for wholeness that is utterly missing in the modern age. Religion helps achieve a sense of unity and psychological integrity.

To seek refuge from the distress of modern life and from psychological breakdown, Eliot converted to Christianity. He finds in religion the only thing that ascribes meaning and value to one's existence. James (2002) comments on the role of religion, arguing that: "Happiness! Happiness! Religion is only one of the ways in which men gain that gift. Easily, permanently, and successfully, it often transforms the most intolerable misery into the profoundest and most enduring happiness" (p.139). James's view is echoed by Schumaker who contends that religion has a curative power for mental health because it reduces "anxiety by providing cognitive structures [...] that help to impose order on a chaotic world; offer existential grounding in the form of meaning, purpose, and hope which, in turn, generates an emotional well-being [...] foster social cohesion and a sense of community; afford members a social identity, and sense of belongingness" (2001, p.107). Therefore, at the end of the poem, the pilgrim seems to have reached a state of consolation and peace where he moves toward religious awareness and illumination. It is only by surrendering the self to faith that one can live moments of happiness, self-fulfillment and inner peace, where sexual passion no longer exists.

Some of Eliot's critics have argued that his sexual and spiritual malaises are inextricably related. This is attributed to the fact that Eliot finds in religion an important means to escape from his own domestic horrors and perverse sexuality. The frightful discovery of his wife's insanity and marital woes pushes him further towards surrendering himself to the divine. Defending this view, MacDiarmid (2005) asserts that:

we tend to view Eliot's conversion as a cowardly attempt to suppress the catalysts of his obsessive-compulsive disorders, his "sexual attacks", which we can interpret as anxiety about his sexuality and subjectivity. This means that we diagnose Eliot's impulse to religious witness or Christian mysticism as a symptom of pathology, and remember that hysteria is defined as a "conversion disorder". Religious feeling, confronted with the skepticism of the twentieth-century, becomes egotistical delusion (p.88).

Eliot's conversion is similar to the Marxist formula of religion as the "opiate of the people" and the psychoanalysts' description of religion as "substitute-gratification". Vivien's moral insanity and neurotic problems are essential to Eliot's long purgatorial journey, which ends in peace and unity found in Christianity. By embracing the ascetic way of the Catholic mystics, Eliot not only feels redeemed from sex but also becomes capable of escaping Vivien, at least morally. According to MacDiarmid (2005):

the bulk of current critical and popular readings of Eliot attribute his conversion to his gynophobia and his hatred of domesticity. Specifically, critics and biographers such as Peter Ackroyd and Tom Matthews read Eliot's *Ash Wednesday* as abandonment of Vivien and his atonement for that 'sin'. Secondly, they view his alliance with the Church of England as an official repudiation of the embarrassingly mercantile flavors of his St. Louis roots, the humanist influence of his grandfather, Andrew Greenleaf Eliot, and his mother's overbearing intellectual and social ambitions (p. 86-7).

So, Eliot's confirmation to the Church, which is rooted in his early years, signals a disavowal of his grandfather's Unitarianism. Also, his resistance to the Puritan family code of behavior marks his spiritual departure from his family. His conversion serves to separate him physically and spiritually from his hysterical wife, in the sense that it gives him a sense of freedom and provides him with a way to cut Vivien out of his life. As Freud (2002) points out, religion is a defense mechanism that vouchsafes the individual's protection against neurotic illness:

Biologically speaking, religiousness is to be traced to the small human child's long-drawn-out helplessness and need for help; and when at a later date he perceives how truly forlorn and weak he is when confronted with great forces of life, he feels his condition as did in childhood, and attempts to deny his own despondency by a regressive revival of the forces which protected his infancy (Freud, 2002, p.73).

Eliot's departure from his family towards Britain brings about a deep sense of loss, alienation and spiritual fall. The poet was discontented with his Puritan family which observed standards of conduct strictly. But, far from his parents, Eliot was aware of the fragility of his existence. To compensate for the loss of his parents, he sought unity with God as an alternative Father. In this regard, Freud maintains that "Psycho-analysis has made us familiar with the intimate connection between the father-complex and belief in God; it has shown us that a personal God is, psychologically, nothing other than an exalted father, and it brings us evidence every day of how young people lose their religious beliefs as soon as their father's authority breaks down" (2002, p. 73). This could explain why Eliot's religious needs are rooted in his early Unitarian upbringing. His conversion is prompted by a deep longing for his parents or at least to restore his memories and ideas of them.

Conclusion

In the modern age, which is marked by the loss of moral values, the sensual triumphs over the spiritual. This results in a psychological disequilibrium and a sense of crisis and decadence. In fact, the wastelanders' spiritual plight emanates from the conditions of the modern times as well as their blind surrender to desire which they think might fill their psychological vacuum. The quest of a psychological unity is located at the centre of the poet's interest. The movement from "The Burial of the Dead" to "What the Thunder Said" follows the pattern of a spiritual journey, hence, suggesting the possibility of inward salvation. The psychological and spiritual desert of "The Waste Land" ends by embracing the possibility of a new life. At a time ruled by the language of science, secularism and sexual freedom, religion enables the modern man to reach a transcendental experience and achieve inward peace and coherence. Instead of seeking solace in carnal and morbid desires, religion is the force which can alleviate the individual's pains and tessellate his divided self into a harmonious whole. Eliot finds in religion a protective shield against his trauma. Interestingly, the journeying motif is the most important structural device Eliot uses to write his poem. By viewing the poem as a quest for spiritual illumination and psychological unity, the reader can sense its progress forward.

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Operationalization of Competency-Based Approach: From Competency-Based Education to Integration Pedagogy

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Abstract

Advocates of integration pedagogy such as Peyser et al. (2006) and Roegiers (2010) consider this instructional approach as a distinct pedagogical trend, while opponents of this view such as Hirtt (2009) regard integration pedagogy and competency-based education (CBE) as two sides of the same coin. In the view of this inconsistency and in order to help teachers and scholars have a well-informed idea on the essence of these educational movements, this article attempts to explore their similarities and differences and show how integration pedagogy has attempted to interpret the principles of competency-based approach (CBA). In so doing, the study traces back the origins of integration pedagogy in relation to CBE. This analysis of the historical and theoretical background of integration pedagogy indicates that this instructional approach is relatively different from CBE in that it has emerged in the 1980s as a late reaction to objective-based pedagogy, but as a concrete attempt to operationalize and simplify the broad principles of CBE, which evolved earlier in the US in the 1970s. Also, the results spell out the theoretical similarities and differences relating to these teaching approaches. Accordingly, teachers, researchers, and program evaluators are advised to approach integration pedagogy as a fairly different realization of CBA with distinct teaching guidelines.

Keywords: Bureau d'ingénierie en éducation et formation (BIEF), CBA, CBE, objective-based pedagogy, pedagogy of integration, school reforms.

1. Introduction

CBE, which is applied in different parts of the world, might be falsely regarded as one single teaching framework that outlines teaching through competencies. The Algerian 2002 School Reform introduced CBE as the major ‘breakthrough’ for planning, implementing, and evaluating teaching targets; this reform has rested mainly on the pedagogy of integration, which differs significantly from the competency-based curricula implemented in Anglo-Saxon settings. The fact of the matter is that this pedagogy has its own terminology and incorporates distinct guidelines for implementing competency-based teaching. However, contemporary competency-based teachers and scholars (such as Hirtt, 2009) fail to recognize the differences between the Anglo-Saxon competency-based approach and the Francophone version of competency-based teaching- *integration pedagogy* or *pedagogy of integration*.

Also, through informal discussions with competency-based teachers, the author of this paper has noticed that most of them believe erroneously that there is one single approach called CBA. Still, his examination of competency-based research works carried out in the Algerian context indicates that most writers (e.g., Aouine, 2011; Chelli, 2010) draw on the literature of the Anglo-Saxon model of competency and use it to talk about CBA in Algeria. In fact, there are at least two major influential competency-based teaching models implemented in various parts of world using different curricular procedures: One is the English-speaking model and the other is the French-speaking version

More to the point, the review of the literature of the two different instructional models in question shows a clear lack of communications among their writers that few mentions are to be found in which advocates of one model discuss the proposals of their counterparts. A few researchers such as Hirtt (2009), Peyser et al. (2006), and Roegiers (2008) confront the claims of these competency-based teaching models, but these articles are mostly written in support of one of these approaches.

Therefore, this article will attempt to address misconceptions of uniformity surrounding CBE, showing integration pedagogy as both (1) a relatively distinct sub-part of CBE and (2) a concrete attempt to make CBE manageable. By doing so, this inquiry will equally (3) establish the missing link between CBE and integration pedagogy by specifying the theoretical and curricular claims of integration pedagogy relative to classroom feasibility. Ultimately, the study will culminate in (4) a definition of integration pedagogy in relation to broad CBE.

CBE is used in this study interchangeably to refer to the general competency-based model of teaching and to the American or Anglo-Saxon model, which in turn, has other sub-divisions within the Anglo-Saxon world. Also, CBA (competency-based approach or approche par compétences, in French-(APC), is used in a more general way. Actually, CBA is a common label used to refer to competency-based teaching in the Francophone competency-based literature. In addition to this, the acronym CBI (competency-based instruction) is used in a more neutral sense.

2. Background of Integration Pedagogy

The following discussion is structured round the background of the pedagogy of integration. We shall show that this innovative pedagogy has first come as another reaction to the

limitations of the pedagogy by objectives, and secondly as an effort to operationalize the broad principles of CBE.

2.1. An Alternative to Objective-Based Pedagogy

The pedagogy of integration has come as another response to the shortcomings of the objective-based pedagogy. This educational movement has been based on the works of De Ketele in the late 1980s (Roegiers, 2001). In the 1970s, De Ketele was still an active advocate of the American movement of the pedagogy by objectives that he tried to disseminate and popularize in French universities (De Ketele, 2000); nevertheless, he quickly perceived the limits of teaching discrete objectives. Consequently, in 1980, he suggested the concept of “Objectif Terminal Global”, which has later come to be termed as “Objectif Terminal d’Integration” (De Ketele, 1980 as cited in Roegiers, 2001, p. 84). The idea is to relate and integrate learning objectives at the end of a learning process than to teach and assess them in isolation.

The notion of terminal objective of integration has been operationalized by BIEF under the label *pedagogy of integration* (Roegiers, 2010). The BIEF team, attached to the Catholic University of Louvain-la-Neuve (UCL), has extended De Ketele’s (1980) proposal of the notion of terminal objective of integration, which seeks to coordinate the learned knowledge and skills at the end of an academic year or entire program of study (Roegiers, 2010, pp. 201-202). This initial intent has laid down the foundations of the pedagogy of integration.

Nevertheless, the concept of terminal integration objective is not novel in the literature of CBE; McCowan (1998, pp. 25-26) and Ainsworth (1977, p. 322-323) mention it as existing earlier in behavioural objectives of the 1960s. In his description of task analysis, Gagné (1965) underscores importance of articulating what he terms *terminal objective*, that is, the final performance-based task in which students are assessed at the end of a course of study (as cited in McCowan, 1998, pp. 25-26). Hence, the notion of terminal integration task had already been formulated earlier in the American competency-based model.

The rapid dissemination of the pedagogy of integration mainly in African counties (e.g., Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Cameroon, Tanzania, and Madagascar) and Asian countries (such as Vietnam) could be accounted for by the fact that the experts of BIEF have worked jointly with the UN organizations of UNESCO and UNICEF and many other international organizations to reform the old African educational systems. The foundation of BIEF in 1989 and the financial assistance granted by UNESCO and UNICEF have encouraged the spread of the French-speaking version of CBI, rather than the Anglo-Saxon version in developing countries.

As UNICEF wanted to improve the quality of basic schooling conditions especially for young girls in developing countries (De Ketele, 2000), experts of BIEF who have readily accepted the challenge of a macro-level evaluation of national wide programs of some developing countries, have undertaken the task of counseling and monitoring school reforms based on the pedagogy of integration. One of the earliest pedagogical interventions of De Ketele was in Tunisia, where he regularly worked from 1984 to 1994 (De Ketele, 2000). After implementing the new pedagogy formulated by BIEF in Tunisia, other developing countries such as Algeria and Morocco have followed the lead.

The pedagogy of integration intervened and developed at times when most developing countries felt the urging need for reforming their old schools, which were deeply rooted in the teaching of behavioural objectives. Indeed, by the 1990s, as schools were called upon to take more and more functions, it has become conspicuous that the pedagogy by objectives does not fit the requirements of the globalized and globalizing world. Therefore, the concept of competency promoted by the pedagogy of integration has been very enticing as an alternative pedagogy to traditional objective-based teaching; it holds a special promise that all countries went 'competency'.

Likewise, it is in this context that the Algerian educational authorities have espoused CBA in 2002 as a promising solution to make Algerian schools more responsive to the growing social, economic, and political demands of postmodern times. Toualbi-Thaâlibi (2005), for instance, points out that the major incentive for the Algerian School Reform has been to synchronize the teaching techniques with the new requirements of rationality and performance entailed by the ever-changing world; he explains that an agreement has been reached with the organization of UNESCO to put forward its technical support to achieve these ambitious educational objectives.

This innovative pedagogy is regarded by many African educational authorities as a pertinent solution for the inefficiency of educational systems and to functional illiteracy-incapacity to use language functionally- (Rajonhson et al., 2005), which has been perceived as an undeniable result of long years of schooling through objective-based pedagogy. In order to undertake this pressing school reform in a secure way, most African countries have readily accepted the methodological assistance suggested by BIEF and the technical and financial support of international organizations.

However, the assistance provided by the countries of the North to reform the old African schools in line with CBA might have disguised hidden motivations. According to Lenoir and Jean (2012), the financial and technical assistance supplied by powerful and influential international organizations has always been conditioned by the application of a given teaching approach. After recommending, if not imposing, the objective-based pedagogy in developing countries in the 1980s, the 1990s and the turn of the 21st century have witnessed the promotion of CBA as a 'magic formula' for combating the failures of African educational systems. CBE, which has evolved in developed North countries, is recommended as suitable to all learners despite their different backgrounds. This approach, which has more or less been applied in French-speaking countries such as Canada, France, Switzerland, and Belgium, has been imposed on many French-speaking African countries. Lenoir and Jean (2012) rightly point out that decisions to adopt this instructional pedagogy have always been made at the level of educational authorities and not at the level of national pedagogical meetings.

Enumerating some of the international donors who have endorsed applications of CBE in African countries will undoubtedly show the economic character that underlies this powerful teaching 'doctrine'. For instance, in Benin, introduction of CBA in 1990 has been supported by many important technical and financial partners such as USAID; and in Mauritania, Djibouti, Gabon, and Rwanda, CBA has been sustained by international organizations of UNICEF, European Union, and World Bank.

Apart from the political and economic incentives that might have been disguised under the financial and even technical aids provided by international institutions, experimenting with CBE, which lacked at that time any empirical evidence as to its efficiency within national wide curricula, has undeniably served to promote, operationalize, and test the efficiency of CBA, namely, the pedagogy of integration.

To take up the view outlined above that considers integration pedagogy as a relatively distinct movement that has grown out of certain pedagogical and social concerns in French-speaking countries and African Francophone countries, it should be noted here that this line of argument is not without its critics. Hirtt (2009), for example, claims that the French-speaking version of CBE is “neither original nor new” (p.2.), that is, it is not based on the pioneering works of De Ketele (1980) and the educational experts attached to UCL. Accordingly, CBE had been developed in vocational training in Anglo-Saxon settings (e.g., America and Australia) during the 1970s, before it was extended to general education in 1990s.

Indeed, in his review of the background of the pedagogy of integration, Roegiers (2010) overlooks, as Hirtt (2009) specifies, the revolutionary works of Houston and Howsam (1971), Schmiedler (1973), and Burns and Klingstedt (1973), regarding CBE during the 1970s (p.2) . Instead, Roegiers (2010) makes a direct link between the objective-based pedagogy of Mager (1971) and Bloom (1971) with the works of De Ketele in the 1980s (p.61). Said another way, the pedagogy of integration is simply shown as an extension of the pedagogy by objectives. The way Peyser et al. (2006) introduce the evolution of the pedagogy of integration deserves to be quoted:

This evolution is the logical outcome — as demonstrated by a member of our team (ROEGIERS, 2000; 2nd edition 2001) — of several pedagogic trends that have influenced the teaching practices of the 20th century. In particular, educators have endeavored to respond to the main criticism to pedagogy by objectives which was that it disintegrates a subject matter into isolated objectives, a process some call - not without humor – the saucissonnage (slicing a sausage)-... p.1)

Although the quote above acknowledges that this innovative pedagogy has been influenced by a range of instructive movements, it claims that this pedagogy is mostly a reaction to the pedagogy by objectives; yet, this reaction has not been actually pioneering because since the inception of competency-based movement in the US in the 1970s, it has been built on the desire to improve on objective-based pedagogy. On this particular topic, Nunan (2007) states that CBE burgeoned as an alternative to objective-based pedagogy in the US in the 1980s. Accordingly, the major difference between them is that CBE has a more general approach in its competency statement to the behavioral objectives. In view of that, the French-speaking schools were late entry in CBI in comparison to American schools.

However, it is worth knowing that the American competency-based literature does not stress the rejection of objective-based learning as much as it shows it as the basis for the theoretical development of CBE. For instance Hodges’ (2007) account of the origins of competency-based training (CBT) presents CBT as simply an extension of objective-based pedagogy. From this regard, teaching through objectives and instructing through competencies formed a continuum culminating in performance-based teacher education, the first version of

CBE, in the 1970s. In fact, theoretically speaking, the American competency-based movement is shown in the literature as resulting largely from objective-based pedagogy (Hodge, 2007; McCowan, 1998; Nunan, 2007).

It cannot be denied that the pedagogy of integration is based on the objective-based pedagogy, but it is equally unjust to consider this response as revolutionary. The fact of the matter is that the Francophone countries have given a twist to the American competency-based movement to formulate their own model of CBI. Boutin (2004), an advocate of the French-speaking competency model, admittedly argues that the behavioural objectives of the world of industry exercised big influence on forming the first version of competency-based education that dominated American educational systems in the late 1960s. This earliest model had first been implemented in the US before it spread to Canada, Australia, and then Europe. The UK, Switzerland, and Belgium were among the first countries to follow in the implementation of competency-based reforms, and thereby moving from the teaching of specific objectives to the teaching of competencies.

It follows from the discussion above to say that CBE is primarily an extension of objective-based pedagogy that was initially formulated in the US in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Later in the 1980s, the French-speaking countries, particularly, the BIEF team of experts attached to UCL, formulated their own version of this broad movement of education. The credit of integration-based pedagogy lies in its attempt to substantiate competency-based principles in existing educational curricula, not in discarding objective-based education. This pedagogical endeavor (making instruction through CBE more concrete) is termed in this study as “the operationalization of CBA”, which will be the next point of discussion.

2.2. Operationalization of CBA

Although CBE is based on objective-based pedagogy, it has gradually moved away from precise specification of learning objectives. According to Richards (2006), this form of instruction almost does not care for the methodology being used inasmuch as it fulfills the learning targets. The focus is mainly on the outcomes of learning than on pre-specification of content or methodology.

In a similar line, Nunan (2007) draws attention to the high level of generality and imprecise language in which competency targets are described that, in his view, the proponents of behavioural objectives like Dick and Carey (1978) and Mager (1962, 1984) would have no patience at all if they ever read today’s formulation of competency statements (p.426). These inherent traits of CBE, as they were initially formulated in the United States in the 1970s, have rendered this approach less viable and less ‘users’ friendly’. By way of example, the difficulty of defining the concept of competency widely acknowledged even by its fervent supporters (Auerbach, 1986; Boutin, 2004; Roegiers, 2001, 2006, 2010; Spady, 1977) testifies the fuzziness of this teaching/learning approach. It is in response to this theoretical vagueness that the pedagogy of integration has equally intervened to make CBE more structured and implementable.

But, how is the process of learning through competencies simplified in integration pedagogy? In order to answer this question and illustrate how the pedagogy of integration and

the Anglo-Saxon competency-based model differ significantly in terms of methodological guidance, we shall first discuss two main integrative problem-solving models of teaching/learning and show which model is used for conducting teaching/learning of competencies in integrative pedagogy. Next, we shall compare between two integration-oriented schools of thought, the Anglo-Saxon and the Francophone schools. Upon doing so, the specificities of integration pedagogy will ultimately be identified and discussed in relation to the Anglo-Saxon CBE.

