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Cultural Diversity and the Challenges of Teaching Multicultural Classes in the Twenty-First Century

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Abstract
This study is a meta-analysis of the recent literature on teaching culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students. Extant literature on this issue has shown that teaching students coming from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds seems to pose serious threats to teachers at different levels of education. Using a quantitative content analysis, this paper examines twenty studies and book chapters in the field of multicultural education so as to identify the major challenges of the multicultural classroom. The aim is also to identify and describe the most effective competencies that teachers need to be better equipped to survive in today's "fast-changing world". The findings of this study show that teaching CLD students requires special training, extra competencies, and "culturally responsive" pedagogies. The findings can also be of help to university teachers as universities today are becoming more and more multicultural all over the world. Finally, the results can advance knowledge about the issue of teaching CLD students both in the university environment and in the field of research.
Keywords**:** cultural diversity**,** ethnicity**,** multicultural education, teacher competencies

Introduction

The fall of the Berlin wall in 1989 and the rise of globalization in the last decade of the twentieth century had tremendous effects on education all over the world as cultural encounters became more frequent and immigration reached a high peak. By the end of the twentieth century, schools started witnessing an important change, for most of the classrooms turned into a "small village" with "culturally and linguistically diverse students" (Den Brok & Levy, 2005). However, multicultural classes largely differ from monocultural ones because they require teachers with "additional" competencies and skills (McAllister & Irvine, 2002).

Studies in the field of multicultural education show that effective teaching of multicultural classes is unquestionably one of the biggest challenges that teachers face today (Den Brok & Levy, 2005; Howard, 1999; Jeevanantham, 2001). McAllister and Irvine (2002), for example, argue that teachers in multicultural classrooms "face increasing challenges in providing an appropriate classroom environment and high standards of instruction that foster the academic achievement of all students, particularly students of color from low socioeconomic backgrounds" (p. 3). Other researchers uphold that teaching multicultural classes today requires teachers with extra competencies and skills at the level of interaction, classroom management, and assessment (Chamberlain, 2005; Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, & Roy, 2012).

This review, therefore, focuses on the studies that have been conducted since the beginning of the twenty-first century on the multicultural classroom. More precisely, focus is on what these studies have found on the challenges of the multicultural classroom and the required teacher competencies to become more effective.

Rationale

This study has been triggered by several reasons. First and foremost, understanding cultural diversity is today one of the most important requirements in the educational context across the globe as classrooms are becoming more diverse and more multicultural. These types of classrooms have now become very common in some countries like the United States, Canada, and Europe. However, this does not mean that this issue is not of concern in other countries because the world is becoming "smaller" and people are moving and immigrating in all directions (Den Brok & Levy, 2005). Second, unlike monocultural classes where students have a lot of things in common, multicultural classes present more challenges and require teachers with special skills to communicate and interact more effectively with their students. Third, teachers in non-western countries should now be better prepared to cope with multicultural classes mainly at the university level where the number of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students is on the rise. Finally, in spite of the important upsurge of interest in multicultural education by numerous researchers, different aspects of the field are still either largely unexplored or need more scrutiny (Banks, 2013; Ennaji, 2005).

Purpose of the Study

The primary concern of this contribution is to review the literature on multicultural education so as to shed light on the challenges that teachers face and the competencies they need to effectively operate within "culturally and linguistically diverse" classrooms. More precisely, this contribution is an attempt to identify, understand, and describe the major challenges that arise when teaching students coming from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. The second main objective is to identify a set of competencies that can help teachers in countries where

multicultural education is still largely ignored (e.g., Morocco) become more effective in the multicultural classroom.

Research Questions

The present study addresses the challenges of the multicultural classroom and the competencies that twenty-first century teachers need to develop through the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the challenges of teaching the multicultural classroom in the twenty-first century?

RQ2: What competencies do twenty-first century teachers need to be more effective in the multicultural classroom?

Definitions of Terms

Culture: Culture has been largely defined by scholars from different disciplines. Samovar and Porter (2001), for instance, define culture as follows:

> the deposit of knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, social hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, spatial relationships, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving. (Samovar & Porter, 2001, p. 8)

Multiculturalism: Parekh (2006) upholds that multiculturalism is not about differences of identity or "individual choices"; it is rather about differences related to other elements such as culture, history, and belief system. He defines multiculturalism as follows:

> Multiculturalism is not about difference and identity *per se* but about those [differences] that are embedded in and sustained by culture; that is, a body of beliefs and practices in terms of which a group of people understand themselves and the world and organize their individual and collective lives. Unlike differences that spring from individual choices, culturally differences carry a measure of authority and are patterned and structured by virtue of being embedded in a shared and historically inherited system of meaning and significance. (Parekh, 2006, pp. 2-3)

Multicultural classroom: For Tartwijk, Den Brok, Veldman, and Wubbels (2009), "Multicultural classrooms are characterized by a diversity of ethnicity, religion, mother tongue, and cultural traditions" (p. 453).

Multicultural education: According to Banks and Banks (2010), "Multicultural education incorporates the idea that all students – regardless of their gender, social class, and ethnic, racial, or cultural characteristics – should have an equal opportunity to learn in school" (p. 3).

Methods

This study focuses on research related to the challenges that teachers face and the competencies they need for effective teaching in the multicultural classroom. The main objective is to understand and describe what the literature has found so far about these obstacles and competencies. The ultimate goal is to present what recent studies offer as solutions to these problems all over the world and their suggestions in the field of research.

Sampling Procedure

In this review, twenty articles and book chapters from the literature have been selected as a sample for data gathering and analysis. Most of the selected sources are articles from well-known journals and books on multicultural education. Different criteria have been used in the selection of these documents. The criteria used in the selection process are the following:

- Articles from Google Scholar data base: (Keywords, date of publication, and subject area have been used in the search for sources).
- Indexed journals: Only articles from indexed journals have been selected for quality and reliability reasons.
- Articles cited in several studies.
- Chapters from books by scholars in multicultural education.

Data Analysis

The analysis of the data relies on two main criteria. First, the findings of the selected documents are used to explore and understand the main challenges that research has found so far in the field of multicultural education. Second, frequencies are used to identify the major competencies that twenty-first century teachers need to develop to be more effective in the multicultural classroom.

Findings

The findings of this study are divided into two sections. The first section is about the findings on the challenges of the multicultural classroom. The second section is on the additional competencies that the multicultural classroom requires today for effective teaching.

The challenges of the Multicultural Classroom

Since its beginning in the 1960's, research on multicultural education has highlighted the numerous obstacles that infest the multicultural classroom (Banks, 1993). However, studies conducted in the beginning of the twenty-first century show that these challenges are increasing. A brief analysis of these studies indicates that the most important obstacles that multicultural education teachers face today include the following: (1) ethnicity, (2) racism/inequality, (3) different epistemologies/ways of knowing, and (4) different learning styles.

Challenge 1: Ethnicity

Ethnicity has been identified by several studies as one of the central obstacles that can severely damage teacher-student interaction and communication in the multicultural classroom (Den Brock & Levy, 2005; Den Brok, Levy, Rodriguez, & Wubbels, 2002; Den Brok, Levy, Wubbels, & Rodriguez, 2003; Gay & Howard, 2000; McAlister & Irvine, 2000). These studies used different "indicators" to measure the effects of ethnicity on students' perceptions. Some of these indicators included parents' and students' country of birth, "the length of residence in the country", and the "language spoken at home" (Den Brok & Levy, 2005, p. 76).

In 2005, Den Brok and Levy reviewed the literature on the effects of students' and teachers' ethnic backgrounds on three areas: (1) how students perceive their teachers' behavior, (2) how teachers treat individual students, and (3) and students' achievement. The reviewed studies were conducted in different countries such as the United States, Australia, the Netherlands, and some other countries from Asia (e.g., Singapore, Brunei, and Taiwan). The authors concluded that ethnicity might have serious effects on both interaction and achievement

if inadequately treated by teachers. Figure 1 below summarizes the strong connection between students' ethnic background, teachers' ethnic background, students' perception, and students' achievement:

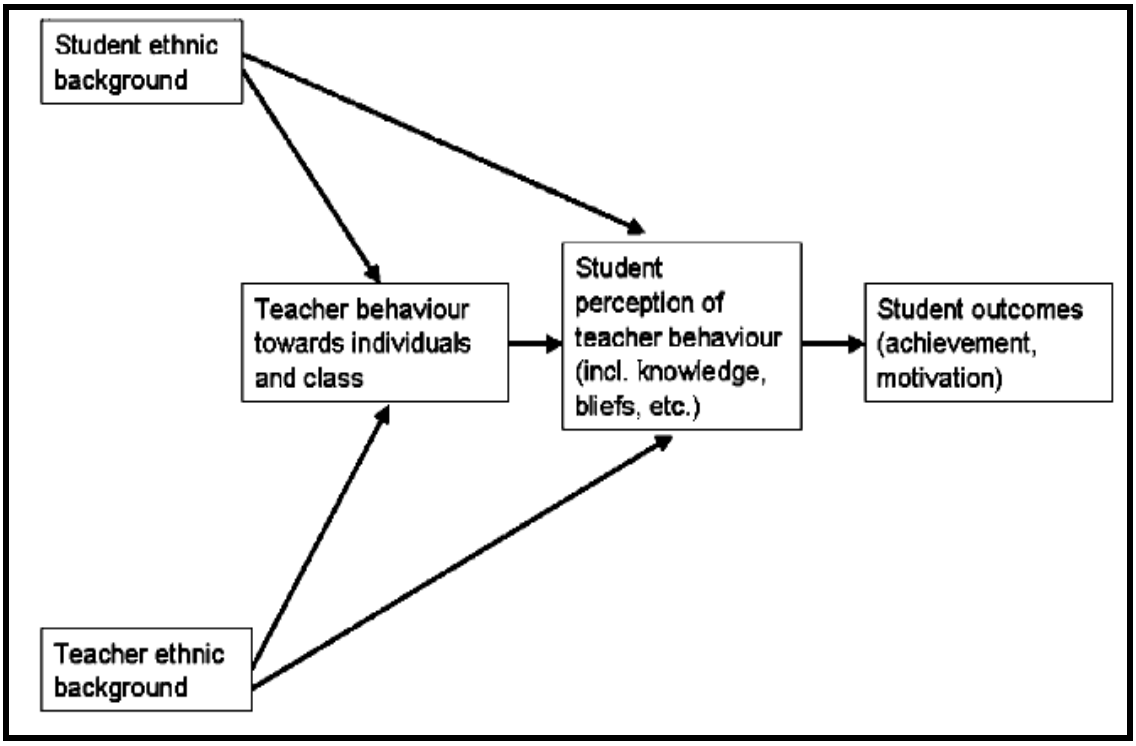

Figure 1. **Effect of Ethnicity on Students' Perceptions and Outcomes (Den Brok & Levy, 2005, p. 75)**

Obviously, then, the effect of ethnicity on both students' and teachers' perceptions plays an important role in the multicultural classroom. In other words, teachers need to be aware of the role of ethnicity in the classroom to avoid its negative impacts on the teaching-learning process.

Challenge 2: Racism and Inequality

At least a quarter of the studies in this review stress the serious impact of racism and inequality on the multicultural classroom (e.g., Banks, 2013; Gay & Howard, 2000; Howard, 1999; Sleeter, 2001; Sleeter, 2005; Wells, 2008). Up to 1990, students of color in the United States had been considered as "problematic", "lazy", and "mentally deficient". Yet, the last decade of the twentieth century witnessed a major change in the United States as schools became more "culturally responsive" and teachers started to take students' cultural differences and "equity" into consideration (Schmeichel, 2012).

Surprisingly, some of the studies in this review have discovered that in spite of all the efforts that have been made so far, racism "is still persisting" as a major obstacle in the multicultural classroom. In 2001, Sleeter found out that the "presence of whiteness" at all levels of education in American schools was "overwhelming". Sleeter (2001) observes that "In predominantly white programs, not only are classmates mostly white, but so are professors and teachers in the field" (p. 102). In the author's opinion, changing the curriculum, using alternative

programs, preparing teachers "for culturally diverse schools", and shifting the focus of research about teacher preparation can lead to better results in the future (Sleeter, 2001).

In a study on "good teaching" and "equity", Schmeichel (2012) also warns against the persistence of racism and inequality in American schools. Schmeichel (2012) concludes that "While culturally responsive scholars strived to situate that difference positively, their work simultaneously situated white, middle class beliefs, behaviours, and cultural strategies as the norm, the centre of the continuum" (p. 222).

Challenge 3: Different Epistemologies/"Ways of Knowing"

Most of the studies in this review recognize the tremendous effect that culture has on people's "ways of knowing" or epistemologies. Rothstein-Fisch and Trumbull (2008), for instance, state that each culture guides the ways people know and learn. These "ways of knowing" include "how people organize their world cognitively through language and other symbol systems" (Rothstein-Fisch & Trumbull, 2008, p. 3). They also include how people "approach learning and problem solving, how they construct knowledge and how they pass it on from generation to generation" (Rothstein-Fisch & Trumbull, 2008, p. 3).

Other researchers think that different epistemologies and ways of knowing are the result of people's different world views (Hofstede, 1991). For Madjidi and Restoule (2008), worldviews can be divided into two broad categories: the western world view and the indigenous world view. The main characteristics of each world view are summarized in the following table:

Table 1 ***Western and Indigenous Worldviews (adapted from Madjidi & Restoule, 2008)***

Western Worldview:	**Indigenous Worldview**:
- Linear - Objective - Secular - Industrial - Fragmentary	- Cyclical - Subjective - Spiritual - Nature/context-based - Holistic

The results of several studies make it clear that when the teacher is unaware that the multicultural classroom is not homogeneous and approaches the students as if they all had the same "ways of Knowing", some of his/her students feel at a loss and become less motivated (Banks, 2013; Samovar, Porter, MacDaniel, & Roy, 2012). Often, these students develop feelings of inferiority and carelessness as they find themselves in a learning context that is totally strange to how they have been socialized within their families and communities.

Challenge 4: Learning Styles

Different scholars in this study emphasize the importance of understanding students' learning styles in the multicultural classroom (e.g., Banks, 2013; Samovar, Porter, MacDaniel, & Roy, 2012). Tileston and Darling (2008), for instance, note that "Context speaks to the culture of

the students. How do they learn best – individually or in groups? What world view do they bring from their culture, and what kind of classroom will best reflect that culture? What is the role of socialization in their culture?" (p. 9).

In Gay's (2002) study, it is argued that most teachers have just a superficial knowledge of their students' learning styles. For Gay (2002), teachers' ignorance about these cultural factors often stems from their sources of information: "What they think they know about the field is often based on superficial or distorted information conveyed through popular culture, mass media, and critics" (p. 107).

Teacher Competencies in the 21st century

The studies in this review unanimously agree that teaching multicultural classes can challenge even veteran teachers. Throughout these studies, the authors reason that to teach in these classes, teachers need not only to have a clear understanding of intercultural communication, but also to be equipped with an "arsenal" of competencies and skills (Banks & Banks, 2010).

Competency 1: Understanding Yourself

Four studies uphold that to become effective in the multicultural classroom, a teacher is required to start by understanding himself/herself (Chamberlain, 2005; Gay & Howard, 2000; McAlister & Irvine, 2000; Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, & Roy, 2012). To understand the self, teachers' "cultural biases" and "ethnic prejudices" should be thoroughly analyzed before asking students to do so (Gay & Howard, 2000).

Often, multicultural teachers do not know that understanding cultural diversity starts by, first, understanding their cultural background (Chamberlain, 2005). In general, a major mistake that teachers make is that they start by their students' cultural background and fail to understand their own. Chamberlain (2005) explains the effects of such mistake as follows:

> Too often, we think that understanding cultural differences begins by looking at the culture of our students. However, if we are not able to understand our own culture, we will view our value system as the normative and 'right' way of understanding and acting, and others as 'abnormal' and 'deviant'. (Chamberlain, 2005, p. 205)

Competency 2: Developing Intercultural/ Competence

In this review, most of the studies (14 studies) stress the pivotal role that intercultural/multicultural competence plays in the multicultural classroom. Developing intercultural/multicultural competence requires teachers (1) "to become aware of culture clashes", (2) "to develop knowledge of dimensions of cultural variability," (3) "to become knowledgeable about how culture influences the teaching/learning process", (4) "to hold high expectations for all students", and (5) "to resist the blame game" (Chamberlain, 2005, p. 206). Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, and Roy (2012) explain that this competency is related to developing different ways of "perceiving", "believing", "evaluating", and "doing". These scholars think that interculturally/multiculturally competent teachers can:

- Recognize, when planning lessons and other classroom activities, the cultural differences in how students see, know, and interrelate with knowledge and the classroom environment.
- Understand how their own culture might differ from those of their students.

- Plan activities that will help students to understand cultural differences, the causes of cultural conflict, and the relationship between cultural differences and social inequalities. (Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, & Roy, 2012, p. 348)

These findings support the advances of intercultural communication researchers who generally uphold that intercultural/multicultural competence cannot be gained overnight (Hall, 1959; Hall, 1976; Samovar & Porter, 2003; Scollon & Scollon, 2002; Ting-Toomey, 1999). Adler, Rosenfeld, and Towne (1995), for instance, acknowledge that intercultural communication competence is not an easy task even for those communicators who possess some important skills such as "genuine concern for others", "the ability to empathize", and "self-monitoring".

Competency 3: Becoming Empathic

The majority of the studies in this review deal with empathy either directly or indirectly. Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, and Roy, (2012) define empathy as "the ability to assume the role of another and, by imagining the world as the other sees it, predict accurately the motives, attitudes, feelings, and needs of the other" (p. 354). Accordingly, empathic teachers are not only required to step into the shoes of their students and see things as they see them, but also need to communicate in ways that do not cause "dissonance" with these students.

For Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, and Roy (2012), there are at least four elements that can help a teacher become "an empathic communicator": (1) to "communicate a supportive climate", (2) to "attend to a student's nonverbal behavior as well as his or her verbal communication", (3) to "accurately reflect and clarify feelings", and (4) to "be genuine and congruent" (p. 355).

In 2000, McAlister and Irvine also conducted a qualitative study on teachers' perception of empathy in the multicultural classroom. The findings reveal that empathy is crucial to teacher-student interaction. They also conclude that empathy plays a facilitating role in classroom management.

Competency 4: Understanding Immediacy

Several scholars have highlighted the importance of understanding immediacy and its central role in communicating with culturally and linguistically diverse students (e.g., Den Brok & Levy, 2005; Samovar, Porter, MacDaniel, & Roy, 2012). Most of the scholars have tried to answer the following question: Why do teachers need immediacy to teach effectively in the multicultural classroom? In answering this question, these scholars conclude that teachers need to understand that students who come from different cultural backgrounds communicate differently.

For Hall (1959), people from "high-context" cultures and people from "low-context" cultures communicate in different ways because they are placed at the opposite ends of a continuum. Hall (1976) further explains that high-context cultures (Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, Latin Americans, and Arabs) do not need much information to communicate effectively. The people in these cultures are often "homogeneous", and share history and traditions (Hall, 1976). High-context cultures "tend to be more aware of their surroundings and their environment and can communicate those feelings without words [because] so much information is available in the environment that it is unnecessary to verbalize everything" (Samovar & Porter, 2001, p. 81). High-context people also leave a lot of things "unsaid" because there is enough information in the context where the interaction takes place. Therefore, there is no need for these people to

verbalize everything in explicit or direct ways. In contrast, low-context cultures tend to be "less homogeneous" and often do not share a common history. When people from low-context cultures communicate, they try to be "direct", "explicit", and "say what is on their mind" (Samovar & Porter, 2001, p. 81). In low-context cultures, information is contained in verbal messages since "everything needs to be stated, and if possible stated well" (Samovar & Porter, 2001, p. 81).

More recently, the role of immediacy in the multicultural classroom has been studied more deeply. Some studies have pointed to the strong role that immediacy plays in creating a positive atmosphere with students who are culturally and linguistically diverse (Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, & Roy, 2012). For Den Brok and Levy (2005), teachers should be aware of how to use immediacy with their students if they want to be effective: "In class, strong immediacy is reflected in teacher behavior that is supportive, friendly and occasionally emotional, and leads to the formation of close bonds with students" (p. 74).

Competency 5: Adopting an Integrated Approach to Instruction

Several studies refer to the importance of adopting "an integrated approach" in teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. Studies carried by several scholars indicate that using different teacher strategies, contextualizing learning, and respecting the "assets that students bring in the classroom" (Banks, 2013) are effective ways of instruction in this context (Chamberlain, 2005).