2.2.1. two major integrative teaching/learning models

In tracing the theoretical foundation of integration pedagogy and noting its superiority, Roegiers (2007, 2010) illustrates the major methodological differences between two chief integrative teaching/learning models currently in use: “situations-as-starting points” and “situations-as-end points” (Roegiers, 2010, pp. 77-78). The former is typically exemplified in the communicative teaching approaches such as problem-solving and project work, while the latter refers to the pedagogy of integration. The two models adhere to learning through complex tasks and problem-solving activities as opposed to teacher-fronted classroom practices.

2.2.1.1. situations-as-end points: integration pedagogy

According to Roegiers (2007, 2010) the pedagogy of integration is conceptualized round the integrative teaching/learning model called *situations-as-end points*. The latter task-based teaching approach suggests introducing complex situations at the end of a course of study in a form of a family of situations; but prior to tackling complex situations, the learner works on resources (knowledge and skills required by the complex situation) and carries out preliminary tasks. Simply said, resources relative to terminal tasks are, first identified; then taught and practiced separately in complex intermediary tasks; and, finally reinvested in a group of complex meaningful certification tasks.

2.2.1.2. Situations-as-starting points

Learning within this pedagogical framework starts with the presentation of complex end tasks right at the beginning of a course of instruction. In this instructional design resources are supposedly acquired through manipulating and experiencing with real life tasks without any prior explicit teaching of enabling skills and knowledge. Breen and Candlin (1980) communicative process syllabus reflects this pedagogical view in that the content of the course arises from the joint interaction among students while implementing authentic tasks. Although this view is supported by SLA research studies and it reflects the way people learn, it is hardly applicable in settings where students are not used to progressive teaching.

When outlining the above problem-solving model, Roegiers (2007, 2010) argues in favor of superiority of *situations-as-end points* and thus of the pedagogy of integration especially with regard to a more precise definition of the learner exit profile, evaluation of learning outcomes, and frequency of graded problem-solving situations. Moreover, although Roegiers (2007) acknowledges that the two models are two sides of the same coin, he underscores the fact that integration situations-as-end points model is more appropriate for developing countries that suffer from lack of teacher training and didactic materials.

2.2.2. *Two Schools of Thought*

Also, in presenting the development of the concept of integration, Peyser et al. (2006) identify two main integration schools of thought, the Anglo-Saxon and the Francophone. The major differences between these schools relate to the way they conceptualize skill integration and transfer. While the Anglo-Saxon pedagogical community argues that students cannot integrate skills and knowledge until they are fully mastered, the Francophone school holds that students can learn to integrate and transfer skills by solving similar tasks in different situations.

Plainly said, the Anglo-Saxon integration framework is based on the reconstruction of the already mastered skills and knowledge to perform a real world task at the end of instruction, the aim of which is to acquire real life and survival skills; whereas the Francophone model is built round on-going integration of skills through working on similar tasks in different contexts within the classroom. Peyser et al. (2006) further argue that integration model formulated in integration pedagogy equally departs from the Francophone school of integration in that it seeks to structure skill transfer and stresses more the act of integration through integration situations. In fact, Peyser et al. (2006) point out that in integration pedagogy “there is a structure to the learning path proposed and specific timing in which these integration situations appear” (p.3). In other words, the pedagogy of integration has worked out a network through which students can progress gradually to assimilate competencies in a more realistic and practical way; it incorporates precise and timed syllabus specifications and guidelines such as scheduling a week for skills integration after few weeks of ordinary learning (i.e., practice of resources).

Structuring learning through competencies is very crucial especially because students in developing countries are used to highly prearranged learning embedded in the objective-based pedagogy. In a way it can be said that integration pedagogy has been specifically designed mainly for students from less advanced countries. Probably, the experts of BIEF have sought rational procedures and have imposed rigid constraints that could guarantee an optimal climate for acquisition of competencies in ‘hard’ settings.

However, setting up time-honored integration practices runs counter the principle of time flexibility inherent to CBE. The latter underscores the primacy of outcomes over time (Spady, 1977). Since CBE is based on mastery learning and individualization of instruction, it is impossible to pre-specify and accommodate for scheduled weeks of integration because not all students will reach the prerequisite level of adequacy by this time. In essence, students in this instructional approach are not constrained by time; the only valid criterion for moving on from one unit of instruction into another or scheduling evaluation opportunities is mastery of outcomes. But, in their pursuit of practicability of CBE, experts of BIEF have sacrificed time flexibility for more opportunities for the practice of skill integration during the learning process. The usual tendency in the pedagogy of integration is to fall back on traditional classroom organization and practice.

The author’s experience in competency-based schools of secondary education indicates that teachers tend to distort integration situations and approach them as traditional production activities. Because of this operational problem related to teacher training in competency-based practices, experts of BIEF have perhaps sought to make integration activities ‘respectful’ and ‘legitimate’ classroom practices that teachers cannot avoid, hence, sensitizing teachers to the

significance of this invaluable assignment in integrative teaching models. Besides scheduling regular periods for skill integration, the pedagogy of integration proposes a copybook of integration that includes a sum of integration activities to strengthen the status of this pedagogical technique within curricular frameworks.

3. Fundamental Claims of Integration Pedagogy

On the basis of the above theoretical underpinnings (i.e., situations-as-end points and the Francophone pedagogical school of thought) that have informed the pedagogy of integration, the writer has identified five syllabus specifications instilled into the pedagogy of integration to structure and make easier and clearer the practice of competencies. These curricular guidelines are as follows: working on resources, maintenance of objective-based pedagogy, horizontal transfer, use of class of situations, and focus on integration skills. A comparative note is inserted when appropriate to show the place of these syllabus arrangements in the Anglo-Saxon CBE model.

3.1. Working on Resources

At least at early stages, integration pedagogy provides syllabus designers the opportunity to start with preliminary work on resources before inviting learners to solve complex tasks (Roegiers, 2010). Resources are introduced, structured, and practiced one after the other in carefully designed instructional sequences. This usually includes the study and practice of language basic skills and life skills relevant to a class of situations. The framework then permits students to practice skills and elements of a competency to reasonable levels of mastery through learning tasks before they are requested to perform target tasks.

Similarly, the Anglo-Saxon CBI applies a bottom-up approach to the practice of competencies. A review of the most influential English-speaking competency-based articles and books shows that this model is also a reductionist approach, that is, any domain of study is subdivided into specific objectives stated in terms of life skills (such as writing a check). From these life skills, basic skills such as grammar, pronunciation, listening, reading, writing, and punctuation are derived (Auerbach, 1986; Chappell, 1996; Hyland, 1997; Richards, 2006, 2014; Savage, 1993). These primary skills are taught in priori to equip the learner with the necessary tools to tackle survival tasks in the classroom. "Instruction first focuses on teaching the enabling skills in context and then on the application of the enabling skill to the life skill" (California CBAE, 1983 as cited in Savage, 1993, p. 20). This is to say that CBE equally starts with inculcating the basic tools of a given competency, rather than with performance-based tasks.

3.2. Maintenance of Objective-Based Pedagogy

Roegiers (2010) maintains that "the learning of resources can be introduced through the objective-based principles ..." (p.81). If students are not ready or accustomed to problem solving tasks, and if teachers are only used to traditional teaching practices; they can maintain their learning styles and teaching styles respectively. Nevertheless, these old practices should not be perpetuated complacently; instead, integration experiences at later stages should teach them to acquire problem-solving skills and the spirit of team work and thus get rid of transmission model and analytic/reductionist methods.

3.3. Horizontal Transfer

In integration pedagogy, learners can practice skills transfer horizontally through preliminary tasks before undertaking target problem-solving tasks. The frequency of complex situations during the learning process serves as milestones for gradual and secured transfer of integration skills. These intermediate tasks initiate students to problem-solving work; in Roegiers' (2010) view, they also consolidate skill retention and make learning gains more permanent. However, it should be noted that this procedure is temporary because, according to Roegiers (2010), students should progress during the learning process and get accustomed to skills integration. Later, they will be called upon to start solving problems right at the onset of instruction and learn resources while or after implementing the target task. Actually, Roegiers (2007) suggests a curriculum structured into two major phases: During the first stage, learners work on enabling skills before facing them up with complex situations; whereas, in the second stage, they start tackling complex tasks, and consequently acquire and master the skills and knowledge intrinsic to the target task simultaneously. In this way, this innovative curriculum framework combines in the long run both top-down and bottom-up learning/teaching processes.

With regard to the Anglo-Saxon competency-based framework, the concept of competency does not include its applications to novel situations; Auerbach (1986) and Collins (1983) note that CBE does not guarantee skill transfer because it is more a training program than an educational syllabus, though assumingly CBE expects students to transfer the skills they acquired for solving other tasks than those set up for them in the classroom. Although other advocates of CBE (such as Chappell, 1996) claim that a competency is not demonstrable on a single occasion and that it can be displayed in changeable contexts, this advocacy remains hypothetical because in actual practice there are no activities specifically designed to encourage skill transfer. As Ashworth and Saxton (1990) assert, it is likely to apply skills acquired in one context to another context, but this largely depends on the student personal capacities, not a product of the teaching framework. Therefore, they argue against this assumption indicating that a competency cannot be regarded as an isolated cognitive capacity detached from the context in which it acquired.

3.4. Use of Class of Situations

Unlike the Anglo-Saxon CBE, the integration pedagogy defines the student exit profile in terms of a *class of situations*, and therefore supplies competency-based students with various opportunities to transfer integration skills to similar tasks in different contexts during the learning process. Miled (2005) defines the concept of *family of situations* as a series of tasks of the same level, pertaining to a single competency or terminal integration objective. By contrast to the Anglo-Saxon approach, which targets to teach and assess a competency through the reconstruction of its elements in a *single* or *similar* task, integration pedagogy presents a class of situations, which belongs to one single competency. This syllabus component not only allows students to get various opportunities for the practice of skills integration and transfer within the confines of the classroom, but also familiarizes them with the type and nature of tasks they will face up for summative evaluation (Roegiers, 2010).

In a way the notion of a class of situation is a response to the criticism made to competency-based education with regard to students' ability to transfer integration skills acquired in the classroom to similar contexts outside the classroom. However, another important

criticism that could be raised here to this very concept of family of situations is that by organizing competencies into classes presupposes that human activities are well-organized and structured in compartmental categories and that each class employs about the same resources that could be identified and taught separately. Then, one wonders what happens to those strips of knowledge or skills that fail to fit into any of these target classes. It seems that the supporters of this approach are well aware of this weakness; and this is probably why they argue that assessment of a minimum of resources is justifiable, but it should not constitute the share of a lion in a competency-based test (Roegiers, 2005, 2010).

Nevertheless, unlike the Anglo-Saxon competency-based model, integration pedagogy has progressed in the operationalization of terminal integration objective through the use of similar intermediate tasks in varied situations within the classroom context, while CBE still operates at the level of terminal behavior objective level (Ainsworth, 1977). The latter further argues that CBE is the late materialization of behavioural objectives in that a competency consists of a sum of enabling objectives (sub-sets of a competency) practiced in isolation and displayed visibly in more inclusive tasks at the completion of instruction. Accordingly, innovation rests on the combination of discrete enabling objectives that were once promoted in behavioral objectives pedagogy.

3.5. Focus on Integration Skills

The concept of integration is considered in the integration pedagogy as the most important stage in the learning process (De Ketele, 1996; Roegiers, 2000, 2003, 2004; De Ketele & Gerard, 2005, and Miled, 2005 as cited in Roegiers, 2010, p. 81). It is when learners select on their own appropriate skills and resources and manipulate them in a novel way to solve challenging tasks that it could be stated that they are competent. This crucial phase is the 'hard' of integration pedagogy and a distinctive feature that makes it a step ahead of its antecedent pedagogy, i.e., objective-based pedagogy. Here what is important is not very much the knowledge and skills displayed as much as the ability to think critically and maneuver available data and existing knowledge and skills to deal with problematic situations that require various cognitive acts.

The term integration is also used in CBE; hence, it is not a distinctive feature of integration pedagogy. Even broad competency-based approaches are generally described as "integrated, holistic or relational" (Gonczi, 1997; Hager, 1995 as cited in Kerba, 1998, p.3). They also suggest reinvestment of the learned knowledge and skills in performance-based tasks. But, while the focus in English-speaking competency paradigm is on re-investment of specific behavioural elements of a competency, the integration pedagogy contends to tap more at the act of integration than on the product. Roegiers (2001) claims that the concept of integration was 'formalized' for the first time as a separate component of a curriculum by De Ketele (1980) through the notion of terminal integration objective (p.84). The latter has become a respectable occasion for integrating all the sub-competencies in a single activity by the end of a course of study.

4. What is Integration Pedagogy, Then? A more Realistic Pedagogy

The pedagogy of integration can be viewed as a simplified version of CBE in that it attempts to make concrete the broad principles of this American educational movement. In an

interview the researcher carried out with X. Roegiers who champions this teaching approach, Roegiers defines integration pedagogy in the following terms:

The pedagogy of integration is one way of viewing CBA; it is a methodological framework that substantiates CBA. CBA is initially a set of broad ideas that require a methodological framework to make them operational, then the pedagogy of integration provides an operational framework for a concrete application of CBA. This is how I define integration pedagogy.

CBA consists of broad principles; everyone introduces these principles somehow in his way, but in the past mostly not sufficiently operational.

(Personal interview, translated from French to English, January 11, 2016)

In other words, integration pedagogy is the application of the principles of CBE in a more concrete and doable way. The vague CBE's principles are carefully operationalized and structured to make learning through integration and complex situations carefully monitored and less 'risky', i.e., easily exploitable by its users.

5. Conclusion

This review of the history of integration pedagogy shows that this form of instruction has come as another strong reaction to the dysfunctional objective-based pedagogy, which seems outdated for the requirements of modern times; that is, integration pedagogy cannot pretend originality in its attempt to surpass and improve on performance-based objectives. The reexamination of the objective-based pedagogy had already been considered in the US educational sphere before it was undertaken in the French-speaking countries.

Besides, societal factors had also their bearing on the introduction of CBI in both sides of the Atlantic. CBE has always been considered the lever of school reforms throughout the world in modern times. In the United State, CBE has been regarded an alternative to the downfall of Audiolingualism since the Sputnik event (Soviet Union launching the first artificial satellite before the US); in the Francophone countries and later in developing countries, on the other hand, the adoption of CBE in the 1980s has been a response to societal needs and a solution to the dysfunctional educational systems.

Furthermore, this inquiry has shown that probably the principal contribution of the pedagogy of integration is, rather, its effort to structure learning through competencies by framing specific guidelines for implementation and evaluation of competencies through various syllabus specifications that can substitute to the lack of a clear learning methodological guidance. Amongst these syllabus interventions, the following salient characteristics deserve to be highlighted: defining the learner exit profile in terms of class of situations, use of transmission model of teaching as a transitory solution to the teacher and the learner unpreparedness for implementing complex tasks, and extended and careful practice of resources through intermediate learning task. It could be said then that this methodological design scaffolds students in progressing and getting the required skills to solve complex tasks even in the most difficult teaching contexts such as those in underprivileged setting in developing countries.

Finally, this study suggests for teachers, syllabus designers, program evaluators, and scholars to approach the pedagogy of integration as a distinct competency-based teaching model.

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Multimodal Writing: The Case of Graffiti

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the effectiveness of utilizing graffiti as a pedagogical tool in English as a second language (ESL) classrooms to teach second language (L2) writing. Within the theoretical frameworks of the multimodal social semiotic theory and an arts-integrated language pedagogy, this paper examines how graffiti can be perceived as both a form of art and a multimodal mode of literacy. In order to argue for graffiti as a form of art that is multimodal, this article presents a review of recent studies and literature on multimodal literacy and art-based strategies to teach English. Findings of the study suggest that graffiti can be conceptualized as a form of art that represents a mixture of words and drawings as semiotic resources that can be used to reflect upon critical meanings, allowing students to link the two pathways of visual and linguistic, and gaining deep, structured knowledge in ways that are productive for students' achievement as writers. As a multimodal literacy, graffiti empowers second language (L2) learners to contribute as critical thinkers, transforming available semiotic resources to make meanings that reflect their interests and deep, transformative understandings of the world. Arguing for graffiti as a form of art that is multimodal, the author illustrates that graffiti can be used in (ESL) classrooms as a way to empower (L2) learners, strengthening their voices to express themselves creatively. The researcher suggests that further research is needed to assess the impact of utilizing graffiti in (ESL) classrooms to enhance (L2) writers' literacy skills. Implications for further research are also discussed.

Keywords: art, graffiti, meaningful literacy, meaning-making, multimodality

Introduction

The current understanding of the role of new technologies in classrooms is that they will change learning and that they will change it for the better (Jewitt, 2006). Gee (1989) explains that literacy is a powerful force “that leads to logical, critical, analytical thinking, general and abstract uses of language” (p. 5). On the other hand, in the age of technology, literacy has been defined as a multimodal process in which all modes are critically interpreted and their interactions considered a useful one (Kress, 2003). However, multimodality should not always be attributed to the presence of technology, but with the notion of multiliteracies. Thus, while acknowledging the importance of new technologies to enhance teaching of composition in (ESL) classrooms, an equal significance should be attributed to arts, and more specifically to graffiti as both a form of art and a multimodal mode of literacy.

The traditional perception of literacy limits learning to students acquiring certain information directly from the teacher or (the textbook), the transmitter of knowledge, which marginalizes the roles of students, as well as teachers who function as facilitators of students’ discovery of the facts (Kress, Jewitt, Ogborn, & Tsatsarelis, 2014). The focus on the concept of literacy in its most restricted sense as a matter of competencies in reading, writing, and speaking reflects the “dominant view of learning as primarily a linguistic accomplishment” (Kress et al., 2014, p. 28; The New London Group, 1996). From a multimodal perspective, Jewitt (2006) argues that this conception of literacy fails to address how meaning is embedded in other modes of representation. Thus, the perception of language as the central means of representation and communication is no longer tenable (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001). In his description of this ‘New Media Age,’ Kress (2003) illustrates that “the screen is beginning to take the place of the book,” which “alter[s] the relations of the means by which we represent our meanings, bringing image into the center of communication” (p. 9). Accordingly, within a multimodal literacy, writing does not fully account for all the meaning and “we can no longer treat literacy (or ‘language’) as the sole, the main, let alone the major means of representation and communication” (Kress, 2003, p. 35). In other words, language becomes one mode of communication among others (van Leeuwen, 2015) because of its representational inadequacy (Norton, 2006).

As explained by Albers and Sanders (2010), the immersion of “art, multimodality, and 21st century literacy redefines the world of literacy and our understanding of what it means to be literate” (p. 2). In this new media age, being literate involves being able to create a “range of paper-based and online texts,” actively participate in virtual settings (classroom, Twitter, Facebook), and “critically analyze multimodal texts that integrate visual, musical, dramatic, digital, and new literacy” (Albers & Sanders, 2010, p. 2). Gee (2003) suggests that these new ways of engagement with the world redefine our understanding of literacy and the meaning to be literate in the twenty-first century.

Multimodal literacies relative to teaching of (L2) writing are concerned with the various ways within which students are engaged with multiple languages (art, drama, music, movement, written/oral, math) and with the fundamental orientation that students learn best when involved in “complex, socially constructed, personal relevant, creative composition and interpretation of texts” that incorporate multiple semiotic resources and communication modes (Albers & Sanders, 2010, p. 4). Albers and Sanders (2010) argue that teachers of English must be

knowledgeable of the multimodal resources available to them to teach using multiple literacies, and, thus, to face the challenge of teaching students of varying English language skills and with different literacy skills.

Research on aesthetic education in formal educational settings shows pedagogical value. Arts-integrated curricula helps to reflect on meaningful experiences (Greene, 2001) and introduce opportunities for meaningful expression and personal discovery (Hanauer, 2011). Aesthetic education embodies

the entire field of art in which lines, colors, forms, and their structures, motions and interrelations are used to create visually, auditorily and/or kinesthetically perceptible works. These include painting, drawing, sculpture, printmaking, pottery, architecture, industrial design, photography, cinematography, textile arts, basketry, typographical arts, multimedia arts, vocal and instrumental music, dance and indigenous forms of visual artistic expression. (Spina, 2006, p. 99)

Robinson (2011) correlates arts-integrated curricula to greater student success. Similar to Robinson's (2011), Dai (2010) acknowledges the essentiality of using arts-integrated curricula as a way to promote critical thinking and enhance the quality of educational outcomes. Introducing an arts-based language pedagogy to (L2) learners in a Korean context, Criag and Porter (2014) assert that they "re-discover some of [their] students' social worlds and find that even those with more basic levels of English proficiency [are] capable of producing nuanced and politically salient opinions of power structures, of seeing themselves as subjects within them, and of engaging in artistic practices that [make] their resistance to such positions a visible and viable part of classroom literacies" (p. 46). Based on findings of these studies, graffiti used as part of an arts-integrated pedagogy might support the development of (L2) students as writers.

Graffiti can be perceived as a sign system with its own unique semiotic resources and internal representational grammar as it may have the same profound effect on students who learn through arts and multimodal literacies. More specifically, the author argues that graffiti can be understood as a form of multimodal literacy because it empowers (L2) learners to enter the conversation of scholars without being hindered by their level of language proficiency, presents the opportunity for students to be critical thinkers who are able to transform available semiotic resources to make meanings, reflecting their interests, deep, and transformative understanding of the world, which is the core value of multimodal learning and the characteristics of arts and multimodal literacies of the twenty-first century.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the effectiveness of utilizing graffiti as a pedagogical tool to promote (L2) writing skills. Within the theoretical frameworks of the multimodal social semiotic theory and an arts-integrated language pedagogy, this paper examines how graffiti can be conceptualized as both a form of art and a multimodal mode of literacy to enhance (L2) writing skills.

Research Questions

The focus of this article is to address two research questions:

- (1) In which ways does the use of graffiti within an (ESL) context enforce principles of the multimodal literacy approach to learning?
- (2) In which ways does the use of graffiti within an (ESL) context foster values of arts-integrated learning?

Theoretical Background

Graffiti as a Meaningful Literacy

As graffiti stands as a power to social change (Idding et al., 2011), it can be recognized as a form of literacy. Graffiti strengthens the voices of marginalized individuals, most of whom afford minimal social participations due to their inability to read and write. Graffiti can represent a social discourse that distributes power among various individuals in the community, especially those who have no voice to contribute to social transformation because of being poor and uneducated. In this sense, literacy can be identified as not merely “reading the words,” but also “reading the world” (Freir, 1998, as cited in Iddings, McCafferty, & de Silva, 2011, p. 7). For example, for poor, uneducated communities in Brazil, graffiti is empowering because it symbolizes a critical state of consciousness in which these communities participate as critical minds within unstatic conditions of world and words. Hence, the perception of literacy as a social condition that empowers individuals to social change is the core value of graffiti. This is to say that graffiti embodies the notion of literacy as not merely a reflection of individuals’ abilities to read and write, but also a social condition that empowers individuals to think critically, to understand their own realities, and to make new interpretations of reality, in order to contribute creatively.

As it is able to contribute implied meanings while connecting to the social and ecological system, graffiti can no longer be limited to be defined as a “combination of different codes, lettering, stenciling, drawing, and painting,” but a voice to empower communities (Idding et al., 2011, p. 8). According to Idding et al. (2011), the exospheric indexicality in Brazilian graffiti creates an exceptional context in which it becomes “part of the fabric of the ecosocial semiotic environment of a neighborhood” (p. 8). This exemplifies an integrated context in which graffiti does not only connect to the ecological system of the environment, but also to the society in which it occurs (Idding et al., 2011). As a process of meaning-making, graffiti that relates to the ecological system of an environment stands as a powerful representation of the interrelationship between “the internal semiotic of the sign [and] the external emplacement of the sign” (Scollonand & Scollonand, 2003, as cited in Idding et al., 2011, p. 8). Therefore, graffiti can be acknowledged as a form of ideological literacy that is uniquely attributed to serve a community while standing as an expressive medium of individuality.

Graffiti does not only intertwine with distribution of power within communities, but also with the notion of expressing the self effectively, even if one has no access to either reading or writing. It expands potentialities for community participation while reflecting on a certain perception of a social issue, even if participants are illiterate. In this sense, graffiti fosters critical awareness and consequently carries social change. As reported by a community member in Idding et al.’s (2011) study, graffiti makes her “stop and think” (p. 17). Therefore, graffiti promotes democracy in the sense of sharing information and other forms of social and cultural stands. In addition, it empowers individuals to function as social actors. These social actors create a complex landscape of integrated meanings. Accordingly, graffiti can be viewed as a

production of society and a center of meaningful social interactions that foster change.

Multimodal Social Semiotic Theory

As Jewitt (2006) describes, multimodality in which all modes of communication are attended as part of the process of making meaning is based upon Halliday's social semiotic theory of communication. As indicated by Jewitt (2006), the main idea underpinning Halliday's social semiotic theory of communication is that language is social and that language is the way it is because of the social functions it serves in people's lives (as cited in Jewitt, 2006). In this sense, the theory of social semiotics describes language as being related to materialistic aspects, as well as shaped by social and cultural contexts. Therefore, within this perception of meaning-making as related to semiotic resources or modes of communications, the social semiotic theory of communication illustrates that meaning are not merely implied within written linguistic texts, but can be conveyed through music, speech, sound, action, and visual communication that can be used to make meaning (Jewitt, 2006). As explained by Jewitt (2006), these resources are "signifier-material" for meaning-making (making of signs) (p. 17). Thus, semiotic systems offer a new way of "thinking about semiotic resources and the role of the sign maker in the process of making meaning" (Jewitt, 2006, p. 17). Accordingly, the emphasize should no longer be focused on how to use semiotic resources to convey meaning, but on the role of "sign-makers" as designers of multimodal meanings.

The multimodal social semiotics theory extends Halliday's theory of understanding meaning as represented in a range of modes. The multimodal theory to learning focuses on the ways in which modes are combined to make meaning and on individuals' processes of meaning-making (Jewitt, 2006). It is the process in which people make choices from a network of alternatives, including writing, music, speech and sound, and action, as well as visual communication to make meaning (Jewitt, 2006). Therefore, signs are a product of a social process of sign-making in which a person (sign maker) brings together a semiotic resource (a signifier) with a meaning (the signified) that they want to express (Jewitt, 2006, p. 18). The meaning of a multimodal text is shaped by the signmakers' choices from a range of meaning-making systems that resonate the interest of a particular communication situation (Kress et al., 2014).

According to The New London Group (1996), language, visual and other modes of meaning-making are dynamic representational resources that function as webs of structures within which the interest of the sign-maker is expressed and the understanding that different semiotic resources have different affordances for meaning-making. Because each semiotic resource has different organizing logic, it also has different affordances for meaning-making. For example, meaning encoded in visual images may offer an indication differs from meaning encoded in oral language. While the former might hold more spatial kind on meaning, the later represents ideas in a more sequential manner (Kress et al., 2014). As Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) further explain, meaning can be made differently using different modes of representation that are "co-present in communicational ensemble" (p. 111). While reflecting upon Kress et al. (2014), the process of creating meaning in the classroom can be defined as the orchestration of the modes in which teachers and students are engaged in the sign-making process.

In accordance to The New London Group (1996), the proposed framework of Kress et al. (2014) consider students' signs as always transformative of resources that are available to learners to reflect their interests at the point of making the sign. In addition, each semiotic resources carries only part of the informational load and have a specialized task within which images have a profound effect on writing (Kress, 2003). Kress et al. (2014) explain that the semiotic systems used in the making of designs for the process of meaning-making are constantly transformative in accordance to their use by social actors. Kress et al. (2014) add that semiotic resources enter into the shaping of meaning, "both in relation to knowledge and in relation to audience" (p. 21). Therefore, multimodality proposes that different representational semiotic resources offer disparate potentials of meaning-making that can be developed by students to represent the world as knowledge.

Learning within the multimodal approach takes place when a person's view of the world is transformed (Jewitt, 2006). According to Jewitt (2006), learning includes taking a "new position to a phenomenon, a new way of talking about and describing it, and new meanings and concepts" (Jewitt, 2006, p. 28). In alignment with Kress et al.'s (2014) definition of learning, learning within the multimodal approach can be seen as a transformative, dynamic process of sign-making that does not only transform meaning, but also the sign maker.

Framing Arts and Multimodality in the English as a Second Language Classroom ***Arts, Literacy, and Graffiti as Transformative Learning Tools***

Arts-based learning is framed within the understanding that engagement with the arts is a social and literacy practice that offer a new perception of the world, "looking through the lenses of various ways of knowing, seeing, and feeling" to explore new possibilities, and, thus, find a sense of themselves as learners (Albers & Harste, 2007, p. 9). As described by Albers and Harste (2007) "the arts' often refers to the visual, musical, and performance arts, including paintings, ceramics, photographs, films, plays, storytelling, concerts, and others; the term is often associated with the word aesthetic" (p. 8). Similarly, the aesthetic elements of graffiti can be powerful to urge learners to become aware of the multiple facets of a graffiti work, including medium, textures, light, and color (Eisner, 2002) and of the significance of their marks as a way of "reading, listening, and viewing" (Albers & Harste, 2007, p. 10). However, limited amount of research explores the effect of arts-based learning on student-writers' literacy experiences as writers.

Findings of Dickinson and Werner's (2015) study indicate that art of comics, as a form of multimodal writing, holds a pedagogical value to teach writing. Similarly, graffiti may also hold the same significance as a pedagogical tool to approach (L2) writers because it shares the characteristics of comics, including the complexity of symbols and the use of a mixture of words and drawings to reflect upon critical meanings that are within and across their semiotic resources. As explained by Dickinson and Werner (2015), students in their study are asked to create their own comics to synthesize four assigned readings. In this sense, sourced comics are used by students to engage into the conversation with multiple academic sources. Using sourced comics, students are enabled to be part of the academic discourse, not only as learners, but also as active participants, even though they do not possess the same power and authority as these scholars (Dickinson & Werner, 2015). Thus, while sourced comics offer students the opportunity to engage with scholarly sources in creative ways, they also empower students to be active

agents, who are indirectly engaged in the scholarly conversation as negotiators of power, in which they might “position themselves as equals in the conversation they are entering” (p. 57). While not all students position themselves as equal in the conversation, Dickinson and Werner (2015) explain, some are encouraged to participate as a “learner, organizer, or experiencer” (p. 68). In this sense, learners position themselves as authorized to participate in the conversation while “also making explicit the power relationship they are working within” (Dickinson & Werner, 2015, p. 67). Accordingly, sourced comics, as a multimodal text, allow students to perceive themselves as powerful participants, and, thus, learn how to negotiate the real power that separates a student from a scholar. Because students are engaged in the scholarly conversation without being required to speak with expertise scholars, source comics are a powerful learning tool that offer students “with the opportunity to make their sources speak their language, rather than the other way around” (Dickinson & Werner, 2015, p. 70).

Besides being powerful as “make[ing] visible the many ways that allow students to rethink scholarly conversation”, sourced comics help students to transform as being more active learners and critical thinkers, and, thus more compelled to contribute to “the conversation of how identity, authority, and academic discourse interact” (Dickinson & Werner, 2015, p. 71). Accordingly, sourced comics as a tool to multimodal writing, is not merely a means to an alphabetic end, but also a tool to enhance students’ interactions and cognitive understanding of scholarly materials (Dickinson & Werner, 2015). Therefore, while students work through the constraints of the alphabetic literacies, comic resources allow students the opportunity to reflect upon the relationship to and among the source materials, and, thus, to hear their voices and the voices of the scholars because of the range of extensive and complex representational possibilities that are offered by sourced comics (Dickinson & Werner, 2015). As emphasized by The New London Group (1996), using multiple modes expands literacy to include “competent control of representational forms, such as visual images and their relationship to the written word” (p. 61). This is to say that as “writing is a way of searching in order to see,” comics offer the potentiality to see beyond the alphabetic text, and, thus, to build critical competencies” (Dickinson & Werner, 2015, p. 55). As comics offer students the opportunity to see beyond language, it is a source of learning that can be used effectively to achieve composing purposes (Dickinson & Werner, 2015). As asserted by Dickinson and Werner (2015), the complexity of the sourced comics inspire students to reflect upon a variety of meaning-making strategies which look beyond words and paragraphs, to “build critical competencies,” while thinking “critically about the assumptions embedded in alphabetic literacies” and “break down the barriers that text is often thought to erect,” and in turn can be used as a valuable multimodal source for multimodal writing (p. 55). As a matter of fact, writing from an arts-advocacy position proves to expand meaning potential in literacy learning. In a similar manner, graffiti as a sign system, has “something unique to contribute to meaning” (Albers & Sanders., 2010, p. 29).

Similar to sourced comics, graffiti contributes to create a space for students to communicate deeper, more thoughtful multimodal meanings because each communicative mode offers a “full range of features that make up conversation: inflection, gesture, interruption, spatial positioning, and visual cues” (Dickinson & Werner, 2015, p. 56). As sourced comics facilitates students’ entrance into the academic discourse, graffiti might also be empowering for students to enter the public discourse and to express controversial contents publicly (Hannauer, 2011). In a study examines the use of sourced comics in an (ESL) classroom, students participated as

powerful agents and critical thinkers because they were empowered by the use of comics to engage as part of the conversation regardless of their level of proficiency of English, using the language of art that profound their writing and enhance their perspectives and understandings of the scholarly abstract ideas (Hannah et al., 2015). In this sense, through an art-integrated learning, students do not only transform meaning, but also transform themselves as empowered to express their deep interpretations of the world while negotiating power in the public, as well as academic arenas.

Albers and Sanders (2010) share examples of teachers and students engaging in various art forms as parallel to literacy learning. Examples of English language learning and arts pairings that are discussed in the Albers and Sanders' book (2010) include the use of opera and fairy tales (Blecher & Burton, 2010), filmmaking and short stories (Robbins, 2010), and drawing and essay writing (Zoss, Siegesmund, & Patisaul, 2010). As Albers and Sanders (2010) assert, "The arts encourage a different type of language learning, one that enables children to authentically tell their cultured stories, to speak through art, and to understand stories more deeply through informed viewing of art" (Sanders & Albers, 2010, p. 8).

As Zoss et al. (2010) argue, for students who struggle with language, an art-based strategy of "moving from the nonlinguistic to the linguistic can be a critical type of pedagogical intervention (p. 152). The students' emotional engagement with learning are evident in their essays as these students are able to do something that they could not do before (Zoss et al., 2010). Thus, students are able to move across the semiotic resources, "from the realm of visual thinking to the universe of oral and written language;" students are able to "create parallel pathways for creating meaning: one visual, the other linguistic" (p. 153). Thus, as Zoss et al. (2010) explain, by allowing students to link the two pathways of visual and linguistic, students gain deep, structured knowledge in ways that is productive for students' achievement as writers. Likewise, graffiti, with its complex multimodal text, combining visual and verbal modes of representation, it may also assess students in reaching "deeper" and "significant" goals in linguistic composition (Zoss et al., 2010, p. 153). Eisner (2002) writes, "In a metaphorical sense, becoming multiliterate means being able to inscribe or decode meaning in different forms of representation" (p. 22). Therefore, arts-integrated multimodal learning, specifically graffiti may also hold valuable pedagogical implications for teaching English as a second language because, as a form of art, it presents "new possibilities for matters of representation" that "can stimulate our imaginative capacities and can generate forms of experience that would otherwise not exist" (Eisner, 2003, p. 381).

An Arts-integrated Multimodal Literacy

Graffiti as an arts-based literacy is multimodal because it offers exceptional opportunities to express the ways through which (L2) learners encounter the world (Greene, 2001). Kress's (2003) multimodal theory demonstrates that "the world told is a different world to the world shown" (p. 1). Similarly, Albers and Sanders (2010) explain "one must see in order to have something to say" (p. 136). In this sense, works of art expand students' opportunities to participate thoughtfully. This is to say that arts-based literacies indulge students in interactive processes through which they express deep structures of meaning. Arts can be seen as a multimodal literacy because learning through the arts, Greene (2001) argued, develops different forms of thinking in which learners position themselves as active participants rather than passive

receivers of knowledge. Accordingly, students will be able to pursue a deeper understanding of meaning while composing to construct informed perceptions of their everyday life. As one of the characteristics of multimodal literacies is to empower students to convey more critical, reconstructed understanding of the world, arts can be seen as multimodal because it has the same profound effect on students' writing. Graffiti, used as arts-integrated multimodal literacy, emphasizes the same values of multiliteracy learning within which learners are transformed as part of the learning process. Supported by the use of art, students will develop adequate writing skills to enhance their abilities to use composition for purposes of inquiry, learning, and critical thinking. Therefore, graffiti can be utilized within (ESL) classrooms, promoting the conception of multiliteracies as a tool to transformative learning, and, thus, to enhance students' writing literacy skills.

Multimodality, Graffiti, and Meaning-Making

Graffiti as a form of multimodal literacy symbolizes meanings of multilayered semiotic resources. According to Kress et al. (2014), there are three meaning-making principles that indicate three types of meanings. The first type of meaning is a representation of who does what, with or to whom, and where. This ideational meaning of semiotic modes represent what is going on in the world and concerns who does what, with or to whom, and where. The second type of meaning is interpersonal meaning, indicating the interactions and relationships between members of societies and refers to the inextricable interrelation between power and knowledge. The third meaning principle refers to textual meaning which organizes the text as a coherent account of the world (Kress et al., 2014). From a multimodal perspective, these three types of meanings are attended in and across each of the semiotic modes, which increase the complexity and depth of the meaning afforded while multiple modes of representation interact. In this sense, each mode of communication interacts with and contributes to the other. As graffiti represents these three meanings, it might offer an opportunity for (L2) learners to indicate complicated meanings without being hindered by their level of language proficiency.

While modes produce meanings in themselves, in accordance to their specific affordances, these modes intersect and interact to produce multimodal meanings (Kress et al., 2014). The distinct representational affordances of each mode lead to its functional specialization (Kress, 2003). This is to say that within the lines of different modes' affordances, different modes have its specialized meaning resources that can be combined with those of another to produce more complex multimodal meanings (Kress et al., 2014). For example, each of the textual, visual, actional, linguistic modes of communication perform a special and differently significant role to "produce different meaning-making potentials" (Kress et al., 2014, p. 20). As Hafner (2014) explains, while writing tends to convey particular kinds of meanings, image conveys others. Hafner (2014) illustrates that "writing is suited to the discussion of abstract concepts because they can be categorized by word, but may be difficult to show visually" (p. 659). Conversely, "images are suited to the depiction of finely graduated properties" (Hafner, 2014, p. 659). For example, using the mixture shades of colors one sees when looking at a tree, images can be used to show these minute details. On the other hand, language would be used to "describe the color in categorical terms, e.g., green" (Hafner, 2014, p. 659).

Multimodality describes that each of the different modes of meanings is a systematic semiotic resource, with its own internal grammar, while no mode is privileged over the other

(Hafner, 2014). As Kress et al. (2014) explain, “attention to one mode alone fails to capture the meaning of a communication event; not just that it fails to capture all the meaning, but it fails to capture the meaning” (p. 18). On the other hand, multimodality accounts for how various semiotic resources are “orchestrated” in order to create a multimodal “ensemble,” a material product which combines “a plurality of signs in different modes into particular configuration to form a coherent engagement” (Kress, 2010, p. 162). While learners “re-articulate” and “re-combine” semiotic resources of meaning-making, the outcome is a “new meaning that becomes a new meaning-making resource” (New London Group, 1996, p. 76). This new meaning is a result of a goal-directed act that is oriented towards communicating a designer’s intention while using multiple modes in the process of meaning-making (Hefner, 2014). Echoing Kress et al.’s (2014) concept of multimodal meaning, designers of graffiti are also designers of meanings. Graffiti designs require orchestration of different modes of representation that are socially constructed to create meaning. In other words, the various semiotic resources of graffiti interact and intersect constantly to create more in-depth, socially-situated meanings. As being complex and symbolic, graffiti encourages learners to reconstruct and reimagine reality to produce fully articulated meanings that reflect the depth and richness of graffiti texts.