Some scholars of multicultural education suggest using "culturally responsive" or "culturally relevant" approaches to instruction because they take into consideration students' differences (Banks, 2013). According to multicultural theorists, culturally responsive approaches use a variety of teaching strategies (scaffolding, for example) that take into consideration students' linguistic, cultural, racial, religious, and even physical differences (Banks & Banks, 2010; Banks, 2013, Nieto & Bode, 2010).

Competency 6: Using Nondiscriminatory Assessment Strategies

Two studies in this review stress the need for teachers to develop assessment techniques and strategies to avoid discriminatory assessment practices in the classroom. For example, Gay and Howard (2000) think teachers should learn how to design "equitable" and "culturally appropriate" tests for diverse students. Gay and Howard (2000) explain the need for teachers to change their testing strategies as follows:

> Instead of relying exclusively on pencil and paper assessment techniques, teachers need to learn how to use other means such as dramatizations, role-playing, interviews, observations, peer feedback, audio and visual journals, and conversions of learning from one form or genre to another (e.g., from words to pictures, essays to poetry, writing to speaking). (Gay & Howard, 2000, p. 14)

Chamberlain (2005), on the other hand, argues that in assessing students, a great number of teachers fail to spot problems arising from cultural and linguistic differences. Such mistakes have dire consequences and lead to more serious problems such as "overreferral", "misidentification", and "overrepresentation". Chamberlain (2005) thinks that testing personnel should develop "nondiscriminatory assessment strategies". For these strategies to be developed, the author highlights the following measures:

> By becoming aware of different ways that assessments may be biased …, assessment personnel can make conscious decisions not to discriminate based on faulty or incomplete data. It is particularly important that assessment personnel become skilled at determining when underachievement is attributable to a disability and when it is attributable to something else, including cultural incongruence in the classroom and second-language acquisition. Chamberlain, 2005, p. 208)

Obviously, the findings of the above studies explicitly show that assessing students remains one of the darkest sides of twenty-first century education. Put differently, the issue of preparing teachers for testing culturally and linguistically diverse students seems to be one of the urgent requirements of twenty-first century education.

Discussion

This study analyzes extant literature on teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. The analysis shows that since the teachers of such students face several challenges, they need extra competencies and special training.

First of all, although teaching CLD students is fraught with dangers, this review reveals that "good teaching" is possible if some measures are taken. One of the major requirements of the multicultural classroom is that teachers should change their old mindsets. Some scholars, such as Schmeickel (2012), postulate that teaching CLD students ought to stress "justice" and "equity". Other scholars advise teachers to shift from focusing on "students' deficits" to stressing "students' gifts" regardless of their linguistic or ethnic backgrounds. This shift can help teachers focus on "knowledge construction" and reduce bias and prejudice (Banks & Banks, 2010). Tileston and Darling (2008), for instance, explain that teachers "need to stop focusing on the deficits and look at the gifts – the life experiences – that our students bring with them. When we know this, we can make more informed decisions about how to teach them" (p. 7).

Second, to prepare teachers for the multicultural classroom, serious measures need to be taken at the level of training. Firstly, some scholars think that the best place to start this preparation is with pre-service teachers. Rego and Nieto (2000) argue that "If prospective teachers are taught at colleges and universities that continue to value only the knowledge, scholarship, and contributions of those in the dominant culture, they will have limited perspectives to bring to their teaching" (p. 423). Secondly, for training to be more effective in the multicultural classroom, it should also encompass in-service teachers (Rego and Nieto, 2000).

Third, the findings indicate that one of the most essential requirements to achieve better teaching in the multicultural classroom today is school reform (Wells, 2008). Different studies made it clear that better students' achievement cannot be realized without radical school reforms with a multicultural perspective. Nieto and Bode (2010), for instance, advance five conditions to systematically reform schools:

1. School reform should be antiracist and antibiased.
2. School reform should reflect an understanding and acceptance of all students as having talents and strengths that can enhance their education.
3. School reform should be considered within the parameters of critical pedagogy.
4. The people most intimately connected with teaching and learning (teachers, parents, and students themselves) need to be meaningfully involved in school reform.

5. School reform needs to be based on high expectations and rigorous standards for all learners. (Nieto & Bode, 2010, p. 409)

Moreover, although several multicultural classroom issues have been addressed since the 1960's, the solutions advanced by several studies have sometimes been of little help to teachers in different contexts. In different studies, there is ample evidence that the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the students continue to present serious challenges to most teachers in different areas such as communication, interaction, classroom, management, and testing.

Finally, the analysis indicates that research in multicultural education is still suffering from some weaknesses. Indeed, in spite of the immense impact of globalization and immigration on education across the world, research in the field of multicultural education has been widely conducted only in some countries like the United States, Canada, and Europe (Den Brok & Levy, 2005). As a result, other challenges and teacher competencies remain unknown or unexplored. In other words, more research is still needed in these areas.

All in all, in spite of the rich body of literature on teaching CLD students and the promises it brings to teachers and schools, some nagging questions remain unanswered about two main issues: (1) To what extent are these findings valid and pertinent in other countries where no studies have been conducted up to now (particularly countries that are different from Europe and North America)? (2) How can these findings help educators cope with the recent political and religious events that are turning the world into a more divided and more complex world (terrorism, racism, Islamophobia, and religious conflicts)? Indeed, the recent events in France, Belgium, Germany, and the United States of America show that education today needs to adopt a multicultural approach to education since minorities, such as Muslims and blacks, see that their cultural specificities are marginalized and not seriously taken into consideration as a component of the social fabric of the countries where they live.

As a matter of fact, in the second decade of the twenty-first century, some scholars have tried to emphasize the serious impact of the strong upheavals that are shaking the world today on both education and research (Banks, 2013; Schmeikel, 2012). They have, thus, tried to raise the attention to the recent challenges that multicultural education is facing, too. For these scholars, the challenges of the multicultural classroom will get trickier, for the required competencies will be more difficult to acquire due to these current events. To respond to some of these obstacles, Banks (2013) concludes:

> Multicultural education will continue to evolve and change in complex ways. Its major focus in the future will be to describe the ways in which cultural, racial, ethnic, language, and religious diversity is manifested in nations around the world and to develop powerful concepts and theories that can explain teaching and learning related to diversity across nations. (p. 80)

Conclusion

The principal focus of this review was to determine the main challenges and the essential competencies needed to effectively teach culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students. Most of the studies reviewed in this article stress that teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students is not an easy task for any teacher. Some of these studies admit that teachers "can not be expected to perform miracles" (Phuntsog, 1999, p. 99) since they "can't teach what

[they] do not know" (Howard, 1999). The findings support the assumption that when a teacher steps into the multicultural classroom, s/he steps into a mine zone where s/he has to be very cautious about the language, the type of interaction, the material used, and the way of assessing students. Ignoring or underestimating students' linguistic and cultural differences is likely to lead to miscommunication or misinterpretation in the classroom. These factors, in turn, may not only lead to serious conflicts between teachers and students, but may also end in poor assessment of the students' true level. Furthermore, one of the major findings is that good teaching is possible in the multicultural classroom when the following requirements are met: (1) teachers should be aware of the main challenges of these classes, (2) teachers should be well trained and equipped with adequate competencies, and schools ought to be radically reformed with a "multicultural perspective" (Nieto and Bode, 2010).

Implications of the Study

The findings of this meta-analysis study reveal that good teaching in the multicultural classroom is possible if some measures are taken into consideration. First of all, teachers and schools should understand the main tenets of multicultural education. These tenets are summarized by Banks and Banks (2010, p. 23) as follows:

- Content integration.
- Knowledge construction.
- Prejudice reduction.
- Empowering school culture.
- Equity pedagogy.

Second, teachers should shift from focusing on "students' deficits" to "students' gifts". Third, there is an urgent need today to prepare teachers for the challenges of the multicultural classroom. Studies have shown that preparation at classroom level is not enough; in other words, more training is needed at two levels: (1) pre-service training for prospective teachers, and (2) continuous training for in-service teachers (Rego & Nieto, 2000, p. 423). Above all, curriculum development and teaching are required to focus more on justice and equity (Schmeickel, 2012; Wells, 2008).

Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

Like any other study, this contribution has its limitations. First, this study is a meta-analysis. In other words, it is basically theoretical and not practical in its approach. Second, most of the studies in this review are based on quantitative approaches. Third, the majority of these studies were conducted in Western countries such as Europe and North America. In addition, some studies focused only on some aspects of the multicultural classroom or dealt with multicultural education in a theoretical or general manner.

However, some of the above limitations might be overcome in future research. For example, using qualitative or mixed methods approaches can yield better results about several issues on teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. Also, conducting more research on the multicultural classroom in other countries (including Muslims/Arab countries – such as Morocco – where culture, language, religion, gender, disability, and ethnicity are now important factors in the classroom and within society at large) will undoubtedly enrich our knowledge and provide us with new insights in the field.

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Does Arabizi Constitute a Threat to Arabic?

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Abstract

The main goal of this study was to empirically examine the impact of Arabizi (i.e. writing Arabic with English script) on Palestinian students' Arabic language development. This article seeks to enter the debate over the merits and risks of widespread Arabizi use with a quantitative study of its effects on Arab students. In order to assess whether internet use and Arabizi use affect performance in Arabic fluency, we administered an Arabic spelling test, followed by a brief survey assessing students' use of Arabizi to 420 eighth grade students in Bethlehem government schools. The overall results show that using Arabizi was correlated with weaker scores on the spelling test, indicating either that Arabizi use harms students Arabic capabilities or that other factors cause students to use Arabizi and to have weak Arabic spelling skills. However, more research must be done to tease out these differences and look beyond correlation.

***Key words**:* Arabizi, Arabic script, language development, sociolinguistics

1. Introduction

Modern technology has transformed the patterns of communication in Palestinian society. Arabizi is a transliterated Arabic chat alphabet that substitutes English letters and numbers for standard Arabic letters. For example, instead of writing طبعا they would write tab3an (translation: "of course"). Due to Arabizi's informal nature, it has not been codified. Thus, internet posters and academics provide descriptive charts. See Naji and Allan (2016), who provide a comprehensive description of Arabic letters and their Arabizi equivalents in order to help researchers find data in Arabizi sources.

Arabizi emerged two decades ago as social media platforms became popular in the Arab world. Since these 'western' technologies did not initially support Arabic-script languages, Arabic speakers resorted to Arabizi to fulfill their urgent need to express themselves on these platforms. Although technological support of Arabic script has emerged on most systems, Arabizi has been growing in popularity among teenagers' online communications for various reasons. It seems that current users of Arabizi are now motivated by factors other than practical need (e.g. personal, social, aesthetic, political …etc).

This practice may have serious consequences for the youths' native language development. *Some people consider the use of Arabizi* an easy and practical way for online communication. They argue that it *does not have* any *negative impact* on the Arab *students*' first language. Others have concerns that unwarranted use of Arabizi will *have* negative *effects* on students' native *language competency*.

2. Statement of the Problem

People have different opinions about the effects of Arabizi on the Arabic language. Some teachers, parents, and officials claim that this will negatively affect teenagers' Arabic language ability; in fact, they go even further to view Arabizi as a threat to the essence of the Arabic language. However, other people, especially teenagers and users of Arabizi, do not see such a threat to the Arabic language and consider Arabizi an easy and practical way to express themselves online. *Thus far* no concrete empirical studies have been published on the effects of Arabizi on Arabic language development, so it is unclear if these concerns are well-founded. The purpose of this study is to empirically investigate the impact of Arabizi use on Palestinian students' Arabic spelling skills.

3. Literature Review

There is much research that deals with the impact of using technology in general and the Internet specifically on students' academic achievement and other skills. For example, Jackson et al. (2006) conclude that the more youngsters use the Internet, the better they score on standardized reading tests. In a longitudinal three-year investigation, Judge et al (2006) find positive correlation between students' usage of home-Internet and academic achievement.

In the same vein, Al-Shaer (2013) looks into the impact of using blended learning (BL) in a reading comprehension course on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' attitudes and motivation. A comparison of the students' mean scores of pre-and post-questionnaires reveals a statistically significant improvement in the students' attitudes and motivation toward learning English and employing computer-based activities. Kuhlemeier and Hemker (2007) and Hohlfeld

et al. (2008) find that as access to computers and the Internet increases, the students' performance in computer applications and skills improves in school.

Regarding Arabizi, most available studies narrowly define the phenomenon, offer historical review of its development, or merely list the reasons behind teenagers' inclination to use Latin characters to write Arabic. For instance, Muhammed et al (2011) find that 82% of respondents actually used Arabizi; 40% of them frequently used it and 22% always use it. Around 20% of the respondents reported that they felt related to their colleagues when they used Arabizi as others would not understand it.

The respondents in this same study gave a variety of reasons for using Arabizi such as: practicality & easiness, ignorance of the Arabic equivalence, difficulty of Arabic alphabets, *connectedness* to another person or a *social group*, joke-telling or humorous anecdotes, confidentiality or information privacy from parents or people of a higher status, imitating their colleagues, following the latest Arabizi fad … etc. According to Mohammed et al (2011), 60% of Egyptian users did not view Arabizi as harmful for their Arab identity, not ruling out its negative impact on westernized younger generations. Other respondents, who declared that they never used Arabizi, attributed that to their respect for Arabic as the language of the Quran and the symbol of their national identity. Further, they described Arabizi as confusing and unsystematic.

Al-Khatib and Sabbah (2008) carried out a sociolinguistic investigation of 46 Jordanian university students' objectives, uses, and preferences using Arabizi. The study indicated that 61% of the participants generally used Arabizi: 39% of them wrote words and phrases in Arabizi; 54% used English vocabulary; and only 9% employed Arabic words in Arabic letters. The study also indicated that female participants (44%), as opposed to males, had more inclination towards switching to English instead of Arabic or Arabizi for the sake of showing off, gaining prestige or employing euphemism. Interestingly, the study revealed the choice of the language variety (i.e. Arabizi, English, or Arabic) largely depends on the topic. For example, Arabizi, which proved to be the most widely used variety among university students, was mostly employed in intimate social and personal interactions. Arabic was used in topics that are closely related to religious and cultural areas. English was mainly used in topics pertaining to work or university matters.

A similar study, conducted in 2011 (Bianchi, 2011) examines the use and distribution of Arabizi, or Latin-scripted Arabic, on the Jordanian website mahjoob.com. The study specifically seeks to understand how the use of Arabizi and codeswitching on online forums is used to build the identity of the posters. Bianchi finds that posters most often chose one script to write in: Arabic-scripted Arabic, English-scripted English, or Latin-scripted (arithmographemic) Arabic. This study also supports the conclusion of Al-Khatib and Sabbah (2008) that code choice relates closely to topic. Bianchi demonstrates that posters on mahjoob.com varied their language choice based on the topic and the online identity they wanted to create. Additionally, Latin-scripted Arabic, referred to in this paper as Arabizi is only used to transcribe colloquial Arabic rather than the formal form of Arabic that is taught in Arab schools. Thus the rules of this writing system do not conform to formal Arabic spelling conventions.

As for the impact of Arabizi on youngsters' first language development, there are a number of informal articles in which people at different levels (e.g. parents, teachers, or students)

make speculations about the potential effect of Arabizi on the users' first language. For example, in an article entitled "Arabizi is destroying the Arabic language" (Ghanem, 2011), teachers and parents appeared to be very concerned about the negative impact of Arabizi on teenagers' first language development.

In a report by Ghazal (2014a), prominent experts were extremely concerned over the pervasiveness of Arabizi and considered it a threat to Arabic language. In an interview with Ghazal (2014a), Abu-Ghazaleh states:

> This malignant language is currently sweeping and jeopardizing the Arabic language, especially since it is being used heavily over the Internet through various chat applications with the help of smart devices for texting … The continuous use of 'Arabizi' by individuals, intentionally or unintentionally, is also a crime against our mother language; it must be stopped immediately in order to protect our Arabic heritage and culture … Arabizi should be regarded as a war against the Arabic language and a serious attempt to destroy it (p. 1)

Ghazal (2014b: 1) also reports business leaders' frustration with Arabizi's perceived encroachment on Arabic spelling. Marwan Juma is quoted saying:

> It is annoying to write in Arabizi. It affects youths' ability to write in Arabic. At our companies we hardly find graduates capable of writing professional Arabic. This is a serious problem." Similarly, Jawad Abbassi, chairman of the ICT Association of Jordan, warned that "Arabizi is a threat to both Arabic and English and its users will lose the ability to write in both languages (p. 1)

From a different perspective, Attwa (2012) examines the views of students of Arabic as a foreign language (AFL) at the American University in Cairo towards Arabizi. AFL learners in the study described a new writing variety emerging in Arabic. They express the view that Arabizi was confusing and difficult to master owing to its inconsistent and unstandardized nature. According to respondents, Arabizi complicates their AFL learning process and hindered their acquisition of reading and writing skills needed for Modern Standard Arabic. In short, the study warns AFL teachers against an alarming situation of digraphia in Arabic, which might hinder the process of learning Arabic as a foreign language. Therefore, this study seeks to address these concerns.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of the present study is to address one main research question, having a number of related sub-questions.

Main Research Question:

How do high school students perform on an Arabic spelling test? This broad question was translated into four sub-questions which are open to empirical investigation:

1. Are there statistically significant differences in eighth grade students' performance due to the variable of Internet availability at home?

2. Are there statistically significant differences in eighth grade students' performance due to the variable of Internet availability at school?
3. Are there statistically significant differences in eighth grade students' performance due to the variable of Internet use?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in eighth grade students' performance due to the variable of Arabizi use?
5. Is there a relationship between Arabic spelling performance and frequency of Arabizi use among Arabic-speaking students?

All sub-questions were converted into the following hypotheses:

a. Internet availability at home has no effect on eighth grade students' Arabic spelling performance.
b. Internet availability at school has no effect on eighth grade students' Arabic spelling performance.
c. The less amount of time eighth grade students spend online, the better their Arabic spelling performance was.
d. As the extent of eighth grade students' use of Arabizi decreases, their Arabic spelling performance will increase.
e. There is no relationship between Arabic spelling performance and frequency of Arabizi use among Arabic-speaking students

4. Methodology

Procedures, Participants and Data Collection

This research paper examines whether or not usage of Arabizi by high school students impacted their Arabic spelling performance. The target population was eighth grade students in governmental high schools in the Bethlehem area—West Bank, Palestine (3509 students, including 1744 females and 1765 males) in the 2015/2016 academic year. The population was socio-economically homogenous.

A simple random sampling was carried out. All names of eighth grade students in Bethlehem area were copied into Column A of an Excel spreadsheet. The names were listed in alphabetical order, and a random number next to each student's name was produced in Column B. Then the "Sort A to Z" function was used to put the names in random order in Column B. All names were assigned random numbers (from 1 to 3509). A computer-generated random list of 420 eighth grade students (12%), including 226 males (54%) and 194 females (46%), was obtained. The median age of all participants was 14 years.

The data collection process involved two stages: stage one focused on collecting information about the students' characteristics. For this purpose, a brief survey was attached to the test administered in stage two. The goal of the survey was twofold: (i) to report the availability of technology resources within the home and school, and (ii) to find out the extent of using Internet and Arabizi by students.

Stage two consisted of an Arabic Spelling Test (AST) which was administered to the selected students in order to examine their spelling proficiency. The test was prepared by two Arabic language teachers based on the students' Arabic language textbook. The AST consisted of

three sections. In the first, students were *asked* to *identify* and *correct* spelling *errors given in complete sentences*. In the second section, which was made up of ten items, students were required to classify 12 Arabic words according to *hamza (ء) spelling rules*. In the third section, students were *asked to choose the correctly spelled word* to complete given sentences. Then, the content validity of the Arabic spelling test was evaluated by ten expert teachers who ensured that each test item covered content that matched all relevant skills in Arabic.

Three blind scorers, not involved in test development, independently graded the test. Inter-scorer correlations were computed in order to compare the three scorers' grades. The minimum correlation was (0.89), which meant that the three graders were fairly consistent in their assessment of the students' essays and so the inter-scorer reliability was decent.

The three graders' scores were then averaged and rounded to the nearest half-point interval on a 0–40 score scale to produce the student's final AST test score. In order to guarantee that students understood the items, all instructions were given in Arabic. Additionally, the class teacher explained to the students the procedure, and stayed in the classroom to answer their queries.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Highlights from the survey results

As a prelude to the discussion of the impact of Arabizi on students' spelling skills, this section gives some highlights from the results of the AST test and the brief survey attached to the test.