As previously mentioned, one of the most essential features of a multimodal text is being of mixed logic. Each logic is associated with different potentials for representation. Thus, the designing of meaning lies beyond the modes that employed for the purpose of meaning-making. Meaning is rather embodied in the designing of the relations of meaning “in between” these modes of representation (Nelson, 2006). Thus, it is essential to understand that the quality of meaning is bounded by organizing different logics of different modalities which is the core notion of synaesthesia (Nelson, 2006). Synaesthetic meaning, as identified by Kress’s (2003) theoretical framework, is bounded to the co-operation of transformation and transduction. As Kress (2003) explains, transformation operates “on the forms and structures within a mode,” while transduction “accounts for the shift of semiotic material...across modes” (p. 36). On the other hand, in transduction, “designers reshape semiotic resources across modes, shifting from one mode to another for the intended meaning to be delivered” (Yang, 2012, p. 223). As Yang (2012) illustrates, designers in the process of transduction might choose to represent an idea using a video instead of a spoken language. While modes are under transformation and transduction, “the logic of presentation may no longer stay the same because the different modes may carry varying properties for the act of message delivery” (Yang, 2012, p. 223).

Therefore, meaning relies within and across different semiotic resources (Nelson, 2006). On the other hand, synaesthesia emerges as a result of multiples authoring semiotic resources (Nelson, 2006, p. 59). Nelson (2006) argues, “semiotic synaesthesia must be understood not as a purely perceptual phenomenon, but a phenomenon jointly governed by a process of sensing and sense making” (p. 59). The most important consequence of perceiving meaning within the notion of synaesthesia or sense making is that the “emergence of synaesthetic meaning can occur even when the semiotic elements involved are no longer co-present” (Neslon, 2006, p. 59). In this sense, as emphasized by Kress (2003), in a multimodal communicative practice, synaesthesia is “much of what we regard as creativity” (p. 36). Accordingly, I would argue that graffiti holds the synthetic feature of multimodality. A graffiti text is multimodal as it constitutes different semiotic resources that are designed to convey meaning according to the sign-maker interest and

communicative message. Accordingly, meaning in the multimodal text of graffiti relies within and across different semiotic resources.

While investigating the benefits of multimodal composing, Nelson (2006) examines multimodal composing in digital storytelling. Nelson (2006) argues that writers recognize the “synaesthetic relationship between the image and word” (p. 63). Such an awareness of the relationship within and across semiotic resources enhances the possibilities to indicate powerful, intentional meanings while composing (Nelson, 2006). In describing multimodal writing, Nelson (2006), illustrates that “multimodal meaning can shift diachronically from iconic to symbolic significance” (p. 63). This specific alternation, that is offered as part of the multimodal meaning, enhances the richness and depth of the words. In this case, multimodal composition offers students the opportunity to recognize “a new, more sophisticated form of semiotic relationship” (p. 63). Thus, by means of semiotic resources, it is evident that authors, while “recognizing the relations of meaning that bind semiotic modes together,” are able to increase their authorship competencies to develop a “deeper, more complete, more abstract quality of meaning that develops within the image-word sign in a multimedia composition as it progresses (Nelson, 2006, p. 62). Nelson (2006) asserts that multimodal writing offers new means by which to “experiment with and learn about structuring relations of meaning between modes, which may well be supportive as powerful expression in the future” (p. 65). Additionally, Nelson’s (2006) findings indicate that multimedia practices offer L2 writers the “freedom to communicate and negotiate meanings by means of media that are not the L2” (p. 65).

Similarly, Yang (2012) examines the English language learners’ multimodal digital story composing. When designing with multimodal forms, learners “rely on their sociocultural personal or community experiences to co-construct interpretations of these semiotic resources” which can help them to “create and develop new meanings for the semiotic resources in a new communicative context, such as in a multimodal design context” (p. 223). The use of digital story narratives allows the researcher to assert that these digital stories help (L2) learners to develop more understanding of their meaning-making processes.

Building on these studies’ findings, graffiti can be examined for its pedagogical significance. Using semiotic resources, graffiti’s special functional specializations and unique synthetic features, learners might be able to create and develop new meanings while orchestrating different semiotic modes. In addition, graffiti can also be conceived as a multimodal communicative mode, standing as “one kind of evident of what” students’ “thinking may have been like” (Kress et al., p. 152). Therefore, graffiti can be used by language teachers to help (L2) learners evolve creative, richer meanings that support their written expressions and transform their writing experiences to be more productive and creative.

Multimodality, Graffiti, and Transformative Learning

The description of multimodal learning by Kress et al. (2014) consider learners as active participants in the remaking of the signs and part of the transformative learning that occurs as the result of learners’ social interactions with different semiotic resources. These created signs mediate learners’ responses to the communicative actions through which they express their interest and share their creative visions (Kress et al., 2014). As Kress et al. (2014) explain, multimodal learning is “the perpetually transformative action of sign-making through which

students are involved in active remaking of signs according to the context of the lesson and the different interests of the teacher and the student” (p. 34). This perception of multimodal learning emphasizes The New London Group’s (1996) concept of learning as a “results of the designs of complex systems, environment, technology, beliefs and text” (p. 74). These signs stand as one kind of “evidence of learners’ thinking and learning” (Jewitt, 2006, p. 29). Kress and van Leeuwen’s (2001) assertion that all social actions are semiotic, and that all semiotic actions are social. Therefore, transformative learning can be signified as a “social action” that helps learners to create socially constructed meanings (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001). In fact, according to The New London Group (1996), design does not only transform knowledge in “producing new constructions and representations of reality,” but also transforms learners’ as meaning makers who “remake themselves as they reconstruct and renegotiate their identities” (The New London Group, 1996, p. 76).

Reflecting upon The New London Group’s (1996) understanding of designs as transformers of knowledge, of people’s relations to each other and of people themselves, graffiti, as a design of art, provides the same opportunity for learners to transform themselves, meaning, and the world in terms of knowledge that they produce while interpreting the complexity of relations in the multimodal text of graffiti. Kress (2003) and The New London Group (1996) agree on the concept that learning is a result of the sign-making process within which learners involve to rearticulate these signs in accordance to their intents and contexts. This is to say that multimodal literacy perceives the product of the design as evidence of learning, as well as a reflection of learners’ thinking and thoughts.

Graffiti can be described as a meaningful literacy that can be used as a pedagogical tool to enhance (L2) writers’ literacy skills. The use of graffiti can be conceptualized as promoting an arts-based language pedagogy, enforcing values of multimodal learning to enhance the process of learning in ways that values visual, as well as cognitive perspectives of learning.

Implications for Further Studies

Further research is needed to examine the use of graffiti as a way to enforce principles of multimodal learning. Future empirical studies may examine the effectiveness of using graffiti to enhance (L2) learners’ writing skills. Perceived as promoting values of an arts-based language pedagogy, further research is needed to investigate the impact of utilizing graffiti as a way to promote (L2) learners’ critical thinking, transforming the ways through which they approach learning and their (L2) writings.

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Jordanians Families Home Literacy Practices and Their Associated Functions in Malaysia

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Abstract

Jordanian postgraduate students and their families came to Malaysia to pursue their postgraduate studies. These families came with their own literacy practices based on their home country social and cultural aspects and they have to adjust and balance their home literacy practices to cope with the new cultural and social aspects in the host country while guarding their own cultural and social aspects. This study aims to explore Jordanian family home literacy practices types and the literacy functions associated with these practices. Twelve open-ended structured questions Interviews, 16 observations and field notes (12 during the interviews and four while sharing social events with the family) and photographs were used to collect the data from the family members over fourteen weeks. The interview questions were adopted from Alshaboul(2004) and adapted to fulfill the study objectives. The findings indicate that reading literacy practices are superior to the writing literacy practices as each main literacy practice has sub literacy practices that served sub literacy functions that eventually led to the main literacy function while the main literacy practice led directly to the main literacy function. The family most frequent and prevalent home literacy practices are social, religious, academic, educational, digital, daily living, geographical and numerical while the less frequent and prevalent home literacy functions are medical and financial. Moreover, the findings indicate that the home literacy practices are dynamic that occurred in multiple, integrated and simultaneous way that led to multiple, integrated and simultaneous literacy functions.

Keywords: comparative literacies, literacy, home literacy practices, literacy functions, multiliteracies

1. Introduction

Little is known in term of Arab families and the home literacy practices (Tibi & McLeod, 2014). Alshaboul (2004) states that the literature provides insight about the home literacy practices of families and ethnic groups of many other countries but the research literature provides no insight about the Arab families and their home literacy practices while they are living in new social and cultural context. Not only Arab scholars document this gap in literature but also many other scholars from western world recommend researchers to conduct research in the developing countries concerned with home literacy practices (Dixon & Wu, 2014; Callaway, 2012; Deporah, 2006; Williams, 2006). The perspective of the previous researchers is that home literacy practices are culturally defined and they differ from culture to another and even in the same culture. In addition, they believe that documenting the home literacy practices is better accomplished by researchers from the same culture rather than researchers from another culture. To bridge this gap, this study explores the Jordanian home literacy practices while staying in Malaysia to uncover how these families balance between coping with the new social and cultural aspects in the host country and at the same time guarding their own social and cultural aspects by discovering the families most frequent and prevalent home literacy practices and the literacy functions that are associated with these home literacy practices.

The concept of literacy is no longer referring to the ability of reading and writing as solo skills rather it incorporates social and cultural aspects. In the early twentieth century, formal literacy indicates the ability to read and write as skills which are promoted by psychological approach. The concept of formal literacy pays no attention to the cultural and social factors and considers the classroom as the best place to learn reading and writing skills. Gee (2015: 30) mention that the traditional definition of literacy is “the ability to read and write”. Gee discusses the shortages in this definition as it concentrates on individuals and neglects the multiple roles that literacy plays in the communities and suggests that the definition of literacy must be viewed from social and cultural perspective. Literacy practices must not be viewed as solo concept but they shall be viewed as fully integrated with and interwoven into wider practices that engage beliefs, values, interaction and talk.

Gee (2015: 50) Says that “countries with high literacy rates are better developed, more modern, better behaved”. One key sign for any country to be considered developed is its education system and to what extent this system varies to meet the demands not only of local students but also for international students (Mazzarol & Soutar 2002). Malaysia has seen a rapid development in all sectors especially the educational one as the international student population exceeded 90,000 students who hail from 168 countries. Malaysia is on its way towards retaining its position as one of the top 10 countries in the world with the most number of international students (MOHE 2012).

Some Jordanians come to Malaysia as permanent home or for work while the majority come for a transitional period to accomplish certain goals as education. Jordanians choose Malaysia to complete their postgraduate study coming as individuals or with their families. The English proficiency level among these students and their families can be quiet diverse with a small number having high proficiency levels and the majority with low proficiency levels (Cook 2001). Jordanians families in Malaysia try to acquire English language and to cope with the new

social and cultural aspects in the host country while at the same time maintaining and guarding their first language which is Arabic and their own social and cultural aspects in a balanced way. Jordanian social and cultural aspects are considered very important for these families as they express their identity keeping in mind these families eventually have to go back to Jordan after accomplishing their goals so maintaining the Arabic language and Jordanian social and cultural aspects is vital for the family members.

Exploring the Jordanian home literacy practices helps in stabilizing the study abroad experience of these families. As established, Jordanians come with their families to Malaysia for various purposes such as education, work or making Malaysia their permanent home, and they face many challenges in acquiring English language for educational and social purposes while maintaining command in the Arabic language. On the other hand, these families would face the challenges of maintaining their social and cultural identities in a balanced way while adjusting and coping with the new social and cultural aspects in the host country.

2. Review of Literature

According to Teale and Yokota (2000), the schools of literacy vary from those who focus on text (linguistic), mind (cognitive psychologists), group identity (socio-cultural) and classroom (educational). Literacy is viewed solely as the ability to read and write, this view concentrates on the language skills that best acquired in the classroom. From the researcher perspective, Literacy as the ability to read and write or also known as formal literacy has two main shortcomings: the first, classrooms are considered as the best place for the occurrence of such literacy neglecting that literacy can also be occurred anytime and anywhere such as at home, the street or the mall. The second shortcoming is the focus is paid only to the language skills such as learning vocabulary and structures neglecting the importance role of literacy in the human social and cultural domains.

Scholars start to view literacy from new perspective so Taylor (1983) is the first to use and coin the term of family literacy which is concerned with investigating the home literacy environment and the ways in which the parents can mediate and facilitate their children literacy learning. McGee & Morrow (2005) elaborate on the family literacy as the ways that people learn and use literacy in their home and community lives. Many researchers use the family literacy term in their studies and many others start to question about the nature of this concept (Jacobs, 2004). Family literacy is viewed as literacy practices that are related to home literacy learning so the parents are considered the first teachers to their children. Parents, siblings and relatives have the direct impact on children literacy teaching at home (Jacobs, 2004).

Gee (2015: 42-43) mentions that the traditional view to literacy as the ability to read and write is questioned by many researchers in 1980s and “the New Literacy Studies” term is emerged. This concept is first mentioned by Gee 1980s work and later by many other researchers (Barton *et al.* 2000; Cook-Gumperz 1986; Gee 1989a, 1992; Halliday & Hasan 1989; Heath 1983; Lankshear & Knobel 2007; Street 1984, 1993; Wertsch 1991; Larson & Marsh 2005; Pahl & Rowsell 2005, 2006; Rogoff 1990; Rogoff & Lave 1984 & Scribner & Cole 1981). Gee (2015:44) states that the argument for calling for the notion of “the New Literacy Studies” is based on the idea that being able to read demanded being able to understand the text. There are many types of texts (legal, newspaper, poetry and novel) which demanded different backgrounds

knowledge. Even in one type of text, readers might understand it in different ways or the text provided different level for understanding the meaning. Hence, readers should have multiple abilities to understand the texts of certain types in certain ways; therefore, ability is considered literacy by itself.

Schultz and Hull (2002) view literacy as an output resulting from emerging social interactions, institutional influences and individual identities and their relation with people's actions regarding print materials. The New London Group (1996) presents the term Multiliteracies or new literacies. Cope & Kalantzis (2009) elaborate more on the multiliteracies that English become a common language worldwide that means there are multi Englishes and there are multi types of texts that all lead to multiliteracies. Street (2012) proposes the "ideological model" to understand the literacy from social practices perspective and different literacies emerge from different ideologies. Ideological model is contrasting autonomous model that views literacy as an abstract solo concept standing by its own. Street mentions that thinking of literacy in isolation of its social practices leads to dead end

The socio-cultural approach to literacy researchers indicates that literacy by its self had no effects if it is segregated from its historically and culturally situated social practices (Barton and Hamilton 2012& Cook-Gumperz,2013). Heath (1983) suggests that what is more important than the ability to read and write is the social practices that are used by a social group and there is no meaning for literacy if it is extracted from its cultural contexts in which it is used, and it has different effects according to different cultural and social contexts. Street(2014) defines literacy as:

Ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve their goals, to develop their knowledge and potential, and to participate fully in their community and wider society . (P.42)

3. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical lens guide this study are Vygotsky (1978) socio-cultural theory and Leontieva (1981) activity theory. Windschitl (2000:99) elaborates how socio-cultural theory oriented learning as individuals learning occurs socially and with interaction with others who enrich the environment of learning by different social tools and practices. Vygotsky (1978) believe that learners (children) are in interaction with others (parents) in a social context (home).By using tools (books, stories and newspapers) and being scaffold by more capable people (parents), this leads to a better interaction between the parents and their children in a social context (home) and the frequent and variation of tools that promote literacy learning are all means to mediate children literacy learning. In the present study, the mediators are two; the mediator agents exemplified by the parents and the artifacts agent exemplified by the literacy artifacts and materials. Parents are considered scaffolders to their children literacy learning while the sociocultural context is the Jordanian home literacy practices while being in Malaysia.

In activity theory, the focus is on the activity itself rather than the individuals. The activity is considered as an interaction process that demanded subjects and objects beside actions

and operations. In this study, the subjects are the family members (fathers, mothers and children). The objects are the literacy materials and artifacts that are engaged in the literacy activities. The actions or activities are how the family members employed these literacy materials in their literacy practices inside and outside home and what literacy functions they served. The actions might be individual or shared home literacy practices such as when the father reading an academic article or writing a review for it or when the mothers reading or writing with and to their children. The theoretical framework guided this study is illustrated in figure1

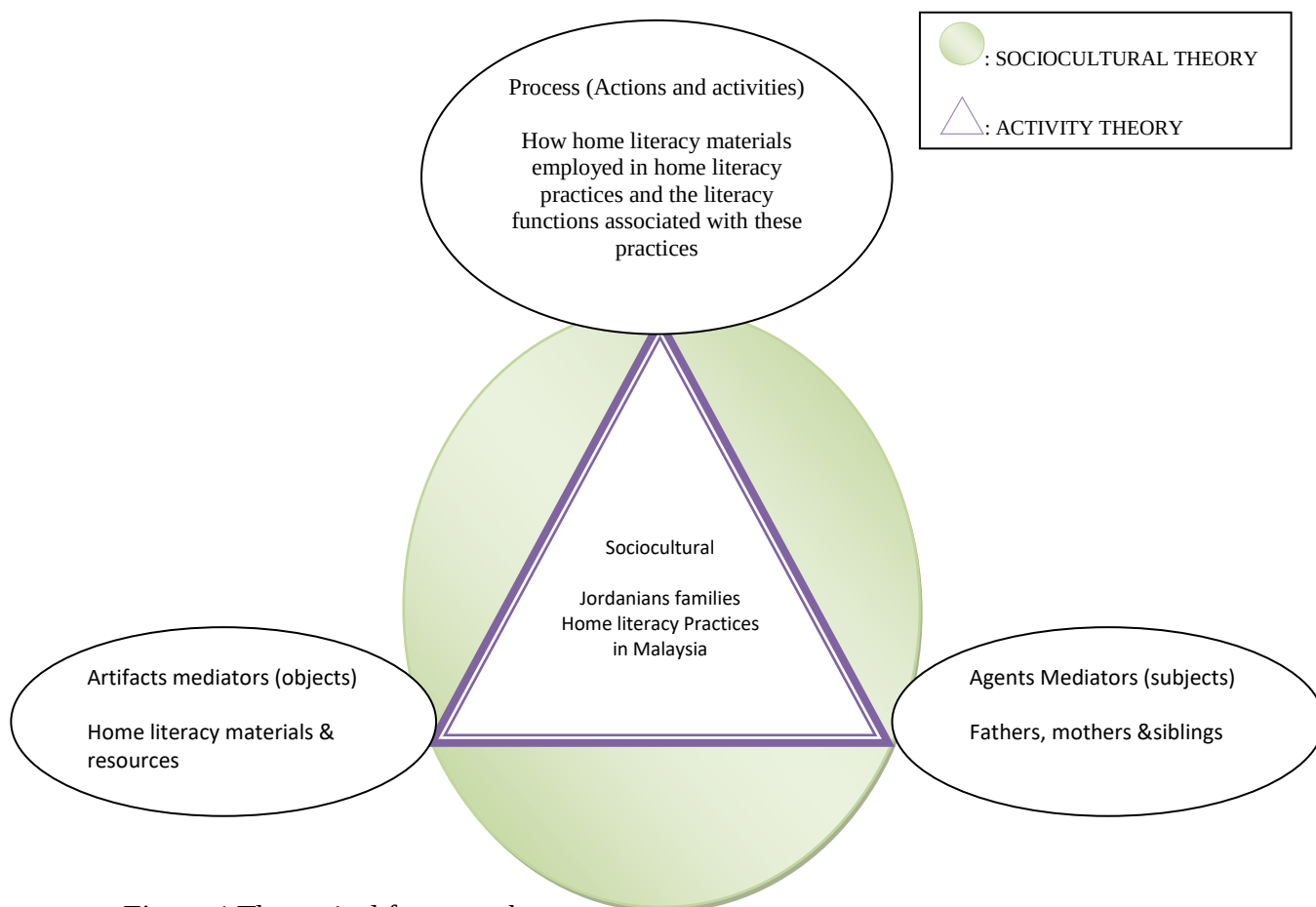


Figure 1 Theoretical framework

4. Research Context

The main purpose of this qualitative ethnography study is to explore the most frequent Jordanian home literacy practices and the literacy functions associated with these literacy practices. Socio-cultural context indicated the setting where learning occurs through the interaction of people. The social-cultural context in this study includes family members, home environment, literacy materials and resources and cultural differences. The socio-cultural context of the present study could be defined as Jordanians family home literacy practices that occurred in Malaysia. It meant by home literacy practices that occurred inside and outside home (except school) among and between the family members. The home literacy practices that are mediated by home (parents) through using literacy practices and activities and enriching home with

literacy materials and resources that promote literacy learning at home in both languages Arabic and English as shown in figure 2.