According to the overall statistics of the survey, the study sample consisted of (54%) males and (46%) females. The academic level of the sample as reported by the students was as follows: (37%) excellent, (36%) very good, (19%) good, and (8%) fair. Moreover, (70%) of the respondents indicated they have Internet access at home, and (89%) said they have Internet access at school. About (39%) of the students reported they used Arabizi and (61%) of them declared that they never used it.

5.2 Highlights from the AST test results

After marking the spelling test items, the mean scores for the subgroups were calculated and compared and will be presented in the following sections. The maximum total score for the test was 40 marks. Results showed *poor overall performance*; the mean score of the group with the highest academic level was only 23.66 out of 40, indicating defective Arabic spelling skills.

Gender

As Figure 1 indicates, the results of the study showed that female students (mean score 26.34) outperformed male students (mean score 16.58) in the Arabic spelling test.

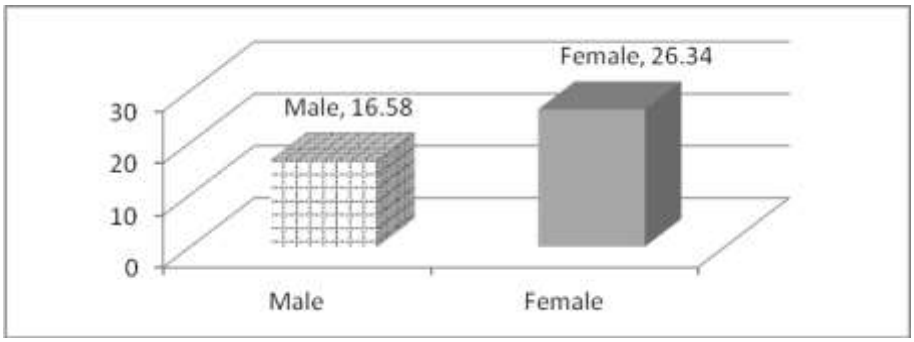

Figure 1 AST mean scores for male and female students

To test the hypothesis *"The spelling performance of female eighth grade students is better than male students"*, a t-test was performed to compare female students' performance with males' performance (Table 1).

Table 1 *T-test results for female students vs. males*

Gender	Number	Means (Max score 40)	Standard deviation	T	DF	Significance level
Male	226	16.58	8.89	-9.725	418	.000
Female	194	26.34	4.68			

The results show that there is a highly significant difference at the 5 percent level in the students' performance on the spelling test between female and male students in favor of females with a p-value of 0.000

Academic Achievement

The data presented in Figure 2 do appear *consistent with common sense.* As the students' overall academic achievement increases, their spelling performance increases (which seems logical).

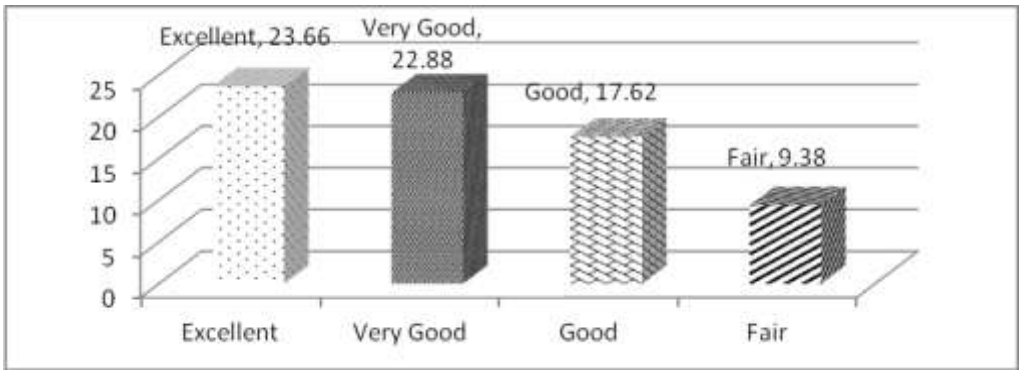

Figure 2 AST mean scores according to Academic Achievement (Max score 40)

To test the hypothesis, *The spelling performance of high academic achievers is better than that of low achievers*, as shown in Table 2 a one-way ANOVA test was used to measure the significance in the differences of the overall means regarding the students' performance in the spelling test due to academic achievement.

Table 2 *T-test results for academic achievement*

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Between-group	6836.709	3	2278.903	38.253	.000
Within-group	24664.095	414	59.575		
Variance	31500.804	417			

The results show that there are highly significant differences at the 5 percent level in the students' performance on the Arabic spelling test due to academic achievement (p-value 0.000). High academic achievers performed better than low academic achievers in the AST test.

5.3 Internet availability at home and school

Table 3 presents the AST mean scores of non-home-Internet group (24.46) vs. home-Internet-group (19.40) and the AST mean scores of non-school-Internet group (22.01) vs. school-Internet-group (13.91).

Table 3 *Descriptive Statistics on Internet Usage %*

Do have Internet at …?		Number	Means (Max score 40)	Standard deviation	T-test	DF	P
Home	Yes	280	19.40	9.22	-4.105	418	.000
	No	140	24.46	6.50			
School	Yes	374	22.01	8.53	4.309	416	.000
	No	44	13.91	6.42			

The hypothesis was *Internet availability at home has no effect on eighth grade students' Arabic spelling performance*. In order to test this hypothesis, a t-test was performed measure the significance of the differences in the overall AST mean scores. As shown in Table 3 above, the obtained results showed that there was a highly significant difference at the five percent level between the AST mean scores between non-home-Internet group and home-Internet-group with a p-value of (0.000).

It also indicated that that there was a highly significant difference at the five percent level between the AST mean scores between non-school-Internet group and school-Internet-group with a p-value of (0.000).

The results indicate that students without Internet in their homes outperformed students using the Internet at home in the AST test.

5.4 Internet usage at home and school

According to the results Table 4 the less time eighth grade students spend online, whether at home or at school, the better their Arabic spelling performance appeared to be.

Table 4 *Descriptive statistics on home & school Internet usage*

Time spent using the Internet (hour/day)	Home Internet Users %	AST Mean Scores (Max score 40)	Standard deviation	School Internet Users %	AST Mean Score (Max score 40)	Standard deviation
Less than 1 hour	172 = 41%	22.53	8.30	246 = 58.6%	21.51	8.39
2 hours	38 = 9%	19.74	6.41	12 = 2.8%	10.67	10.37
3 hours	38 = 9%	12.96	8.72	10 = 2.4%	4.67	6.35
More than 3 hours	46 = 11%	12.89	10.25	6 = 1.4%	4.60	1.52

As shown in Table 4 the more time students spend on the Internet, the lower their scores in the Arabic spelling Test (AST). Interestingly, there seems to be an inverse correlation between the AST mean scores and the amount of time spent on the Internet. As the duration of home or school online time decreases, the Arabic spelling performance of students increases.

In order to test the hypothesis *Internet usage at home has no effect on eighth grade students' Arabic spelling performance*, a one-way ANOVA test was used to measure the significance in the differences of the overall means regarding the students' performance in the spelling test due to the extent of the Internet daily use as shown in Table 5.

Table 5 A*NOVA results for the students' performance in the spelling test due to the extent of the Internet daily usage at home.*

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Between-group	2606.174	3	868.725	24.246	.000
Within-group	10149.826	286	36.58		

Variance	12756.000	289			

The results showed that there is a highly significant difference at the 5 percent level regarding students' performance on the spelling test due to the extent of the home Internet daily usage(p-value (0.000). The results indicated that frequency of online use at home was inversely proportional to Arabic spelling performance

In the same way, in order to test the third hypothesis *Internet usage at school has no effect on eighth grade students' Arabic spelling performance*, a one-way ANOVA test was used to measure the significance in the differences of the overall means regarding the students' performance in the spelling test due to the extent of the Internet daily use at home as shown in Table 6.

Table 6 *ANOVA results for the students' performance in the spelling test due to the extent of the Internet daily usage at school.*

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Between-group	2694.711	3	898.237	25.24	.000
Within-group	9217.932	166	35.45		
Variance	11912.642	169			

Again, the results show that there is a highly significant difference at the 5 percent level regarding students' performance on the spelling test due to the extent of the school Internet daily usage (p-value (0.000). The results indicated that the less time eighth grade students spend online at school, the better their Arabic spelling performance was.

5.5 Arabizi usage

As mentioned earlier, 61% of the respondents (256 students), as opposed to (39%) 162 students, indicated that they never used Arabizi. Figure 3 indicates that non-Arabizi users performed better than Arabizi users (mean scores 23.48 vs. 17.49).

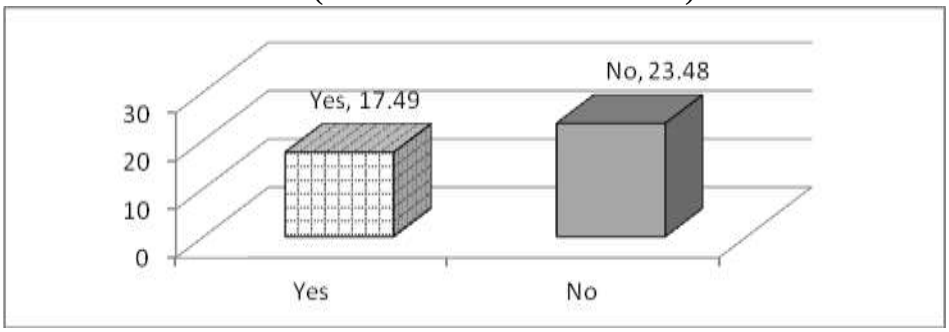

Figure 3 AST mean scores for yes/no Arabizi users

To test the hypothesis *as the extent of eighth grade students' use of Arabizi decreases, their Arabic spelling performance will increase*, an independent-samples t-test was performed to compare the AST mean scores between Arabizi users and non-Arabizi users.

Table 7 *T-test results for the students' performance in the spelling test due to the use of Arabizi in the social media.*

Do you use Arabizi in the social media?	Number	Means (Max score 40)	Standard deviation	T-test	DF	P
Yes	162	17.49	8.71	-5.139	416	.000
No	256	23.48	7.86			

As shown in Table 7, the results indicate that there is a highly significant difference at the 5 percent level regarding students' performance on the spelling test due to the use of Arabizi (writing Arabic in English letters) in the social media in favor of those who do not use Arabizi (p-value 0.000).

Of course, correlation does not prove causation. In particular, this study showed that excessive Internet use is correlated with extensive Arabizi use and poor spelling performance, but it does not prove that such high Internet use or extensive Arabizi use cause poor spelling performance. It might be the case that Arabizi use causes poor Arabic spelling, or that it is possible that it's the other way around. That is, if a student has a hard time spelling Arabic, he's more likely to use Arabizi.

The hypothesis there is no statistically significant relationship was tested at the 5 percent level between the students' use of Arabizi in online texting and their spelling AST test scores. In order to validate this hypothesis, simple linear regression was used.

Table 8 *ANOVA*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1775.613	1	1775.613	26.408	.000[a]
	Residual	13918.177	207	67.238		
	Total	15693.789	208			

According to the analysis presented in Table 9, there is a statistically significant correlation between students' spelling performance and Arabizi use. This means that as the amount of time spent using Arabizi increases, mean spelling scores decrease and vice versa.

The analysis shows that the coefficient for Arabizi use in hours is 5.983 grades. The coefficient indicates that for every additional hour in Arabizi use you can expect scores to decrease by an average of 5.983 grade units.

6. Discussion

According to the results of the study, Internet access at home and school are correlated with poor spelling performance of high school students. This finding appears to be inconsistent with many previous studies which found that home internet use improved academic performance. According to Judge et al. (2006: 52), "… most educators agree that computer access and literacy have become vital and necessary for young learners in the 21st century."

In an investigation of the relationship between home Internet access/parental support and student outcomes, Lei and Zhou (2012) find that students with home Internet access outperformed those without home Internet on computer and internet self-efficacy evaluations.

In my view, while the use of new technology has been effective in improving language skills, it seems that mixing Arabic and English is counter-effective. The exceptional use of Arabic mixed with English should not be taken to negate the value of the Internet for developing other skills in normal contexts. It may be misleading to conclude that the problem lies in the Internet usage; rather the problem may be attributed to the confusion stemming from mixing English with Arabic.

The results of this study clearly show that using Latin characters and numbers as an alternative for the Arabic script weakens the students' spelling performance. In this respect, it appears that writing in Arabic using Arabic characters which are now available on most computer keyboards has the potential to preserve Arabic spelling competency.

7. Summary and Conclusion

The main objective of the study was to investigate the impact of using Arabizi on Palestinian youngsters' spelling performance. Results indicated that poor performance on the AST was significantly correlated with extensive use of Arabizi and excessive use of Internet. There was a highly significant difference at the 5 percent level regarding students' performance on the spelling test due to Internet availability at home/school, Internet daily usage, and Arabizi usage.

There is still research left to be done on this topic. If using Arabizi weakens the teenagers' Arabic spelling skill, what about its impact on other language skills? The AST test only measured spelling, but it did not measure other aspects of language, like vocabulary, essay writing, analytical writing, and reading comprehension. Moreover, the fact that the sample of the present study was taken from only government-based schools may be viewed as a possible limitation. Thus, this study is only the beginning and other research must be done to answer these questions and apply these findings to a wider population.

The main finding was that using English script to write Arabic was correlated with weaker native language spelling skill among teenage students. The clear differences in Arabic spelling performance do raise critical questions about the effect of Arabizi on teenagers' first language development.

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Hindrances Encountering Undergraduate Jordanian Translation Students in Translating Islamic Terms

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Abstract

This study pinpoints the problems that undergraduate Jordanian Translation students encounter when they translate Islamic terms from Arabic into English. Furthermore, it reveals their ability to find the terms in the Target Language (TL) or coming up with adequate equivalents and detects the strategy they adopt either domestication or foreignization. The study attempts to answer these questions: 1. Are there any effects on the results of undergraduate Translation students in finding sufficient equivalents of Islamic terms in English before and after defining the nature of Islamic terminology? 2. Are there any differences in the performance of undergraduate Translation students due to the nature of Islamic terminology? What are the effects of teaching undergraduate translation students the difference between domestication strategy and foreignization strategy on their results of translating Islamic terms? To achieve the purpose of the study, an achievement test was designed and 80 students divided into two groups: an experimental group studied in accordance with the training program prepared by the researchers, and a control group studied, in accordance with the usual way, took the test. The (t-test) results showed statistically significant differences at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the two groups. It was found that the phenomenon of negative performance of Translation students existed in the control group when they translated Islamic terms with new implications extended by the Qur'an and Sunnah, while the students' awareness of foreignization strategy contributed to the enhancement of their performance as the correct answers of the experimental group increased from 126 to 525 answers.

Keywords: Domestication, foreignization, Islamic term, semantics, translation students, test

1. Introduction

Many Islamic terms exist in Arabic either were introduced by the advent of Islam or were known among the Arabs before the advent of Islam. According to Adardu' (N.d.), the Holy Quran and the Sunnah added new connotations to them. In addition, Arab linguists and scholars of Qur'an exegesis (mufassirūn) have been highly concerned with such terms. Thus, they singled out several books analysing the meanings of the terms in order to obtain appropriate understanding and correctly comprehend their meanings. (See Adeeb, 2008; Alaṣfahani, 2010; Ali, 1979; Muḱtar, 1982).

Islamic term is a compound term that consists of two words, Al Arū (2009) defines it as individuals' mutual agreement to call something with a particular name or use a particular word from one denotative meaning into another appropriate one. Whereas, Adardu' (N.d.) explains Islamic terms as technical words that belong to the religious domain and were developed by the advent of Islam or already known by Arabs.

Considering the fact that the translation of Islamic terms encounter obstacles related to the connotation of words and scope of denotation from Source Language (SL) to Target Language (TL). As a result, translators have two choices: either the term exists in the TL and they only have to find it, or the term does not exist in the TL and they have to search for the correct and accurate equivalent. Such choices direct translators to use Domestication strategy or Foreignization strategy.

Domestication strategy is a translation approach that aims at bringing back all odd expressions in a text to the translator's own standards and cultural values, considering what is outside their framework, and it is better to be supplemented and configured in order to contribute to the enrichment of this culture. Through this approach, the translator unveils cultural, linguistic and religious differences of the SL to help the reader of TL to read a smooth, transparent and covert style to moderate the foreign nature of the TL (Venuti, 1995; Williams & Chesterman, 2014). Whereas, Foreignization strategy is opposite to Domestication as it separates the translation of the SL from the intolerance to mother language and culture, so that the translated text does not go under the specifications of the TL and remains odd (Venuti, 1995).

In response to such obstacles, the researchers deemed it appropriate to see how undergraduate Translation students translate such terms from Arabic into English in order to identify the degree of success of these students to translate the meanings of such terms.

This study explores Islamic terms, the development of their connotations, and the complications of translating such terms.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

It was perceived by the researchers during their careers that undergraduate Jordanian Translation students experience some obstacles when translating Islamic terms of religious texts from Arabic into English, which caused their translation to be incompatible with the professional standards of translation. In order for illuminations to be shed on this problem, the researchers addressed this matter by exposing the errors of the students' religious translation by mentioning failures in the meanings of such terms when they choose to transfer the literal meaning of a term avoiding distortion and misrepresentation. The importance of the study lies in answering the following questions:

1. Are there any effects on the results of undergraduate Translation students in finding sufficient equivalents of Islamic terms in English before and after defining the nature of Islamic terminology?
2. Are there any differences in the performance of undergraduate Translation students due to the nature of Islamic terminology?
3. What are the effects of teaching undergraduate Translation students the difference between Domestication strategy and Foreignization strategy on their results of translating Islamic terms?

1.2. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is originated from the followings:

- Detecting the methods which Translation students use in order to deal with translating Islamic terms into English.
- Proving the importance of terminology and specialization for each researchable cognitive domain.
- Showing that it is necessary for Translation students to avoid false beliefs when translating Islamic terms in violation of the Holy Qur'an and Sunnah.
- Finding out the need to determine the connotations of terms within their particular contexts then to translate them.
- Explaining the need to follow Foreignization in the translation of Islamic terms since it enables the transference of Qur'anic cultural and religious characteristics.

1.3. Limitations of the Study

The study has two limitations:
1. Limitation of place: The study was conducted in the Department of Languages at the German-Jordanian University in Madaba and Petra University in Amman. In addition, it was executed in the First Term of the academic year 2015-2016.
2. Subjects' limitation: The subjects' gender was not taken into consideration when the study was carried out. Furthermore, only second and fourth year undergraduate Translation students took part in the study.

1.4. Methodology

Inspecting the translation of Islamic terms is an intersection of a variety of disciplines such as semantics, philology, sciences of Qur'an and decomposition of translation. In order to attain the purpose of this study, the study highlights the linguistic and Islamic denotations that an Islamic term is likely to have, discloses the translation of these terms by Jordanian undergraduate Translation students. In addition, two methodological instruments were utilized in the study: analysis and criticism with the purpose of comparing the similarities and differences of students' translations in response to the SL. The applied methodology of this study is in connection with Reiss' (2002) statement "criticism of a translation should not solely depend on the SLT" (p.24).

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Islamic Term

Linguists and Qur'an interpreters noticed the incidence of Qura'anic words with meanings that are different from those used by Arabs before Islam. This does not mean that the language of Qur'an differs from the Arabic language, but such words had particular implications

in the Qur'an and Sunnah, and thus, specific terms that have uncommon meaning among Arabs, became prevalent.

Arab ancient linguists were aware of such terms, as Ibn Faris (1999) states, "I transferred words in the language from one position to another with addition I added and legislations I legislated" (p.44). Al Ṣayuṭi (2002) followed in Ibn Faris's (1999) steps, he indicates, "the word "*jahiliyah*" (pre-Islamic epoch) is a term given to the pre Islamic times and the word "*mounafeq*" (lit. translation: hypocrite) is an Islamic name that was not known during the pre-Islamic times" (pp.1-2). Likewise, Al 'Askāri (2001) mentions that new meanings emerged in Islam and new names that were used during the pre-Islamic times have another meanings such as Quran, "*ṣurā*" verse, "*āya*" (verse).

Islamic terms in Arabic Language is divided into three sections as stated by 'Odeh (1981). First, terms that their connotations have not changed as taken from Arabs as heaven " *jannah*", hell "*jaḥīm*", blazing fire "*saīr*", God "Allah", angels " *mala'eka*", pilgrimage "Hajj", and the Lord "Al Rabb". Second, terms that their connotations have changed from what was taken from Arabs, for example, Prophet "*al rassoul*", prayers " *ṣalah*", infidelity "*kufr*", debauchery " *fusq*", hypocracy " *nifaq*", and prophet "*nabi*". Third, terms which were given new connotations because of the Quran, Sunnah and jurisdiction**,** for instance, grace and bliss "*ni'mah wa na'eem*", wind "*rīḥ* and *riyaḥ*", pay and reward "*'ajr wa thawab*".