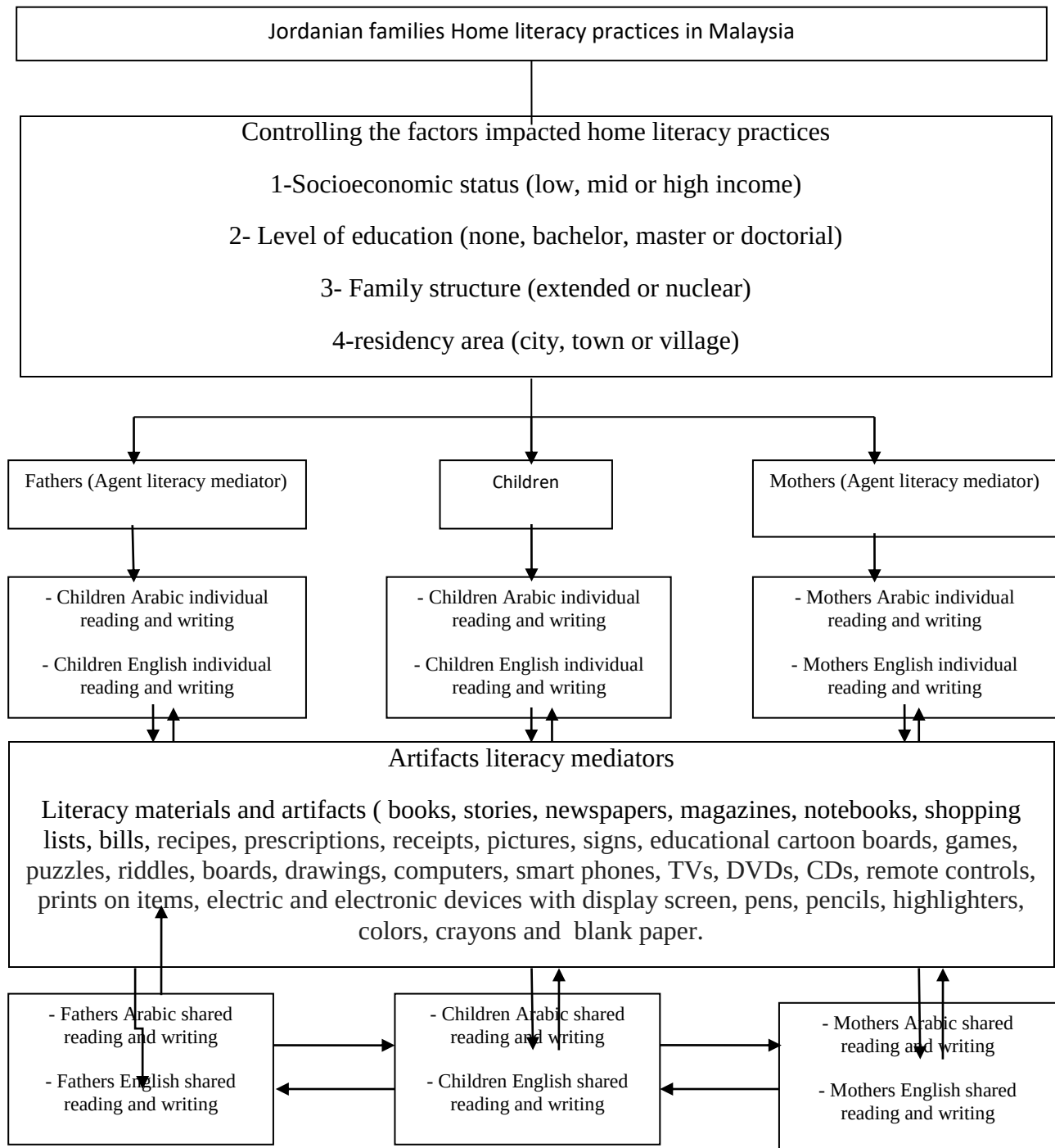


Figure2 Conceptual framework

5. Methodology

5.1 The participant family profile

This study targeted four Jordanian families who have been in Malaysia for at least two years and planned to stay in Malaysia more than one year which is the period of conducting this study. The four families were divided into two groups. Group one included two families where the fathers were pursuing their postgraduate studies and the mothers were housewives while the second group included two families where the fathers were working and the mothers were pursuing their postgraduate studies. All the families had two to three children, one of whom is 10-12 years old. The main focus was on the fathers, mothers and children between the ages of 10-12 and their home literacy practices. Table 1 illustrates the participants' division.

Table 1. *Participants profile*

Participants			
Group one Two families		Group two Two families	
Fathers	Postgraduate students	Fathers	Working
mothers	Housewives	mothers	Postgraduate students
Children	One is 10-12 years old	Children	One is 10-12 years old

The families were from the middle-class as the fathers were employed in the government or private sector in Jordan. The families were self financed paying their tuition fees and living expenses from their own pockets. The families were living in flats in a housing complex with average monthly rental 800 Malaysian Ringgit and they owned cars with average cost 5000 MR. The children attended Arabian schools near their living places. Tables 3.2, 3.3, (3.4 and 3.5) give more details about the participants as they assigned anonymous names.

The full description of each family history is given in chapter four when reporting each family home literacy practices but initial information about each family is illustrated here to indicate how the families are homogeneous in term of the level of education, staying period in Malaysia, previous occupation and age.

Table 2. *Mustafa family*

Family members	Years in Malaysia	Age	Previous occupation	Current occupation	Education Level
Mustafa (father)	3	33	Lecturer	Postgraduate student	Master- B.A Jordan
Mayes (mother)	3	33	housewife	housewife	B.A- Jordan
Aseel (Daughter)	3	11	School student	School student	Grade 5

Areej (Daughter)	3	7	Grade 3 Kindergarten student	School student	Grade1

Table 3. *Saleh family*

Family members	Years in Malaysia	Age	Previous occupation	Current occupation	Education Level
Saleh (father)	3	34	Lecturer	Doctorial candidate in IT	Bachelor & Master in IT - Jordan
Huda (mother)	3	30	Housewife	housewife	Bachelor in Civil Engineering- Jordan
Ahmed (Son)	3	10	School Student Grade 2	School student	Grade 4
Lama (Daughter)	3	6	Kindergarten student	School student	Grade1

Table 4. *Majada family*

Family members	Years in Malaysia	Age	Previous occupation	Current occupation	Education Level
Jehad (father)	5	40	Employer in public sector	Food Restaurant owner	B.A in IT/ Jordan
Majada (mother)	5	35	housewife	Postgraduate student	B.A in BA- Jordan MBA/ Malaysia
Raneem (Daughter)	5	12	Grade 1 student	School/student	Grade 6 /student
Souha (Daughter)	5	9	Kindergarten student	School student	Grade 3 Student

Table 5. *Dounia family*

Family Members	Years in Malaysia	Age	Previous occupation	Current occupation	Education Level
Eimad (father)	5	40	Electrical engineer	Food restaurant owner	B.A/ Jordan
Dounia (mother)	5	35	School teacher	Postgraduate student	B.A- Jordan Master IT/ Malaysia
Ghada (Daughter)	5	11	School student Grade 1	School student	Grade 5
Mayia	5	8	Kindergarten	school	Grade2

(Daughter)			student	student	
Yousef	5	5	-	Kindergarten	-
(son)				student	

5.2 Data collection methods

The families were contacted to assign appointment with them to describe the study procedures and informed that the study would last for fourteen weeks during this period interviews, observations, handwritten field notes and photographs would be conducted and the family members' names would be anonymous. The interviews dates would be assigned with them via phone calls or messages according to their free time except four visits would be assigned with them instantly upon call with no previous arrangements.

In 2014, the four families approved to participate by signing the consent form. The first few visits were to gain general information about the family members such as their ages, their education level, and their previous and current jobs. In Addition, the first visits were also to gain insight about families home such as size, design, the availability, frequency and variation of literacy materials and artifacts, the family social and cultural daily activities and to determine the characteristics of the family home surrounding area such as distance to universities and schools, Arab food markets, Arab food restaurants, the housing complex facilities and the services centers facilities.

Twelve interviews and sixteen hand-written field notes based on the researcher observations were conducted during the visits to the families' home. Twelve observations were conducted during the interviews and four during participating the families' social and cultural daily activities specifically eating with them in an Arab restaurant and shopping from a mall. In addition to the interviews and observations, photographs were captured of the family home literacy materials and practices.

During the interviews, the families' literacy materials and practices were observed. The field notes were written down in keywords and expanded fully in paragraphs latter by the researcher in a way that could easily be understood when referring to them. All the interviews were audio recorded so after finishing each interview, the researcher went back home immediately and transcribed it. The transcribed manuscripts were revised before sending a copy via email to the families to review it for accuracy purpose. See Appendix A for the interview questions.

Regarding the fields notes, they were expanded immediately by writing more explanations and elaborations on them. The field notes mainly concerned with the family members literacy practices and the literacy materials and artifacts available in home. After expanding each field note, it was sent via email to the families to review it for accuracy purpose. Regarding the photographs, they were captured by the researcher smart phone camera or shared from their social media applications such as Facebook, Whatsapp or viber. All the Photos were treated by cutting or erasing parts of them that exposed the families' identity and were sent to the families via email to be checked and approved. As the families approved interview

manuscripts, expanded field note manuscripts and the photos, the analysis procedures were started. Below are samples of the interview, field notes and photos.

5.3 Data analysis procedures

Data were collected over fourteen weeks through open ended question interviews, observations and field notes and photographs. The family interview questions were adopted from AlShobol (2004) and developed by the researcher so each group of the questions fulfilled a sub objective, see Appendix A. During the fourteen weeks, 12 interviews were conducted, 16 field notes based on the researcher observations were written down and plenty of photographs were captured. All the interviews, field notes and photographs explored the families most and less frequent and prevalent home literacy practices and determined the literacy functions associated with these home literacy practices.

The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed immediately after each interview. The field notes were expanded in full paragraphs to describe the observed literacy practices or materials. Each manuscript of the interviews and field notes was revised then sent via email to the families to be revised for the purpose of accuracy and trustworthy. As they were approved, each manuscript was read three times. The first reading was to highlight any word, phrase or sentence related to literacy practices such as individual Arabic reading practices (IAR), shared Arabic reading practices (SAR), individual Arabic writing practices (IAW), shared Arabic writing practices (SAW), individual English reading practices (IER), shared English reading practices (SER), individual English writing practices (IEW) and shared English writing practices (SEW). The second reading was to identify the literacy materials and types of reading and writing (who, when, where and with whom) assigned to each literacy practices. The third reading was to identify the frequency of each literacy practices. These literacy practices, literacy materials, types of reading and writing and frequency were given codes as illustrated in table

(6). Table 6. *Coding and categorizing method*

First Round of Coding	
Literacy practices	code
individual reading practices in Arabic	IRA
shared reading practices in Arabic	SRA
individual reading practices in English	IRE
shared reading practices in English	SRE
individual writing practices in Arabic	IWA
shared writing practices in Arabic	SWA
individual writing practices in English	IWE
shared writing practices in English	SWE
Second Round of Coding	
Reading materials	RMs
Writing materials	WMs
Types of Reading	TR
Types of Writing	TW
Third Round of Coding	

Frequency of Reading	FR
Frequency of Writing	FW

The reading process occurred gradually to each approved manuscript. I read line by line and highlighted the portion either a word, group of words or sentences that served my codes. The coding process helped in categorizing such codes in tables to the family members in an organized way. After finishing coding each manuscript, the researcher assigned and extracted examples from the manuscript under these categorized codes. After finishing all the coding process for all the interviews and fields notes and categorized them in tables (father, mother and child), the researcher started writing a thick descriptive report about the family members home literacy practices in a structured method

In the description box, (R) was used to indicate if the literacy event was solely for reading, (W) for writing and (R & W) for both reading and writing. To facilitate the mission of categorizing, the researcher used (AI) for Arabic individual literacy practices, (AS) for Arabic shared literacy practices, (EI) for English individual literacy practices and (ES) for English shared literacy practices. In addition, the word “daily” used to indicate the most frequent home literacy practices while “often” used to indicate less frequent home literacy practices. Moreover, the family member names added to indicate who conducted the home literacy practices among them by (✓) as shown in table (7).

Table 7. *Identifying the individual and shared home literacy practices with their frequency to each family member.*

Description	AI	AS	EI	ES	Daily	Often	Saleh	Huda	Ahmed
Using smart phones and laptops in social media (R&W)	✓	✓	x	x	✓	x	✓	✓	x
Holy Quran and prophet stories (R)	✓	✓	x	x	✓	x	✓	✓	✓
In food restaurants (R&W)	✓	✓	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
Academic papers (R&W)	x	x	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	x	x
Utilities bills (R&W)	x	x	✓	x	x	✓	✓	x	x
GPS (R&W)	x	x	✓	✓	✓	x		x	x
In the mall (R)	x	x	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
School subjects (R&W)	✓	✓	✓			x	x	✓	✓

Cooking book and websites (R&W)	✓	✓	x	x	✓	x	x	✓	x
Medical websites (R)	✓	✓		x	x	✓	x	✓	x
Fashion websites (R)	✓	x	x	x	x	✓	x	✓	x
Educational boards and games (R)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x	✓	✓
In the left (R)	x	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	✓	✓

6. Findings

The previous process of classification and categorization generates the types of home literacy practices then identify the most and the less frequent ones. Frequent home literacy practices here mean that occurred on daily bases while prevalent home literacy practices mean that were conducted by the majority of the family members even they were not occurred daily. The family most and less frequent and prevalent home literacy practices are established and supported by various examples drawn from the family literacy report.

6.1 Research Question One

What are the types of home literacy practices used by Jordanians' postgraduate students in Malaysia?

The findings indicate that the Jordanian families performed various types of home literacy events that led to home literacy practices. These literacy events and their practices are divided into most frequent and less frequent. The discussion started by mentioning the most and less frequent literacy events then assigning the different types of home literacy practices to each literacy event. The most frequent literacy events were related to using smart phones and computers in social media, holy Quran and religious stories, academic study, utilities bills and receipts, school subjects, political issues, educational boards and games, in the lift, in the bank, in the street, drawings and using home electric and electronic devices. The least frequent literacy events were related to food restaurant, in the mall, cooking books and websites, medical websites, fashion and food websites, shopping lists and diaries. The home literacy practices of the Jordanian families were classified and listed. See Appendix B

6.2 Research Question Two

What are the literacy functions associated with the types of home literacy practices used by these students in Malaysia?

To start our discussion, the most frequent and prevalent home literacy practices are those carried by all the families daily to find only social, religious, academic, educational, numerical and Digital. Literacy practices fulfill this condition. The less frequent and prevalent home literacy practices are those carried daily but not by the majority of the families or that occurred often by all the families to find that daily living, medical, political, financial, work related, geographical and entertainment fulfill this condition. Table (8) summarizes the most and less frequent and prevalent Jordanian home literacy practices and their associated functions.

Table 8 Jordanian families most and less frequent home literacy practices and functions

Jordanian families most frequent home literacy practices	
Home literacy practices	Function
Reading and writing in English academic papers, thesis and dissertation, Reading and writing to identify the problem, objectives, methodology and findings, reading and writing to answer assignments and exams. Reading and filling up applications form such as visa, progress report, semester registration, changing academic supervisor. Reading and writing via email and social media from the academic supervisor	Academic
Reading and writing in Arabic via Internet, emails and Social media (Facebook, WhatsApp and Viber) from and to relative and friends news, congratulations, condolences , wishes, Posts, comments and social events (marriages, births, betroths, graduations, deaths, birthdays, sickness, accidents and travelling), messages and reminders, communicating and chatting with friends and relatives.	Social
Reading and writing in English and Arabic by using computers and smart phones and their applications such as: Social media applications (facebook, WhatsApp and Viber), emails, searching engines (fashion, medical and cooking websites) online banking applications, ATM machine, online shopping , electronic and electric housing items and their display screens, calculators and academic data bases, DVDs and DVDs player, remote controls, digital washing machines, microwaves, air-condition , LCD TV, remote controls, electric oven	Digital ...
Reading and writing mostly in Arabic and sometimes in English school subjects, texts, questions and answers, exams and quizzes, dictation, educational and white boards (numbers, alphabets and names of fruits, vegetables, animals, days of the week and months) and homework.	Educational
Reading the holy Quran, prophets tales, prophet Mohammed speech, Azan reading and writing Friday wishes, , wishes and congratulations in Muslims holy occasions (Islamic New Year, prophet Mohammed birthday, Friday prayer, fasting month, eidalfitri (eating day) and pilgrim days via books and social media applications.	Religious

Reading and writing numbers (the lift, speed limit sign, time, bills, pages, exercises, counting up and down, educational boards, and electric and electronic digital display screen). Reading and writing to solve equations, mathematical shapes (square, rectangle, triangle and circle), calculations and mathematical rules, calculating area, dimension and length, prices and cost, pin codes, username and password, numbers in bills and receipts.

Mathematical
and
Numerical

Reading the cost of the utilities bills, receipts, invoices, salaries, expenses, selling cost, profit calculating the total cost, reading and checking the items prices, conducting payments via ATM and online banking account,

Financial

reading and writing the customers' orders, checking the food items with the food suppliers, calculating the expenses and selling, calculating the profit, revising bills and receipts, searching and reading food websites and factories prices promotions

Work related

Reading names of cities and streets form road directional boards, signs , speed limit , distance, turns, roundabout, the next gas station, distance to the destination, estimated time to reach, traffic jam, using GPS, police patrol, sending locations and address via social media application

Geographical

Reading food expiry dates, ingredients, medical websites, drug prescription and leaflet. Writing and searching for disease symptoms, curing and medication, drug doses and side effect, instructions, diabetes, blood pressure and family and child care issues

Medical

Reading and writing Shopping lists, cooking prescriptions, utilities bills (water, electricity, internet and housing rental), menu of food and drink, reading and writing food and drink orders, writing and reading from cooking websites, reading food items in the mall and their prices, reading from fashion websites about styles, clothes and prices.

Daily living

Reading and writing for word games, children stories, kids movies, drawings, puzzles

Entertainment

Reading and writing from and to political party, the president speeches, suggestions replying other parties critique and elections

Political

6.3 Research Question Three

6.4 What are the most frequent types of students' families members home literacy practices and their functions associated with their first language and second language?

To compare between the home literacy practices and their functions according to Arabic or English language, Table (9) classified and categorized these functions under three categories

which are; Arabic and English. Moreover, the classification included the most and less frequent and prevalent home literacy practices under these categories.

Table 9 Comparing home literacy functions according to Arabic and English languages

Most frequent literacy functions		
Literacy function	Arabic	English
Academic	X	✓
Social	✓	X
Digital	✓	✓
Educational	✓	✓
Religious	✓	X
Mathematical and Numerical	✓	✓
Less frequent literacy functions		
Literacy function	Arabic only	English only
Medical	✓	✓
Financial	✓	✓
Daily living	✓	✓
Geographical	X	✓
Entertainment	✓	✓
Work related	✓	✓
Political	✓	X

As noticed from table (9), the most frequent literacy practices that were performed in Arabic language only were related to social and religious literacy functions while the most frequent literacy practices that were performed in English language only were related to academic literacy function and the most frequent literacy practices that were performed in both languages were related to Digital, educational and mathematical and numerical literacy functions. Moreover, the less frequent literacy practices that were performed in Arabic language were related to political literacy function while the less frequent literacy practices that were performed in English language were related to geographical literacy function and the less frequent literacy practices that were performed in both languages were related to medical, financial, daily living, work related and entertainment literacy functions as illustrated in Table (10).

Table 10 *Jordanian families Home literacy functions vs. languages*

	Most frequent	Less frequent
Arabic language	Social, Religious	political
English language	Academic	Geographical
Both languages	Educational , technological and mathematical and numerical	Medical, Daily living , financial, work related and entertainment

7. Discussion

During the classification and categorization of the home literacy practices and their functions, a real dilemma encountered the classification of the literacy practices to serve one literacy function as the majority of specific literacy practices served various functions as in some cases one literacy practice served three functions. For example, in social literacy practices, the families were using smart phones, laptops associated with social media applications in communicating with their friends and relatives and during the communicating process they discussed topics related to medical and daily living issues. The social literacy practices then served many literacy functions such as digital, numerical and other functions. Therefore, there are crossed or integrated literacy functions resulted from one literacy practice. As the notion of multiliteracies or multiple literacies incorporate the perspective that in human life there are various literacies such as social, religious and educational but they don't negotiate deeper how such literacies may be integrated or crossed to serve one main function and other sub-literacy functions. It is important to mention that there are main home literacy practices that are integrated or crossed with other sub literacy practices to serve main and sub-literacy functions. Table (11) illustrated all the literacy practices that are intersected or crossed to serve diverse literacy functions.

Table 11 home literacy practices crossed literacy functions

Home literacy function	integrated with	Examples
Academic	Digital	Academic search engines and data bases, exchanging emails and messages with academic supervisor, downloading academic materials, university websites and online services
Social	Digital Religious Medical	Using computers and smart phones for social media applications such as facebook, WhatsApp and viber in communicating with relatives and friends. Exchanging religious messages, posts and wishes in certain religious occasions via social media applications. Discussing family health care with relatives and friends
Educational	Digital Mathematical Numerical Religious	Using computers to learn (educational cartoons and games, DVDS and kids movies). Reading holy Quran, prophet speech and tales, reading and writing numbers and make calculations.
Religious	Digital	Exchanging religious texts posts and wishes in certain religious occasions via social media applications, printing religious stories from religious websites

Daily living	Digital Numerical Financial Medical	Conducting utilities bills payments via ATM or online banking services, checking the prices of each item and calculating the total cost, using digital electronic and electric items with display screens, surfing fashion websites, cooking websites, medical websites and checking the shopping items expiry dates
Medical	Digital numerical	Searching medical websites for information, the drug doses and instructions, using diabetes and blood pressure digital sets with digital display screen
...Continued		
Mathematical and numerical	Digital Financial Daily living Medical	Using numbers as usernames and passwords to visa card, online banking services accounts, paying bills and rental to different account numbers, calculating the cost of the payments, checking the expenses and the credit, drug doses and items expiry dates
Financial	Digital Daily living Numerical Work related	Conducting online payments to the bills, rental and goods via online banking, using ATM cards and deposit machine, labeling money bags for daily expenses, checking the cost of the items in the mall or food restaurant, checking the expenses to credit on a daily and monthly base, using passwords, receiving TAC codes to confirm payment via SMS , calculating the expenses and selling to find profit
Geographical	Digital Numerical Daily living	Using GPS to allocate places and destinations, sending locations via whatsapp or viber messages, figuring speed limits, estimated time and distance, avoiding routes with traffic jam or tolls, street names and numbers, exit numbers

As noticed from table (11), any literacy function is crossed and integrated with many other literacy functions that defiantly resulted from specific category of literacy practice so when khaled communicated with his friends and relatives socially via social media applications; he performed many literacy functions than just the social literacy. Being able to use the smart phones and computers and social media application is Digital function and reading and writing numbers or making calculations during the session is mathematical and numerical function and when Saher exchanged information with her friends and relatives via facebook, whatsapp and Viber about family health issues is medical function.

As established, these literacy functions did not occurred in chronological order rather they occurred in multiple simultaneous and integrated way as they are resulted from multiple simultaneous and integrated home literacy practices. In addition, these multiple simultaneous and integrated home literacy practices and their functions are divided into two categories: the first one is considered the main literacy practice that led directly to the main literacy function while the others are considered sub literacy practice/s that led to sub literacy function/s and eventually integrated and led to the main literacy practice which in turns led to the main literacy function as illustrated in figure (3). The process of home literacy practices and their functions is considered dynamic, multiple, integrated and simultaneous.

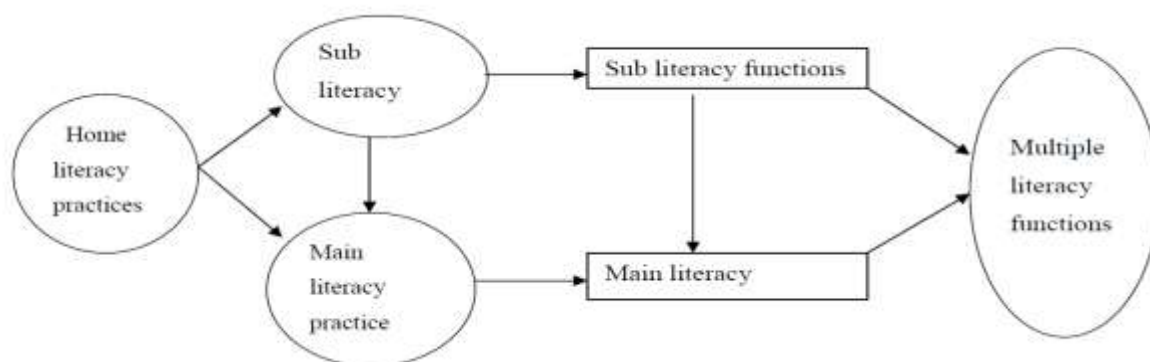


Figure 3.integrated, multiple and simultaneous home literacy practices and functions

To conclude, the integrity and multiplicity of home literacy practices was indicated by Gee (2015:30) who said “Literacy practices should not be viewed as solo concepts, but they should be viewed as fully integrated with and interwoven into wider practices that engage beliefs, values, interaction and talk”. It is important to mention that home reading practices were superior than writing home literacy practices as the numbers of literacy events that generated reading literacy practices are significantly notable than the writing ones. For example, when Saleh family went to the food restaurant, they read the food and drinks menu, read the cost of each meal or drink, read the bill and just wrote the order. In the mall, they read the food items, the expiry dates, the ingredients, the prices, the shopping list and the shopping bill to check the items and their prices and calculated the total cost while they had just a shopping list written in home. Moreover, to be more specific, the findings indicated that home shared reading of the family members among themselves are less frequent than the shared reading of the families’ members with others outside home such as in academic and social media shared reading but generally home shared reading is more frequent than the individual reading.

To conclude, the reading practices generally and shared reading practices specifically are more frequent and prevalent than the writing practices. This finding is consistent with Sackes (2015), Dixon and Wu (2014) and Van Steensel (2006) findings that revealed reading is the most frequent home literacy practices and specifically with Sackes (2015) who indicated that

shared reading practices are the most frequent home literacy practices. Upon this finding, shared reading does not necessary mean people have to read face to face or be at the same place as with respect to the digital era, people can share reading from distance instantly via social media applications which I prefer to call "distance shared reading".

8. Conclusion

The families used different types of home literacy practices to cope with the new cultural and social aspects in the host country. This finding is fully consistent with Street (2012) in discussing the notion of New literacy studies and with Cope and Kalantzis (2009) discussing the notion of Multiliteracies. The pioneer contribution of this study findings is that these varied home literacy practices are not equal which means some home literacy practices found to be more frequent and prevalent (dominate or main) while others found to be less frequent and prevalent (less dominate or sub). Any home literacy practice is composed of main literacy practice and many sub literacy practices that occurred in an integrated, simultaneous, multiple and dynamic way. Therefore, any home literacy practice served multiple literacy functions

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APPENDIX A
Research Questions Guideline

Family Portfolio Questions:- (Will be conducted in 4 visits)				
Questions	Objectives	Period	Source	Developed
1-How long have you been in Malaysia? 2-What is the primary reason of your coming to Malaysia? 3-For how long do you plan to stay in Malaysia? 4- Tell me something about your education and background. 5-Tell me something about your earlier experience of language and culture differences in Malaysia. 6- Tell me about your family social life in Malaysia. -Relation with other families -Exchanging visits with other families -Your children friends (Arab and others) -The language used to communicate with these families -The language used by your children to communicate with their friends	To gain insight about family literacy history to build a family portfolio.	Visits 1,2,3 and 4	Questions1-3 adopted from Alshaboul(2004)	Questions 4-6 to determine the families' educational backgrounds, their social life in Malaysia and their impression about language differences in Malaysian culture.
Research Question One: What are the most frequent types of home literacy practices used by Jordanians' postgraduate students in Malaysia? Research Question Two: What are the literacy functions associated with the most frequent types of home literacy practices used by these students in Malaysia? Research Question Three: What are the most frequent types of students' families members home literacy practices and their functions associated with their first language and second language? Note: Research Question Two and Three will be answered based on research question one data				
Questions	Objectives	Period	Source	Developed
1- What are the reading materials in your home? In what language? 2- How often do your family members read? What they are reading? In what language?	- To identify the frequency, availability and diversity of the reading materials in both languages. - To identify the individual reading practices of the family	Visit 5	Alshaboul(2004) just asked "What are you reading?"	Questions 1-2 were developed to fulfill the objectives related to: 1-frequency, availability and diversity of reading materials 2- families members

	member in both languages			individual reading practices in both languages
Questions	Objectives	Period	Source	Developed
3- How often does your child read at home by his/her own? What is he/she reading? In what language? 4- Approximately, how many books (including picture books) do you estimate your child reads in a typical week? In what language? 5- What are the most frequent available reading materials in home for children? In what language?	To identify the children individual reading practices in both languages.	Visit 6	Question 4 adopted from Alshaboul(2004)	Questions 5 and 7 developed to fulfill the objective
Questions	Objectives	Period	Source	Developed
6- How often do your family members read with your child or to others? What they are reading? In what language? 7- How often do your family members read to your child or to others? What they are reading? In what language?	- To identify the families members shared reading practices with children in both languages	Visit 7	-	Questions 6 and 7 were developed to fulfill the objective
Questions	Objectives	Period	Source	Developed
8- How often do your children read with you or others? What they are reading? In what language? 9- How often do your children read to you or to others? What they are reading? In what language?	- To identify the children shared reading practices with families members in both languages	Visit 8	-	Questions 8 and 9 were developed to fulfill the objective
Questions	Objectives	Period	Source	Developed
10- What are the writing materials in your home? 11- How often do your family members write? What they are writing? In what language?	To identify the frequency, availability and diversity of the reading materials in both languages. - To identify the individual reading practices of the family member in both languages	Visit 9	Alshaboul(2004) just asked "What are you writing?"	Questions 10-11 were developed to fulfill the objectives related to: 1-frequency, availability and diversity of writing materials 2- families members individual writing practices in both languages.
Questions	Objectives	Period	Source	Developed

12- How often does your child read at home by his/her own? What is he/she reading? In what language? 13- Approximately how many writing tasks (including drawings) do you estimate your child write in a typical week? In what language? 14- What are the most frequent available reading materials in home for children? In what language?	To identify the children individual reading practices in both languages.	Visit 10	Question 13 adopted from Alshaboul(2004)	Questions 12 and 14 developed to fulfill the objective
15- How often do your family members read with your child or to others? What they are reading? In what language? 16- How often do your family members read to your child or to others? What they are reading? In what language? 17- How often do your children read with you or others? What they are reading? In what language? 18- How often do your children read to you or to others? What they are reading? In what language?	- To identify the families' members shared reading practices with children in both languages. - To identify the children shared writing with their families members in both languages.	Visit 11	-	Questions 15 till 18 were developed to fulfill the objective
Research question Three: Who plays the most significant and supportive role in children home literacy practices among the students' families members?				
Questions	Objectives	Period	Source	Developed
19- How often do you teach or help your children reading at home? In what language 20-How often do you take your child to a library or a bookstore? 21- How often do you teach or help your child with his/her writing? In what language? 22-Who speaks Arabic more at home, you or your spouse? Who speaks English more at home, you or your spouse? 23-What role do you play within these literacy interactions with your child? 24-How do you classify your interaction with your children?	- To identify who of the family members mostly helped the children with their reading practices. - To identify who of the family members mostly helped the children with their writing practices. - To identify who of the families' member plays the significant role in children literacy learning.	Visits 12	Questions 20 and 22 were adopted from Alshaboul(2004)	Questions 19, 21, 23 and 24 were developed to fulfill the objectives

APPENDIX B

Jordanian families most frequent home literacy practices

Home literacy practices

Reading and writing in English academic papers, thesis and dissertation, Reading and writing to identify the problem, objectives, methodology and findings, reading and writing to answer assignments and exams. Reading and filling up applications form such as visa, progress report, semester registration, changing academic supervisor. Reading and writing via email and social media from the academic supervisor

Reading and writing in Arabic via Internet, emails and Social media (Facebook, WhatsApp and Viber) from and to relative and friends news, congratulations, condolences , wishes, Posts, comments and social events (marriages, births, betroths, graduations, deaths, birthdays, sickness, accidents and travelling), messages and reminders, communicating and chatting with friends and relatives.

Reading and writing in English and Arabic by using computers and smart phones and their applications such as: Social media applications (facebook, WhatsApp and Viber), emails, searching engines (fashion, medical and cooking websites) online banking applications, ATM machine, online shopping , electronic and electric housing items and their display screens, calculators and academic data bases, DVDs and DVDs player, remote controls, digital washing machines, microwaves, air-condition , LCD TV, remote controls, electric oven

Reading and writing mostly in Arabic and sometimes in English school subjects, texts, questions and answers, exams and quizzes, dictation, educational and white boards (numbers, alphabets and names of fruits, vegetables, animals, days of the week and months) and homework.

Reading the holy Quran, prophets tales, prophet Mohammed speech, Azan reading and writing Friday wishes, , wishes and congratulations in Muslims holy occasions (Islamic New Year, prophet Mohammed birthday, Friday prayer, fasting month, eidalfitri (eating day) and pilgrim days via books and social media applications.

Reading and writing numbers (the lift, speed limit sign, time, bills, pages, exercises, counting up and down, educational boards, and electric and electronic digital display screen). Reading and writing to solve equations, mathematical shapes (square, rectangle, triangle and circle), calculations and mathematical rules, calculating area, dimension and length, prices and cost, pin codes, username and password, numbers in bills and receipts.

Reading the cost of the utilities bills, receipts, invoices, salaries, expenses, selling cost, profit calculating the total cost, reading and checking the items prices, conducting payments via ATM and online banking account,

reading and writing the customers' orders, checking the food items with the food suppliers, calculating the expenses and selling, calculating the profit, revising bills and receipts, searching and reading food websites and factories prices promotions

Reading names of cities and streets form road directional boards, signs , speed limit , distance, turns, roundabout, the next gas station, distance to the destination, estimated time to reach, traffic jam, using GPS, police patrol, sending locations and address via social media application

Reading food expiry dates, ingredients, medical websites, drug prescription and leaflet. Writing and searching for disease symptoms, curing and medication, drug doses and side effect, instructions, diabetes, blood pressure and family and child care issues

Reading and writing Shopping lists, cooking prescriptions, utilities bills (water, electricity, internet and housing rental), menu of food and drink, reading and writing food and drink orders, writing and reading from cooking websites, reading food items in the mall and their prices, reading from fashion websites about styles, clothes and prices.

Reading and writing for word games, children stories, kids movies, drawings, puzzles

Reading and writing from and to political party, the president speeches, suggestions replying other parties critique and elections

Attitudes towards Arabic Romanization and Student's Major: Evidence from the University of Jordan

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Abstract

This paper seeks to unveil the attitudes of a sample of students at the University of Jordan towards the use of romanized Arabic in computer--mediated communication (CMC). In particular, it provides answers to two questions. First, do the subjects encode Arabic characters, including numbers, in a romanized version in their CMC? If yes, how often and why? Second, does the students' major and the language of instruction used therein (i.e. English or Arabic) affect their choice of Arabic romanization and their attitudes towards it? The data are collected by means of a questionnaire completed by students from four different majors: (1) Applied English, (2) Arabic, (3) Medicine, and (4) Islamic Sharia. While the majority of students of Applied English and Medicine tend to use Romanized Jordanian Arabic, the students of Arabic and Sharia show a clear preference for the use of Arabic letters. The users of Romanized Arabic cite a number of reasons for their choice. Some believe that Romanized letters are easier and faster to type than Arabic letters. Some posit that English is the language of the Internet and technology and, thus, the use of romanization gives communication a special flavor. A third group report that their devices do not support Arabic language. This study is expected to contribute to identifying the youth attitudes towards the use or avoidance of romanized Arabic, which in turn may help develop a better understanding of this issue and assist cyber Arabic users to make the right choice when interacting with others in Arabic online.

Keywords: Arabic, Arabizi, attitudes, chatting, CMC

Introduction

With the growing role of technology and the Internet in communication, people began to shift their communication from face-to-face interaction to virtual communication or computer-mediated communication (CMC). This shift has attracted linguists from all over the globe to examine the common linguistic and/or stylistic characteristics of CMC (Crystal 2001; Paolillo 2001; Warschauer et.al 2002; Al-Khatib & Sabbah 2008; Cardenas-Carlos & Isharyanti 2009).

The study reported here investigates the attitudes of university students towards the use of romanized Jordanian Arabic in CMC. In particular, it seeks answers to the following questions: these question should be briefly highlighted in the abstract. See the comments

1. Do the subjects encode Arabic characters, including numbers, in a romanized version in their CMC? If the answer is in the affirmative, how often do they do that and why?
2. Does the students' major and the language of instruction used therein (i.e. English or Arabic) affect their choice of Arabic romanization and their attitudes towards it?

The study is driven by a general belief that the student's major plays a decisive role in determining the form in which Arabic is represented online. It is believed that Jordanian students whose major requires them to use English most of the time while in school or at home studying and preparing for their classes would most likely use romanized Arabic in their online interactions and would view this form of Arabic representation and its users favorably. In contrast, those whose major is Arabic or who are highly attached to Arabic in the course of their study such as students of Arabic and Islamic Sharia would not use romanized Arabic and would view it and its users negatively.

This study is expected to contribute to identifying the youth attitudes towards the use or avoidance of romanized Arabic, which in turn may help develop a better understanding of this issue and assist cyber Arabic users to make the right choice when interacting with others in Arabic online. Below is a brief description of Arabic in which romanization has started to gain currency as a written form of CMC.

Arabic language: an overview

Arabic is a descendent of the Semitic language family. In Arabic words are based on tri-consonantal roots. Different words can be formed from these roots through the use of infixes, prefixes and suffixes. The sociolinguistic situation in Arabic provides an example of 'diglossia', a case in which two linguistic varieties of the same language co-exist with each other but each is used for different social functions. The 'high' variety is Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) which is based on Classical Arabic (CA) and is used in formal contexts, literary works, courts, news broadcasts and religious based discourse. The low variety on the other hand is the colloquial variety of Arabic which encompasses a multitude of vernaculars and regional dialects used in the various Arabic-speaking countries and communities (Ferguson: 1959). "The MSA alphabet consists of 28 letters which represent 28 consonantal phonemes (Most et al. 2008:417)". According to Most et al (2008) three of the 28 letters are used to represent the long vowels, 'aa', 'ee', 'uu' respectively, whereas short vowels can be presented through diacritics. However, in Cyber Arabic, as will be shown below, numerals and signs are currently used to represent long and short vowels.

Literature review

Romanization or transliteration is "the representation of a word or phrase in the closest corresponding letters or characters of a different alphabet or language so that the pronunciation is as close as possible to the original word or phrase (Abdul-Jaleel & Larkey 2003: 86). In this study, the term transliteration or romanization is used to refer to the process in which speakers of Arabic resort to the use of alphabets or letters from English in addition to characters like numbers in order to represent it in CMC.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the issue of romanization in Arabic in CMC hasn't received thorough investigation. Yaghan (2008) highlights the rules associated with the use of Arabizi, a term widely used to label the mixture of Latin and Arabic letters, its current state in society, as well as the reasons that lead young people to use it. While some of his subjects report that they resort to the use of Arabizi because of the historical precedence of English over Arabic in the Internet, others maintain that 'classical Arabic graphs' should be used for classical Arabic and not for slang (Yaghan 2008: 6). Other reasons include 'economy' as users of Arabizi report that they are able to incorporate more characters while texting messages through the phone. This reason is supported by Hamdan's study (2010) in which one of the interviewees who was working in a telecom company acknowledged that he was forced to use Arabizi as the cost per character of sending SMS text messages was lower in English than in Arabic.