The connotations of these terms will only be determined by the Quranic context consistent with Al Razi's (2005) statement "they are knotty problems that have holiness and spirituality shades that require more caution" (p.11).

2.2. Hindrances of Translating Islamic Terms

Catford (1965) defines translation as "the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language" (p.20). This definition indicates that the vital factor is equivalent textual material, but hindrances of translation are not taken into account. Hindrances of translation are reflected by the fact that language is not a list of words where it is sufficient to replace one word by another. If this is the case, then translation would be easy and translators would be able to translate literally and word by word according to Adardu' (N.d.).

Additionally, if real hindrances of Islamic terms translation are considered, one cannot ignore translating an Islamic term to another language initially reflects the awareness of choosing a lexical item that conveys the SL denotation, which is a systematic not random choice (Ferhat, 2006). Furthermore, Ilyas (1989) adds another hindrance that is not finding a corresponding TL equivalent for the SL item forcing the translator to use a non-corresponding equivalent item. The Islam has created terms that did not exist in other religions such as "*iḥram*" (consecration), "*at-tayyammum*" and "*al-uḍou'* " (ablution). For example, pilgrimage in Christianity differs from "*hajj*" (lit. pilgrimage) in Islam (Eugene, 1964). Consequently, many linguists made the translation of the Arabic term into English much more difficult than the translation of the English term into Arabic (Aldebyan, 2008).

Another hindrance as stated by Bahameed (2007) is the "lexical gap" that affects the quality of the translation outcome is the cultural differences between the two languages. A

translator of Qur'anic terms might clash with some cultural and religious facts deeply rooted in the SL resulting in resistance of the translation process; this will cause difficulty to the translator to come across an equivalent for the Islamic term in the TL.

2.3. Strategies of Islamic Term Translation, Foreignization and Domestication

Translation strategies have improved over time to help translators conquer numerous linguistic and cultural impediments resulted from the differences between languages and cultures. Yang (2010) refers to "Domestication and Foreignization are two basic translation strategies which provide both linguistic and cultural guidance" (p.1). Some of the researchers argue in support of one strategy, whereas others choose the other. Venuti (1995) is one of the supporters of Foreignization strategy and argues that translators have to maintain the foreign elements of the SL with the purpose of registering the linguistic and cultural difference of the TL. While Nida (1964) stands up for the Domestication strategy and asserts that translators succeed when they minimize the foreignness and strangeness of the SL so the linguistic and cultural expectations of the recipients are met.

> According to Venuti (1995), Domestication is "an ethno-centric reduction of the foreign text to target language cultural values. This entails translating in a transparent, fluent, 'invisible' style in order to minimize the foreignness of the [target language]" (p.146). Foreignization, on the other extreme, as stated by Venuti (1995) is "an ethno deviant pressure on those (cultural) values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad" (p.20).

In other words, Domestication according to Munday (2001) aims at rendering the strangeness of the source text into the cultural standards and values of the translator, and considering what is outside their framework, i.e. odd, negative and it is better to be supplemented and configured in order to contribute to the enrichment of this culture. Through this strategy, the researcher unveils cultural, linguistic and religious differences of the SL to help the recipient of the TL. As for Foreignization, it is opposite to Domestication as it separates the translation of the SL from the intolerance to mother language and culture, so that the translated text does not go under the specifications of the TL, and remains odd.

Translating Islamic terms from Arabic into English is considered one of the conspicuous translation problems. The inquiry that needs to be investigated is that which translation strategy should be used in translating the Islamic terms.

Translating Islamic terms cannot be separated from their meanings according to Hassan (2009). Mameri (2006) believes that the role of literal translation in the transference of Qur'anic translation preserves the characteristics of Qur'anic words, concepts and relevant notions. It can be noticed that Foreignization strategy is a confirmation of the fact that Qur'anic translation goes beyond the informative function since it transfers the foreignness and alterity of Qur'anic experience into the TL reader without the attempt to adapt its inherent Islamic religion-specific concepts and terms.

Accordingly, Islamic terminology translation should be in correspondence to Foreignization strategy as it is the most favorite one for translating Islamic terms into English, as

it reveals the religious and cultural differences between Arabic Islamic terms and English counterparts. Such terms are culture-specific words, in other words, they are inherent Islamic religion -specific words (Nida, 1964). Moreover, Al Khatib (2001) adds that Foreignisation translation method is preferable because it carries the culture of the source text which is required and significant in the text of Quran. However, the reader of the TL will not be very comfortable in reading the text.

2.4. Componential Analysis of Islamic Terms and their Translation into English

Some Islamic terms of lexical and forensic meanings are discussed below, in addition to their translation into English as they are used in the English version of the Qur'an. For this purpose, dictionaries, books of interpreters and translations of the Qur'an were used.

"*Allāh***"**

Interpreters and linguists disagree on the origin of the word "*Allāh*". Some suggested as Ibn Manẓhur (1994) denotes that it was derived from "*al-'il'h"* by adding the letter "*i*" and the definite article "*al*". In contrast, Al Razi (2005) believes that the word *"Allāh*" was derived from "*'ayl*" as the Qur'an differentiates between "*Allāh*" and "*'il'h*", and this word had been mentioned in the poetry of Arabs before the revelation of the Qur'an. Concerning the forensic meaning of the word "*Allāh*", Al Razi (2005) states that "some scholars said that His name is "*Allāh*" because He has the exclusive possession of this name as no other creatures were called likewise" (p.11). Regarding the translation of this word, it is controversial as some translated it "*Allah*" (See Al Hilali & Khan, 2001; Ali, 1979; Pickthall, 1981) while others as 'Asad (1980) translates it (God).

In the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (1998), the word "*Allāh*" is defined as "the name of God among Muslims and among Arabs of all faiths" (p.30). On the other hand, the word (God) refers to triangulation or other senses that are contrary to the Islamic concept. In addition, the word "*Allāh*" is singular and cannot be plural in Arabic, while the word (God) can be dual, plural, and feminine too, and this does not apply to the word (Allah).

In relation to Fawzi (2005), the differences between the two words is the word "*Allāh*" should be translated in correspondence to Foreignization strategy since it is not equivalent to the word (God).

"Shari'a"

Ibn Manẓhur (1994) defines *"Shari'a*" as the position across which water can fall down. While idiomatically, he defines it as what "*Allāh*" legislated and commanded as a part of the religion such as ṣawm (fasting), ṣalat (prayer), hajj, zakat and other acts of charity. This word existed among Arabs before Islam, but it has changed and developed. In this respect, 'Odeh (1981) declares " the difference between Pre-Islamic poetry and the Holy Qur'an in the use of Sharia, as it was semantically used in Pre-Islamic poetry, whereas in the Holy Qur'an, it is the issues and rules ordained by Almighty Allah for the subsequent nations" (p.121).

"*Shari'a*" has different translations, for example, Ali (1979) has translated it as "the right way of religion" (p. 599), another translation is Pickthall's (1981) translation that is "clear road of Our commandment" (p.241). While Al Hilali and Khan (2001) translate "*Shari'a*" as "a plain way of Our commandment like the one which We command Our Messages before you i.e. legal

ways and laws of the Islamic Monotheism" (p. 677), another translation according to Asad (1980) is "a way by which the purpose of faith may be fulfilled" (p. 980).

It is noticeable that the first and second translations are literal, as the first one refers to the right way of the Islam as religion, and the second signifies the clear way of our commandment. The two translators used capital letters in some words to insinuate that they are Islamic Shari'a - specific. However, the third and fourth translations were a transference of "*Shari'a*" Sharia definition, so they are closer equivalents. The closest equivalent term is transferring it literally into the TL, then explaining the idiomatic definition of Sharia, as Al Khaḍrawi (2004) illustrates *a'shari'ah al-islamiyah*: Islamic law , sharia, law of Islam.

"*Ṣalat*"

"Ṣalat" is taken from the verb "ṣalá" in reference to semantics, which refers to prayer and demand in the Pre-Islamic poetry (Al'Asha, 2008). As for Ibn Manẓhur (1994), "Ṣalat" is immanence, while Afif (1968) indicates that it is derived from the word "*al silah*" (relationship) between people and Allah. Idiomatically, it is the second pillar of Islam which includes five "*ṣalawat*" (prayers) imposed on Muslims at appointed specific times.

Translators have provided different translations for the word "Ṣalat", some has translated it prayer (Ali, 1979), worship (Pickthall, 1981), whereas others has preferred "Ṣalat" As- Salât (Iqamât-as-Ṣalat) (Al Hilali & Khan, 2001). It is apparent that Domestication strategy was adapted when the English equivalent word for "Ṣalat" is (prayer), but prayer in keeping with the definition of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (1998) is to offer thanks, make requests, etc. to God. Such meanings are closely related to supplication that is one meaning of "Ṣalat", but it does not convey the conditions, terms and times of "Ṣalat". Therefore, it is inappropriate to translate the word "Ṣalat" into (prayer) because it conveys another meaning in English than the intended one in Arabic.

With respect to the second translation, it has decided to use the word (worship). In the *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* (1998), worship means, "the practice of showing respect for god or a god, e.g. by praying or singing with others at a service" (p. 1379). The word (worship) has also other meanings, such as virtue, sovereignty, worship, religion and reverence (Al Ba'labaki, 1995). Such a lexical variety of this word causes the rejection of such as word as an equivalent of the word "Ṣalat". Moreover, the third translation (As-"Ṣalat") was a phonetic transcription of the word in Latin letters, which is evidence of untranslatability of the word As-"Ṣalat" in English, but both translators were criticized for not explaining the intended meaning of As-"Ṣalat" after the phonetic transcription.

It would be acceptable to apply the Foreignization strategy in translating the term As-"Ṣalat". In this regard, Al Khatib (2001, p. 44) implies that "the idiomatic meaning of As - "Ṣalat" cannot be equivalent to the English word (prayer). Therefore, the phonetic transcription of "Ṣalat" should be mentioned then the explanation of the word in parentheses."