In addition to the points highlighted above, Yaghan (2008) touches on the reasons why writing Arabic with English letters has become more acceptable than it was years ago. A reason he suggests is that English and Latin letters used to be associated with colonization and colonial powers, but nowadays the concept of a 'small knowledge village' with English as the most evident language as well as the domination of the western culture make "younger generations less hostile to Latin characters" (Yaghan 2008: 6).

The study reported here differs from Yaghan (2008). Not only does it examine the reasons underlying the use of romanization using a larger and more diversified sample, but it also discusses its frequency, the relation between its use and university major with reference to the language of instruction. Further, it sheds light on the attitude of proponents and opponents of romanization and its impact on Arabic from their own perspectives.

Historical overview

Aytürk (2010: 97) report that nearly half the world's population today uses the Roman alphabet. This includes the successful romanization of local scripts in Romania, Vietnam, and Turkey. In contrast, the romanization in Japan, India, China, and Greece, among others, have failed. As for the Arab world, there have been several calls by some orientalists and scholars such as Francis Newman, William Willcocks and Willmore (as cited in Suleiman 2004: 65-66, 69) for the adoption of a modified version of the Latin alphabet in writing Arabic. These calls are mainly motivated by the successful romanization process in modern Turkey. Further, the proponents of romanization suggest that Arabic characters are not in line with technology and development. Such calls are faced with strong opposition by the defenders of Arabic language such as Ahmad Attar (cited in Suleiman 2004: 46), who described these calls as being initiated and encouraged by the enemies of the Arabic language, Islamic culture and Qur'an.

In one of the earliest and most relevant studies on code switching and transliteration, Warschauer et al. (2002) investigate code switching of English and Arabic in Egyptians' online communications using different data collection techniques. The researchers report that English is most frequently used online, particularly in formal communication. In contrast, a version of Romanized colloquial Egyptian Arabic is used in informal communication which "had very limited use prior to the development of the internet (Warschauer et al. 2002). The researchers attribute the results to different reasons, viz., (1) early Egyptian internet adopter's fluency in English, (2) dominance of English in the internet, and (3) computer and internet lessons being taught in English.

In a recent study, Al Tamimi and Gorgis (2007) explore the nature of Romanized Jordanian Arabic in order to see how it is represented, in what ways it is close to both Standard as well as Jordanian Arabic. They also investigate the linguistic and non linguistic resources that the users of Romanized Jordanian Arabic drew on. The data comprise some 1098 informal email messages collected from 257 undergraduate students. In addition, they supplement their corpus with 1400 chat room turns exchanged among a large group of nicknamed chatters. The findings reveal that 10 out of the 28 consonants of Arabic have only one Roman character representing each and employed systematically while the rest of the consonants have more than one character each and thus variably represented. Furthermore, it is reported that for one Arabic character there can be up to 6 corresponding symbols, mainly Roman letters, in addition to Arabic numerals whose selection can be justified on pictorial and pronunciation basis. Vowels, on the other hand, are used less systematically with different sounds being assigned the same vowel character. They also report frequent code-switching and that 60% of the messages involve switching from English into Romanized Jordanian Arabic. The majority of switches involve nouns (61.84%).

In another recent study, Al-Khatib and Sabbah (2008) report that English and a romanized version of Arabic are most commonly used in students' messages over cellular phones. The study concludes that it is easier for the subjects "to communicate their ideas in messages written in Arabic with Roman scripts than in Arabic scripts (Al-Khatib and Sabbah, 2008: 45). Among the technical elements that lead to the extensive usage of English and the romanized version of Arabic are the ease and swiftness of writing in English and the rather limited space allowed in Arabic messages.

In a news story about transliteration written by Hamdan (2010), several Jordanian scholars express their concern about the spreading of transliteration among young generations. For instance, an associate professor of sociolinguistics at the Balqa Applied University suggests that there should be awareness campaigns to acquaint people with the dangers of practicing Arabic romanization or transliteration. "We should rescue Arabic and launch awareness campaigns as the threat has moved from the Internet to mobile phones and even to satellite TV channels", he warned.

Hamdan (2010) notes that this "professor linked the phenomenon to young Jordanians having more opportunities to meet foreigners, explaining that in today's increasingly interconnected world, English has become a lingua franca in which people who do not share a mother tongue can communicate.

A professor of sociology and mass communication at the University of Jordan (as quoted in Hamdan 2010) also draws a link between the spread of romanization and its ease of use in text

messages and on the Internet. Further, an associate professor of Arabic at the same university shows unease with this phenomenon and, urges young people to stop using transliteration before it does irreversible damage to their native language. "It is not a healthy practice and it might weaken the users' Arabic grammar in the long term if it continues at this rate," he said.

There have been several studies which tackle transliteration in shop signs (Abdul-Fattah & Zughoul 1996; Al-Kharabsheh, et al. 2008). However, few if any, examine transliteration in CMC, a reason that has encouraged the researcher to conduct this study to unveil the reasons behind the spread of romanization, particularly among Internet users at university and their attitudes towards it.

Method

The sample consisted of 160 students enrolled in four majors at the University of Jordan in 2014/2015. The four majors were Arabic, Islamic Sharia, Applied English and Medicine with 40 fourth year subjects in each. In terms of gender, the sample comprised 26 males and 134 females, and thus gender was not considered as a variable because both genders were not represented equally.

In order for the researcher to explore the attitudes of the respondents, he developed a questionnaire for this purpose based on Hussein (1999). The questionnaire which consisted of two sections and 17 items was written in Arabic so that it would be easily understood by all the subjects. The first 4-item section collected data on sex, major, proficiency level in English. It also elicited data on whether the respondents were in the habit of using Arabic romanization or not, the reasons for the use of this mode, frequency of use and whether they considered romanization a threat to the Arabic language or not. The subjects were requested to select the best choice from a given list. The second section was a 5-point Likert-type scale with 13 items. It elicited data on the subjects' attitudes towards Arabic romanization and its users. Respondents were asked to make a tick in any of the 5-point Likert scale columns next to each statement.

Results and discussion

The results of the study will be presented and discussed with direct reference to the study questions.

6.1. Do the subjects encode Arabic characters, including numbers, in a romanized version? If so, how often do they do that and why?

Table 1 *Number and percentage of romanized Arabic users in terms of major*

Major	Number	Percentage
Applied English	26	65%
Medicine	28	70%
Arabic	12	30%
Islamic Sharia	10	25%
Total	76	47.5

As is clear, 76 out of 160 subjects (47.5 %,) said they encoded Arabic characters in a romanized version whereas 84 (52.5%,) said they didn't. However, the use rate varied across the subjects' majors. The highest was reported by the Medicine (70%) and Applied English students (65%) where English is the language of instruction. The other two specializations where Arabic is the language of instruction scored the lowest rates. Thus, one can safely conclude that there is a strong link between the language of instruction and the use rate of romanization. English encourages romanization while Arabic inhibits it.

As for the frequency of romanization, the analysis of the data revealed that out of the total number of users of Arabic romanization ($n = 76$), 48 (63.2%), reported 'sometimes' use, 20 (26.3%) 'always' use, and 8 (10.5%) 'rare' use.

When asked why they Romanize, the users gave different answers. Table 2 shows the reasons for using numbers and Latin letters in representing Arabic.

Table 2 *Reasons for using romanization as reported by users*

Reason for using Romanization	Number	Percentage
1. I use romanization because my device doesn't support Arabic.	4	5.3
2. Typing Latin letters is faster than typing Arabic letters.	32	42
3. English is the language of the Internet and technology and the use of its alphabet gives communication a special flavour.	5	7
4. The use of romanization depends on the other party.	19	25
5. Combination of 2+3	10	13.1
6. Other reasons	6	7.9

Table 2 shows that 42% of the users of romanization resorted to this mode because they found using it to be faster than using the Arabic alphabet. This is quite logical since chatters often feel the pressure of time and the need to respond as timely as possible. The second most common reason for 25% of the users is partner dependant. A user here tends to use romanization when he/she realizes that the other partner is using it. This reason can be accounted for within the accommodation theory framework. It seems that the subjects who highlighted this reason were sending an indirect message to their interlocutress that they were similar and had something in common to share. A third group of users (13.1%) explained their choice by providing a combination of reasons 2 and 3 above. They said that they used romanized Arabic because English is the language of the Internet and technology and also because typing Latin letters is

faster than typing Arabic script. A fourth group (7%) used romanization because English is the language of the Internet, which gives communication a special flavour if its alphabet is used. A fifth group (5.3%) said they were not able to use the Arabic letters in CMC simply because their devices did not support Arabic. This is a reason dictated by necessity rather than attitude. Finally, some users chose to give other reasons for using romanization. For instance, one said that she used romanization because it is more fun. Two users indicated that romanization enabled them to incorporate more characters, particularly in the case of SMS. Other users reported that they used it because they couldn't write well in Arabic. In light of the reasons mentioned above, one can clearly conclude that the use of romanization is actually based on specific needs and reasons.

Reasons for using romanization as suggested by non-users

The non-users of romanization (who turned out to be 104, i.e. 52.5% of the subjects) were asked to suggest reasons which they think motivate others to Romanize. In actuality, 30 of them ignored the question and/or provided a general response which can be glossed as "It's not easy to think on behalf of others". Below is a list of the hypothetical reasons suggested by at least five of the remaining non-users who attempted the question:

1. Romanizers are fascinated by English and western culture.
2. Romanizers' standard Arabic language is deficient.
3. Romanizers use this mode as a way to show that they are educated
4. Romanizers want to impress others as being part of a high social class.

Apparently, these reasons are mainly negative and highlight social and cultural variables.

Romanization and students' attitudes toward Arabic

Despite the fact that the students' major and the language of instruction related to it appeared to be a determining variable in shaping the reasons underlying romanization and its frequency of occurrence, such a variable didn't turn out to be equally decisive in shaping their attitudes towards its impact on Arabic. Here students from all majors, showed agreement that using Latin letters would endanger Arabic in the long run. When asked whether they felt that romanization would endanger Arabic, 118 out of 160 (74%) answered in the affirmative.

In response to another related question which asked the respondents who labeled themselves as non-users of romanization why they thought it endangered Arabic, the following most commonly perceived reasons were provided.

1. Arabic romanization weakens one's ability to form grammatically well formed sentences in Arabic. This is, indeed, a threat that some Arab scholars warned of. For example, Khalil (as cited in Hamdan 2010) considered Arabic romanization as an "unhealthy practice and it might weaken the users' Arabic grammar in the long term if it continues at this rate"
2. It marginalizes Arabic locally and internationally.
3. It weakens one's abilities to read and write Arabic texts.
4. It undermines the socio-political identity of the Arab youth and makes some of them west-oriented.

However, most of the 26% of the students who thought that romanization did not pose a threat to Arabic justified their response by positing that this mode of writing is only used in CMC and thus does not threaten Arabic, their mother tongue. Some even went further to say that

Arabic is the language of Qur'an and that this reason is strong enough to preserve it safe and protected.

A closer examination of the data pointed to a relationship between the subjects' major and language of instruction on the one hand and the subjects' perception of the romanizer's loyalty to Arabic. 65 % of Applied English students and Medicine students combined who receive instruction in English disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement "those who romanize Arabic are not loyal to the Arabic language". This tolerance toward romanizers is in line with the fact that 67.5 % of the students of these two specializations do actually romanize. In contrast, 30% of the Arabic language and Islamic Sharia students combined who receive instruction in Arabic disagreed or strongly disagreed to the same statement. This rather hard position toward romanizers is a manifestation of the fact that 72.5% of the students in these two majors do not romanize.

Data on students' attitudes towards Arabic characters were also elicited and analyzed. 78% of the respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement "Arabic letters are not compatible with technology". Put differently, the majority of users and non-users of romanization did not see that the use of Arabic letters is a hindrance to technology and progress. In fact, most of those who used romanization reported that they did so either because typing Latin letters is faster than typing Arabic script or because they wanted to accommodate the other partner and not because they looked at the use of the Arabic alphabet as an obstacle to technological development.

The use of romanization sometimes brings an important question to the fore. Is the use of this mode of writing a sign of deficiency in the Arabic language of the romanizer? The four groups of subjects reacted differently to this question. The percentages of subjects who provided a negative answer were as follows: Applied English (55 %), Medicine (50 %), Arabic Language (25%) and Islamic Sharia (30%). As is clear, around half of the Applied English and Medicine students did not perceive a positive relationship between the use of romanization and the deficiency of the Arabic language of the romanizer whereas the majority of students of Arabic and Sharia posited that the use of romanization and avoidance of Arabic letters is a sign of deficiency in the Arabic language of the user of this mode.

Finally, the subjects were asked if "it is difficult to represent spoken Arabic in CMC through the use of Arabic letters". Different responses were given in terms of specialization. 40% of the Medicine students agreed to statement, 55% disagreed and 5% indicated uncertainty. The responses of the Applied English students were almost the same: 40% agreed, 50% disagreed and 10% said they were uncertain. In contrast, 20% of the Arabic students agreed to the statement, 60% disagreed and 20% were uncertain. The Sharia students were equally divided: 35% agreed, 35% disagreed and 30% were uncertain.

The relatively high percentage of agreement to the statement above by the Applied English and Medicine students is probably a reflection of a low-to-moderate level of sensitivity towards the representation of spoken Arabic by Latin letters. The high percentage of rejection to the statement by the Arabic students may reflect their pride in Standard Arabic, the variety they study and practice in class, and thus still believe that spoken Arabic should not be tolerated in writing regardless of the mode. The position of the Sharia students is somewhere in the middle,

and not easy to account for. Anyway, it may be the case that this question was not very clear and thus was understood differently by the various groups and subjects. The variation among the respondents' responses might have been driven by the fact that being able to represent spoken Arabic in Arabic or Latin letters is a matter of personal judgment and thus each subject is his or her own assessor.

Romanization and social class

In response to a question on possible relationship between the use of romanization and social class or status, 76% of the subjects disagreed or strongly disagreed to the statement "those who write Arabic in Latin letters are of a higher socio-economic status. This finding may be taken as a clear indication that there is no correlation between socio-economic class and the use of romanization.

Conclusion

The findings of the study provided evidence that students' major and the language of instruction used therein was an important variable in determining use or non-use of Arabic romanization. It also contributed to shaping their attitudes towards this mode of writing and its users. Students of Applied English and students of Medicine who received their instruction in English were more in favor of Arabic romanization than students of Arabic and Islamic Sharia who received their instruction in standard Arabic. Further, the majority of both users and non-users of romanization agreed that it might endanger the Arabic language if it continues to be used at the current rate in the long run.

Users of romanization reported various reasons for using this mode. The most commonly shared ones included ease and swiftness in typing Latin letters in addition to accommodating one's mode of writing to that of the other partner with whom an individual is interacting. Finally, the subjects did not see any clear connection between the Romanizer and his/her social class or status.

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Interculturality in ESP Classrooms: A Contributing Strategy to Meet the Job-Market Expectations

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Abstract

In the present time's globalized atmosphere, the need for intercultural communicative competence in the workplace runs high. Accordingly, in the area of foreign language education, English teachers need more than ever to incorporate intercultural awareness and cross-cultural understanding in their syllabi. This article reports on a case study that involves the use of many research instruments including questionnaires, classroom observation, and assessment of assignments and exam sheets. This paper tends to suggest a cultural teaching based on standards for intercultural learning elicited from related literature in an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) setting, addressed to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Master students approaching the end of their course of study and getting ready to enter the world of job-market. It proposes ways of instilling multicultural awareness into these language learners through the implementation of intercultural activities, helping them better understanding diversity and developing positive attitudes in the workplace. The research goals comprise increasing students' intercultural global awareness, promoting their tolerance, and helping them remedy negative attitudes towards the target culture and other alien cultures. Findings of the study show that the proposed intercultural approach stimulates students' thinking, helps them better comprehend how to immerse in diverse perspectives on complicated international issues, and how to become global citizens able to deal effectively with multiculturalism in the work environment.

Keywords: ESP teaching, intercultural communicative competence, master students, multiculturalism, workplace

Introduction

Today, universities all over the world are characterized by a variety of competing internal and external agendas. Teaching programmes are being broadened and updated in response to imperatives as globalization and economic growth. In this climate of international exchanges, academic relationships and fast travel, it is impossible to function in isolation but through interaction with each other for survival. The success of all these organizations and the people involved in these areas depends on effective cross-cultural communication.

As far as foreign language instruction is concerned, the principles of intercultural language education are strongly implemented in the Common European Framework of Reference of Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (Council of Europe, 2001). The aims are recapitulated as follows:

In an intercultural approach, it is a central objective of language learning to promote the favourable development of the learner's whole personality and sense of identity in response to the enriching experience of otherness in language and culture (p. 1).

For a long time, teachers have been focusing on strategies that may help students to have an immaculate command of English and a 'native-like' accent, but for many learners, this is a distant goal. In an immensely multicultural world, where English is used as a lingua franca, it appears sensible to accept that it is more necessary for a language learner to be able to genuinely communicate with and understand people in a range of various contexts, than to mimic native speakers.

For this purpose, decision makers in the field of education throughout the world stress the need for integrating intercultural teaching in the curricula. This need appears clearly in Rozbicki's (2015) statement:

This is why educational systems are increasingly recognizing the fact that exposing students only to their own kind does not encourage a deeper acceptance of cultural diversity, and are introducing appropriate changes (p. 19).

Theoretical Standpoints

Due to its eminence, the conception of intercultural competence has been elucidated by a lot of scholars, but a valuable definition is well echoed in Fantini's (1997) words:

A concern with cross-cultural effectiveness and appropriateness – coupled with second or foreign language development – will, I hope, lead beyond tolerance and understanding to a genuine appreciation of others. For this to happen, we need to develop the awareness, attitudes, skills, and knowledge that will make us better participants on a local and global level, able to understand and empathize with others in new ways. Exposure to more than one language, culture, and world view, in a positive context, offers such a promise (p. 13).

Distinctly, intercultural exploration helps the learners better discover their own culture and the cultures of the others. Through intercultural activities, students can have deeper insights into

their home culture's practices, beliefs and behaviours and can therefore explain them to individuals whose values and practices run counter to theirs. In ESP teaching contexts, where the topics dealt with include learning a variety of skills such as giving a business presentation, making deals, attending worldwide conferences, reading scientific papers, chairing international meetings, and so on, issues may and do arise. This is why ESP teachers are urged to promote clear lines of constructive communication to minimize the risks of misunderstandings and breakdowns, and to facilitate the building of tolerance and respect among their learners.

In a practical and sensible way, this signifies that they have to teach their students how to manage their behaviour since it is the apparent manifestation of a whole system of beliefs and feelings that needs to be comprehended in order to refine one's cultural awareness and manage intercultural worries. In our increasingly interconnected planet, where technology provides a global platform where individuals explore ideas and cultures without restriction, experts in the area of interculturality are claiming that language learners' horizons have to be widened through a sound intercultural instruction because: "people may share a current nationality, place of birth, a language, a religion, a profession or a neighbourhood and still be very different from one another" (Holmes & Dervin, 2016, p. 8).

These interculturalists do insist that it is the job of the teachers to find out and explore the problems surrounding similarities and differences between human beings: "people might share similar values, opinions, interests and so forth across borders; for their part, researchers must investigate these elements" (Holmes & Dervin, 2016, p. 9). These teachers are also required to heighten the learners' awareness of how to develop positive attitudes and manage one's own behaviour in order to achieve a better understanding and control over behaviour (Armstrong & Frith, 1984; Koziol & Burns, 1985).

The suggested intercultural approach in this study tries to incorporate some intercultural activities in an ESP environment to help the students fulfil three elemental aims: cognitive, affective and behavioural, and would therefore allow them to springboard into the job market. These three basic goals are recapitulated by Bennett (1986):

- Cognitive, which means, adding to the learner's stock of knowledge and skills.
- Affective, which implies, changing the trainee's attitude by developing openness, tolerance, acceptance and awareness.
- Behavioural, in which the trainee learns and grasps better the 'dos and don'ts' of the new environment.

Although leading authorities continue exhorting teachers to bring interculturality into EFL classrooms, there is still an inadequate attention that is paid to intercultural content in ESP courses. In this respect, Omaggio (2001) explains the absence of culture in ESP settings by presenting three fundamental imperatives. According to her, many teachers have an overcrowded curriculum to be covered and thus lack the time to deal with cultural issues. She expounds her views on this subject by stating that other teachers do not have a mastery of the target language and therefore, they feel almost reluctant to approach it. Lastly, she continues asserting that some instructors are thrown into total confusion about what cultural facets to include in their ESP lessons.

This research attempts to help the learners better perform academic and occupational requirements through the inclusion of an intercultural teaching in ESP classes where meaning has to be given sense and dissimilarities have to be negotiated. Accordingly, Ouakrime (1992) points out some major objectives of including culture in ESP programmes among which we can sum up the following:

- To understand the forms of organizations, concepts, customary beliefs and patterns of behaviour of members of the target culture community.
- To understand individual and institutional aspects of the culture.
- To acquire enough knowledge and understanding of the target culture with the purpose of developing a tolerant attitude towards its community.

Defending this view and highlighting the role of attitudes as cultural beliefs in the work environment, and how they can affect people's behaviours and decisions, Robbins and Judge (2007) suggested the example of an employee who might be dissatisfied with his job, and then decides to quit it.

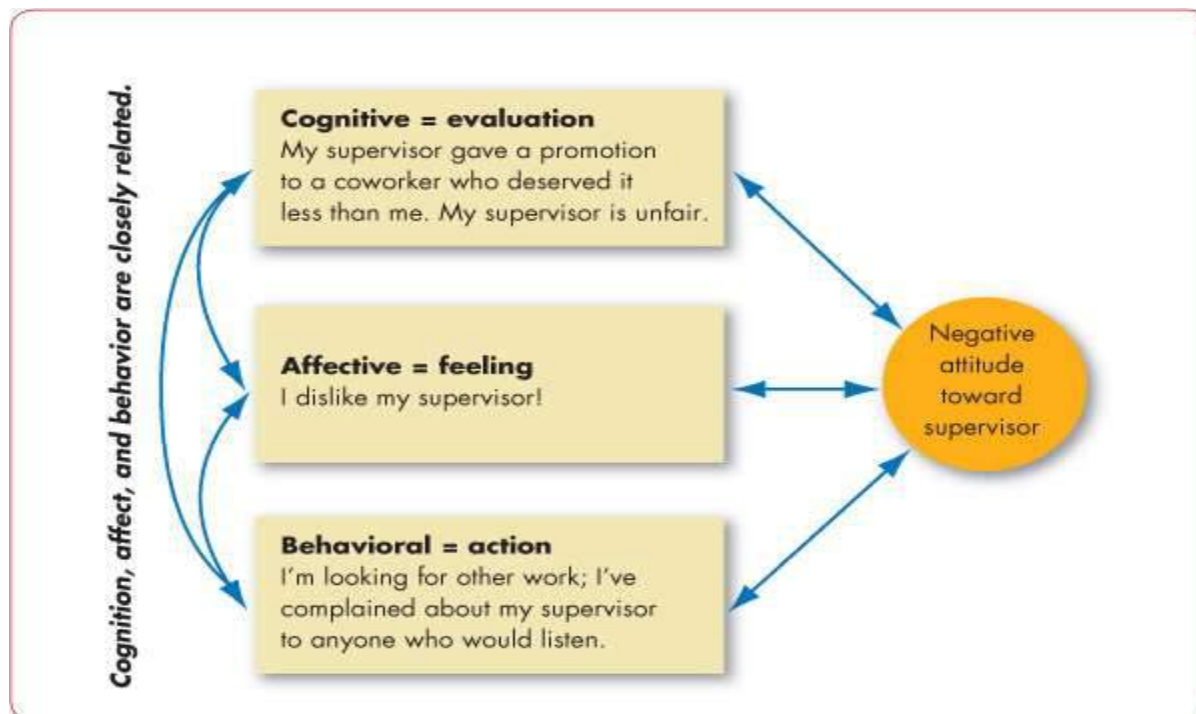


Figure 1. The Components of an Attitude
(Robbins & Judge, 2007, p. 75)

They explained his attitude as follows:

- Cognitive (the employee thought that he deserved to be promoted)
- Affective (the employee feels the energy and many efforts he puts into his work are not acknowledged)
- Behavioural (after departure, the employee is hunting for a new job)

In the workplace, these three facets are linked to work policy and organizational structure as well as the staff and all the people who are concerned with the organization. Being aware that

today people face real challenges in the workplace where “professional life in organizations has become immeasurably more complicated by the encounter with the unfamiliar and dissimilar values and practices of foreign organizations, colleagues and clients” (Barmeyer & Frankhin, 2016, p. 1), this work seeks to suggest a proposal that helps alleviate misunderstandings and misconceptions and thus, develop intercultural abilities among our present learners and would-be workers.

Why Intercultural Activities?

The researcher believes that an ESP classroom is the appropriate space for initiating change to encourage students learn better by carrying out useful tasks than by being passive, taking notes, and relying on the teacher as the main source of knowledge.

The suggested activities will have the following characteristics:

- Short explanation.
- Division into pairs and groups for discussion.
- Discussion and feedback.
- The key role of the teacher is to present the activities, explain the instructions, and clarify some viewpoints.

To develop an advanced level of intercultural awareness and competence, the emphasis will be put on two principal aspects:

- Cultural knowledge: which implies the understanding of cultural distinctions -and-
- Cultural skills: it signifies the ability to act and behave appropriately in a myriad of cultures. These capacities include mutual comprehension, acceptance, tolerance and dealing with conflicting situations.

Activity One:

This activity is labelled ‘exploring the term culture’

Objectives:

- To examine the concept of culture.
- To develop an awareness of the major elements of culture.

Procedure:

- Ask students to give a short definition of culture.
- Explain the instructions of the activity.
- Ask the students to work in pairs or small groups.
- Ask volunteers from each pair or group to present and comment on their group’s reflections as openly as possible allowing time for comment and discussion.
- Encourage discussion and contrast between the different definitions to enrich the debate about the constituents of culture.

Outcomes:

The significant element in the activity is to produce, compare and enlarge ideas. It will be helpful to mention that each of the provided definitions stresses diverse features:

- A sum of beliefs and values in addition to the idea of collectivity.
- Behaviours and practices.
- Large amount of experiences and knowledge passed on from generation to generation.

Activity Two:

The main emphasis of this task is 'cultural briefing'

Objectives:

- To explore the utility of cultural briefing for people doing different purposes (studying, spending holidays, doing business outside their homeland).
- To discover the fundamental components in cultural briefing.

Procedure:

- Verify students' understanding of the word 'cultural briefing'. If needed, explain that it consists of collecting information about a particular culture or country you are about to visit or to do business with.
- Ask for examples of what it might be important, such as a research work on a given culture, or a first trip to a certain country, etc. Invite the students to give their views on some additional elements which they see could be comprised in a cultural briefing. Check that students understand the proposed ideas. Comment on these viewpoints and compare results.

Outcomes:

Make students aware of the fact that some constituents are practical (for example: British are not very talkative), while others are more abstract (British are conservative).

Activity Three:

This activity addresses the issue of 'stereotypes'

Objectives:

- To present the idea of the existence of stereotypes.
- To examine what could influence national stereotyping.

Procedure:

- Ask the students about the notion of stereotype and ask for examples.
- A wide range of opinions could be expressed by students and discussion should be encouraged. Usually, the examples given by the learners will not really portray the group they cite. However, it could be possible to find some truth in some of them.
- Introduce the task and discuss to what extent the national stereotypes are justified and to what degree they are inexact.
- Form pairs or small groups to propose some examples of stereotypes. Ask a volunteer from each group to recapitulate the feelings of their group. Encourage a class discussion.

Outcomes:

The basic point is that the students should form a clear idea about the risks of stereotyping and to what extent it makes respect and cooperation difficult between different individuals, communities and nations.

Activity Four:

This activity is concerned with 'cultural influences'

Objectives:

- To get students to reflect on the main elements that can influence a home culture.
- To highlight the differences between describing one's own culture and describing somebody else's.

Procedure:

- Ask students to present ideas on some important elements which can determine various national cultures.
- Provide a list that contains a variety of strands that may shape a culture including structural (economic system, political system, educational system), social (social values, time value, importance of relationships) and physical aspects (greetings, public distance, gestures), plus other additional behavioural characteristics.
- Explain to the students that they should use the list as a support, adding or removing any aspects.
- Encourage students to identify the importance of the provided or their suggested cultural influences.

Outcomes:

It should be possible for the students to be able to show the distinction between describing elements of their own culture and those of another. Ask them about the degree of difficulty that the students face when performing this task. Also, ask them to mention some differences between how they see their own national culture and how others view it. Is one view more critical than another? What were their impressions of the (in) exactitude of other individuals' opinions? Many different outcomes are possible to promote discussion.

Activity Five:

This task focuses essentially on 'cultural dilemmas'

Objectives:

- To explore varying communication styles within multicultural groups.
- To learn how to deal with these varying styles.

Procedure:

- Ask students to describe a meeting they have attended or a situation they have experienced when, in a multicultural group, they have been surprised by what someone has said or how he/she has acted.
- Write on the board some examples of predicaments that may occur when being with multicultural groups and some appropriate behaviours that should be developed to overcome cross-cultural issues.
- Ask the students to read the examples and to see if they agree on some of them. Gather their replies, and discuss the benefits and drawbacks of each.

Outcomes:

Learners should develop a more sensitive approach to the behaviour of diverse people in multicultural environments. Different obvious behaviours will be proposed. Another chief outcome is that students should grasp how these characteristics and behaviours can enhance good relationships, tolerance, and mutual understanding, even if they seem hard to achieve.

The Study

The academic work reported in this article lasted one academic semester involving the researcher and 59 second year Master students in the department of English at the University of Mostaganem in Algeria.

Data Collection and Interpretation

At the University of Mostaganem, covering the cultural content in ESP courses seems to be hindered by some pedagogical obstacles that prevent its effectiveness. As a possible remedy, this research proposes a rethinking of this instruction and aims to address the following research question:

- How can the implementation of intercultural activities in an ESP context contribute to the improvement of learners' performance?

We hypothesize that through incorporating an intercultural approach, ESP teachers can help their learners up their intercultural awareness, improve their language abilities most importantly speaking and writing, and acquire an appropriate management of their own behaviours.

Given its value as a profitable instrument that enables a thorough approach to research (Dyer, 1995) and because it is viewed as an analysis of a real-life situation or occasion that learners might face in the work environment (Van Der Ham, 2016), a case study was carried out through the triangulation of data from questionnaires administered to the students, classroom observation, and assessment of assignments and exam sheets. Throughout many years and before including the new intercultural approach in the teaching of ESP to Master students, classroom observation reveals that ESP practitioners do include very little or no cultural ingredients in their courses. Therefore, the classes tend to function within the boundaries of a routine and are teacher-driven. An itemized analysis of the findings shows that the results can be presented under the following headings:

1- Ample Practice Opportunities for Learners to Engage in Reflective Intercultural Interventions:

It was observed that the students learn better through activities and making them aware about intercultural issues and barriers seems to raise their enthusiasm and motivation. By including these tasks in ESP syllabi, a range of dissimilarities between various cultures is offered to the students. As a result, they will be able to examine their own practices and assumptions and to build meaningful bonds with members of other cultures.

As a reply to a query of the questionnaire, one of the students declared:

“This new teaching method really helped me develop my oral and written skills. It has been a very helpful and interesting experience. Honestly, I enjoyed the new different atmosphere of being acquainted with cultural issues in ESP classes and being involved in the learning process”

2- Learners' Acquaintance with Large Amounts of Oral and Written Language Input:

The researcher recorded that the provided exercises present possibilities in which high-frequency terms could be employed which can contribute to the promotion of students' proficiency in English. Moreover, the analysis of the learners' written exams and assignments demonstrates a number of observable features such as varied sentence structure, effective word choice, and coherent ideas. This reveals that participating in the many debates launched in the classroom during the activities and answering the questions related to the course through written forms, then providing feedback after each exercise led the learners to acquire sound communicative and writing knowledge and to develop a supportive learning climate.

3- Development of Intercultural Competence in the Workplace:

Learning about cultural content, and gaining knowledge about people's values, lifestyles, and social and economic structures through classroom discussions and intercultural tasks prove to be useful for equipping the learners with a thorough understanding and effective communication with people from dissimilar cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, this specific learning makes intercultural awareness capital to optimize satisfying outcomes of cross-cultural interactions and to lessen possible cultural faux-pas in the work environment.

4- Changes in the Learners' Beliefs and Attitudes:

The findings indicate that the students' learning potential increased when the intercultural tasks were integrated in their ESP programme. They revealed that their non-participation and lack of interest in their previous classes could be due to the limited content knowledge and the absence of cultural content. They also contended that being involved in the learning process helped them form a better understanding of intercultural communicative competence and the differing contexts in which it operates and this according to them led to their emerging role as 'agents of change'.

By way of illustration, a student reflecting on her viewpoints about traditional ESP courses prior and after the inclusion of the new intercultural approach, she asserted that:

"I learnt how basic and beneficial the things we hadn't dealt with were, and I learned that we should always try out such practical and motivating ideas"

Overall, many implications can be drawn that shed light on the introduction of intercultural activities in ESP teaching milieu. This study can be considered as a critical source that can offer scaffolding for teachers to help them meet the challenges they face when dealing with cultural obstacles. Further, it emboldens other teachers from corresponding and disparate contexts to embark on the role of reflective and innovative trainers.

Concluding Reflections

As the processes of intercultural encounters, facilitated mobility, and technological advancement continue to shape ways of existing and staying in touch, there has been an increasing recognition of the rudimentary importance of promoting intercultural competencies into English Language Teaching (ELT) spheres. Consequently, ESP teachers are entreated to design programmes based around the refinement of their learners' intercultural aptitudes and managerial skills that will serve them in the long run and help them grow into successful learners, efficient workers, and global citizens. Ultimately, this study has but offered an alternative to the development of the learners' language level and intercultural capacities and has done so in a quest for collaboration, innovation and further research.

About the Author:

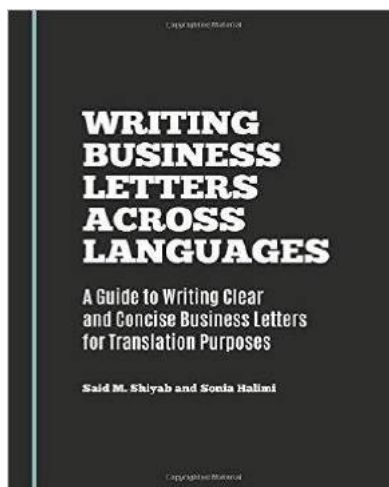
Dr. Fatma ZAGHAR is a senior lecturer at the University of Oran -2- in Algeria. She earns a PhD in Didactics. Her research and teaching interests lie in the areas of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Teaching, Intercultural Studies, and Educational Psychology. Her current research interrogates classroom practices in EFL settings.

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Book Review

Writing Business Letters across Languages: A Guide to Writing Clear and Concise Business Letters for Translation Purposes



Author: **Said M. Shiyab & Sonia Halimi**

Title of the Book: **Writing Business Letters across Languages: A Guide to Writing Clear and Concise Business Letters for Translation Purposes**

Year of Publication: **2015**

Publisher: **Cambridge Scholars Publishing, United Kingdom**

Number of Pages: **160**

Reviewer: **Dr. Nadia Idri, Faculty of Arts and Languages, University of Bejaia**

Language is generally a means of communication needed in professional settings. The written form of a professional remains crucial to make his/her ideas, arguments, motivations and products convincing. One of the means a professional is required to write is a business letter or a cover letter. This starts to be required in any academic or professional setting right from the early stages of ones' career. Given that students are called to submit cover letters; sometimes in a language different from their first language (L1) make them meet challenges to effectively write their business letter. From this point, I personally agree with Shiyab and Halimi's (2015) point

that students and teachers whose field is related to language/s need a textbook in business writing or business-related correspondences.

In its general form, the handbook is dedicated to students or teachers who need to write a business letter for translation purposes, the authors devoted seven chapters divided in 160 pages including references. Each chapter is with a useful checklist and a set of activities to help students practice. Regarding the used references, the authors relied mostly on a recent list of references that make 54 references in number. The book offers a rich glossary of the common business terms its users might need for a better comprehension. The authors provided rich examples of business letters in both languages; English and Arabic.

When the reader goes through the book, Shiyab and Halimi (2015) covered the “what” and the “how” of writing in general and writing business letters in particular. That is, the authors organized the chapters from general to specific going through the identification of writing as a process, to writing as an art moving to writing business letters in communication. In this, the authors related writing business letters to languages focusing on the writing process. They treated each stage in a chapter moving from components, to planning, to pre-writing, to writing and ending up with promotional tips. These, as one might notice, are the main stages we can find in the approach that deals with writing as a process.

As aforementioned, the authors open the book with an introductory chapter about the process. Any writer should consider important elements related to writing to reach an effective and clear written form that responds to the reader’s expectations. Hence, the use of the necessary writing mechanics, respecting language accuracy, spelling, appropriate vocabulary and the needed form should all be considered by the writer. For this the chapter puts focus on such parts as monotony, redundancy, clarity, coherence, cohesion, common knowledge, subjectivity, objectivity, straightforwardness and simplicity. This is one aspect in writing actually. That is, after this stage, the writer should have his/her artistic print and should accompany his/her writing smartness with good quality writing via specific mechanisms like style, organization and chosen content. All of the above discussed issues are successfully argued in the first chapter.

As for the second chapter, it is principally devoted to the nature and significance of business correspondence. It first introduces the notion of communication in business letters, then, to correspondence. To succeed in this type of writing, Shiyab and Halimi (2015) presented details about business communication and correspondence through sections that cover types of business letters with their inner and outer qualities. The last element of the chapter is considering “when writing business letters across languages”.

The authors are impeccably systematic in terms of chapters’ organisation. They move smoothly from general to specific. As a follow up of the second chapter, the authors offer an entire, well-illustrated chapter about types of business letter and their different formats. The chapter’s main objective is to suggest a range of formats used by various companies and organisations in both academic and non-academic settings. What is exceptional in this chapter is its diversified samples whether as a one-block format, a modified block or a modified intended block format.

After a general overview of the choice of the business letter format, one needs to consider the way he/she needs to employ in order to write the business letter. This is what the fourth chapter embeds as it goes through the main elements of the business letter's form: heading, date, inside address, salutation, body, complementary close, signature block and enclosures copies. All of these indispensable basics of a letter form are illustrated through existing examples. The authors did not also neglect additional formal notes on spacing, letter font and headings. Finally, a quite interesting space to writing business letters in Arabic has been devoted at the end of the chapter.

The process of writing takes into account a number of stages. This comes after decision-making about the needed form and content. This chapter emphasizes the pre-writing stage of the business letter. Here, one cannot deny that the authors generously exposed the required foundations a writer needs when drafting his/her business letter across languages. According to Shiyab and Halimi (2015), any writer is in need of taking into account the language use and culture. That is, the author needs to reflect on the language clues imposed by the language he/she uses and adhere to its communicative rules. It is for these reasons that the authors insist on the use of the right method while writing. Within this line of thought, any writer should consider clarity of the goal, simplicity, conciseness and completion of his/her style. The pre-writing stage should be revised before moving to the final step; the writing stage.

The sixth chapter of the book leads its user to writing, finally, his/her business letter. The chapter details the discussion about the part of the letter and how to write clearly and explicitly each part; opening, body and ending through the usual samples (in both languages; Arabic and English) offered all along the book. One can need to write different kinds of business letters according to the message he/she wants to convey. Hence, the authors offered a range of letter types like request, complaint, apology, application letter, congratulations, thanks, memos, etc. this chapter contains about forty sample letters in both languages English and Arabic.

The last chapter of the book goes beyond writing and is expanded to what is purely bound to business correspondence. The chapter introduces the notion of promotional materials. Then, a number of arguments are presented to show how important it is to use creative and evocative language when advertising. For this, Shiyab and Halimi (2015) highlighted language styles and the needed language for ads, e.g. argumentative, declarative, incentive. The idea stems from having an impact on the receiver's emotions and mind. For this, they went through figures of speech mainly metathesis, rhyme, alliteration, allusions, decoding. To enclose the chapter and the book, the authors added some aspects that make the receiver of the business letter understand better are added namely decoding, abbreviations, direct solicitations, transfer and publicity failure.

All in all, the book remains a necessary guide and textbook every student should have in his/her library. This book can book the student's companion mainly when he/she is required to draft a cover letter or a business letter in either English or Arabic.

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