"*Zakat*"

The word "*Zakat*" semantically indicates increasing and purity (Ibn Faris, 2005), but idiomatically, it is a religious obligation for all Muslims stating financial right at a particular time

given to particular people such as poor people and those employed to administrate the (funds). It is one of the pillars of Islam imposed on rich Muslims (Al ʻAṣfahani, 2010), and it has been variously translated as follows according to Al Khateeb (2001):
pay the alms / pay the legal impost /pay the welfare tax /practice regular charity / give the alms tax /pay the poor-due.

Although such translations seem true, but it does not denote the actual sense of "*Zakat*" that reflects purity and accretion of soul and money. In addition, there is a difference between a tax and "*Zakat*". Moreover, it is wrong to restrict the disbursement of *"Zakat*" money to the poor.

The semantic analysis of some Islamic terms and their translation imply that translators encounter obstacles when translating Islamic terminology. Correspondingly, they fail to comply with a particular strategy for translating such terms. This hindrance is a signpost for this study that is the ability of undergraduate Translation students at Jordanian universities to translate Islamic terms in compliance with a particular translating strategy.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

This study involves 80 undergraduate BA Translation students in the German-Jordanian University and University of Petra , Jordan selected randomly from second and fourth year students in the academic year 2015- 2016. Two groups of 40 participants were formed as an experimental group and control group. The experimental group studied according to a training program set by the researchers, while the control group studied according to the normal methodology. The students aged between 19-24 years. They were 58 females and 22 males but factors such as age and gender were not considered in this study.

3.2. Instrument

A diagnostic test was developed to measure the performance of Translation students when translating Islamic terms. (See Appendix A).

This test consists of 24 sentences; each sentence includes an Islamic term with eight sentences for each part of Islamic terminology. The students were asked to translate all the sentences, and then points were distributed in terms of the number of answers requested from a student. This test was constructed to measure the students' achievement of correct translations for the three parts of Islamic terms.

The selection of the 24 selected Islamic terms of the study was based on a survey of 100 Islamic terms that was distributed to 100 students at the German Jordanian University. The results of the survey were analyzed, and the results were as follows:

Allāh	100%
al rasul	95%
as-ṣalat	93%
as-ṣyām	85%
hajj	83%
ʾilʻh	80%
ifshaʾ as-salam	78%

riba	76%
zakat	74%
shar'ia	70%
ightisal	65%
faṭūr	64%
ḍawaf	62%
da'iyah	60%
kabirah	58%
thikr	56%
'itekaf	55%
ta'dud az-zawjat	54%
zina	53%
rabb	51%
Jihad	50%
farḍ	48%
fiqh	47%
'ayat alkursi	45%

Previous tests constructed by foreign and Arab researchers were referred to in order to develop the test that is evidence of test content credibility. In order to evaluate the test, it was presented to a number of specialists in the field of translation at a number of Jordanian universities for evaluation. Their notes were taken into consideration and required modification was conducted.

The reliability coefficient of the diagnostic test was gauged by testing 12 BA Translation students who were not involved in the study after an interval of ten days. The test was administered once again; the correlation coefficient of the test is 0.845 and it has a statistical significance at the level of 0.01.

After dividing the test into 24 sentences, points were distributed as two points per each sentence with the total of 48 points.

3.4. Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis used in this study was the (t-test) and the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Due to there being one dependent variable (the translation of Islamic terms sentences) and one independent variable consisting of the translation of the Islamic terms after the students had a training program set by the researchers.

This study is considered as a semi-empirical study of a pre-tested and post-tested group. The performance averages and standard deviations of the two groups' members in the achievement tests were calculated. To ascertain the statistical significance of differences, the (t-test) and the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used.

4. Results and Discussions

This study is an attempt to identify the effect of translating Islamic terminology from Arabic into English on the performance of undergraduate Jordanian Translation students in Jordanian universities. Specifically, the study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Are there any effects on the results of undergraduate Translation students in finding sufficient equivalents of Islamic terms in English before and after defining the nature of Islamic terminology?
2. Are there any differences in the performance of undergraduate Translation students due to the nature of Islamic terminology?
3. What are the effects of teaching undergraduate Translation students the difference between demonstration and Foreignization on their results of translating Islamic terms?

4.1. The results of the first question

To answer the first question, the averages and standard deviations attained from the points of the students in both the control and experimental groups who submitted the pre-test and the post-test were calculated. A statistical analysis of (t- test) was implemented. Table 1 presents the results of the first question, it presents the pre-test averages and standard deviations as well as the (t- test) results.

Table 1. The *pre-test averages and standard deviations for both groups and the (t- test) results*

Group	Sample Size	Average	Standard Deviation	t-Value	Freedom Level	Significance Level
Control	40	7.25	2.8	3.2	0.28	0.59
Experimental	40	5.1	3.1			

The results of (t-test) in Table 1 show that there are not any statistically significant differences at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). The significance level is 0.59, and t-value is 3.2, which was confirmed by a clear convergence among the averages of learners' performance in both the experimental and control groups. The average of the experimental group in the pre-test is 5.1, while the average of the control group in the pre-test is 7.25.

Table 2 shows the averages and standard deviations of the post-test for both groups and the result of (t- test).

Table 2. *The averages and standard deviations of the post-test for both groups and the (t- test) results*

Group	Sample Size	Average	Standard Deviation	t-Value	Freedom level	Significance level
Control	40	7.9	2.4	24	8	0.04
Experimental	40	26.8	401			

The analysis of the results of the (t-test) in Table 2 reveals the statistical significant differences at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) attributed to the students' knowledge of how to translate Islamic terms. The significance level is 0.04 and the (t) value is 24 that has a statistical significance at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). This indicates that explaining the method of translating Islamic

terms had a significant effect on improving the experimental group members' performance. This was also endorsed by the clear differences between the averages of students' performance in both the experimental and control groups, which were in the favor of the experimental group with a pre-test average of 5.1 and a higher post-test average of 26.80. While the pre-test average of the control group is 7.25, then it decreased in the post-test to become 7.1.

4.2. The results of the second question

The second question of the study if there are any differences in the performance of undergraduate Translation students due to the nature of Islamic terminology or not. To answer this question, the sum of the correct answers in both the pre-test and the post-test of the experimental and control groups was extracted, and then the difference between them was calculated. This difference might reflect the difference in the translation of Islamic terminology parts, as explained in the Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3. Students' *correct answers in the pre-test of the two groups*

Number	Parts of Terms	Control group correct answers	Experimental group correct answers	Total
1	Terms with constant implications as inherited from Arabs	55	36	91
2	Terms with implications that changed from what was inherited from Arabs	60	40	100
3	Terms with new implications extended by the Qur'an, Sunnah and Islamic jurisprudence	30	26	56
4	Total	145	102	247

Table 4. Students' correct answers in the post-test of the two groups

Number	Parts of Terms	Control group correct answers	Experimental group correct answers	Total
1	Terms with constant implications as inherited from Arabs	60	250	310
2	Terms with implications that changed from what was inherited from Arabs	57	222	279

3	Terms with new implications extended by the Qur'an, Sunnah and Islamic jurisprudence	41	64	105
4	Total	158	536	694

The following notes are:

First, the errors in the terms with new implications extended by the Qur'an, Sunnah and Islamic jurisprudence have the most negative impact of all parts on the students' performance. The number of correct answers of the pre-test is 65, while the number of correct answers in the post-test is 105 out of 320 answers. The less negative impact is indicated by the terms with implications that changed from what was inherited from Arabs with 100 correct answers in the pre-test and 279 correct answers in the post-test. Finally, the least negative impact is of the terms with constant implications as inherited from Arabs with 91 correct answers in the pre-test and 310 correct answers in the post-test.

Second, clarifying the strategy of translating Islamic terms has remarkably contributed to enhance the performance of translation students in the terms with constant implications. The difference between the pre-test and post-test is 214 answers in favor of the post-test of the experimental group. Then the terms with changed implications were next with a difference of 183 answers between the pre-test and post-test in favor of the post-test of the experimental group. Finally, the terms with new implications extended by the Qur'an were the last one, with a difference of 38 answers between the pre-test and post-test in favor of the post-test of the experimental group.

4.3. The results of the third question

The third question of the study is what are the effects of teaching undergraduate Translation students the difference between Domestication and Foreignization on their results of translating Islamic terms? To answer this question, the sum of the correct answers in both the pre-test and the post-test of the experimental and control groups was extracted, and then the difference between them was calculated. This difference might reflect the difference in the translation of Islamic terminology parts, as explained in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5. ***Answers of Participants in the pre-test of both groups in terms of strategy (Domestication and Foreignization)***

Number	Strategy	Control group answers	Experimental group answers	Total
1	Domestication	75	70	145
2	Foreignization	46	56	102
3	Total	121	126	247

Table 6. Answers ***of Participants in the post-test of both groups in terms of strategy (Domestication and Foreignization)***

Number	Strategy	Control group answers	Experimental group answers	Total

1	Domestication	84	74	158
2	Foreignization	85	451	536
3	Total	169	525	694

Tables 5 and 6 show that the control group members translated the Islamic terms correctly as they have 159 correct answers when they implemented the Domestication strategy and they have 131 when they adopted the Foreignization strategy in the pre-test and post-test. This convergence reveals their unawareness of these two strategies. Due to their knowledge of the difference between Domestication and Foreignization, the members of the control group increased their dependence on Foreignization from 56 to 451 correct answers, and they decreased their dependence on Domestication from 74 to 57 answers. This consistency is due to their inability to apply the Foreignization strategy on the terms that they translated in correspondence to the Domestication strategy.

4.1.1. Discussion of the first question results

It is evident that the results of the (t-test) do not represent any statistically significant differences at the level of the significance ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the averages of both the experimental and control groups in the pre-test. They also reveal that there are statistically significant differences at the level of the significance ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the averages of both the experimental and control groups in the post-test. The significant was in favor of the experimental group members who translated the Islamic term after being aware of these terms in comparison with the members of the control group members who translated the sentences using the traditional way. These differences were reflected through the improvement of students' performance in the post-test. This indicates that that their awareness of the way to translate Islamic terms was effective on the improvement of experimental group members' performance.

4.1.2. Discussion of the second question results

It is apparent from the results presented in Tables 3 and 4, the number of correct answers in the pre-test of the experimental group showed the negative impact of the errors of the Islamic terms with new implications extended by the Qur'an and on the students' performance. Moreover, the number of correct answers, which increased in a remarkable way in the post-test of the experimental group, shows the positive impact of the Islamic terms with changed implications than those inherited from Arabs, and finally came the Islamic terms with constant implications.

However, the impact of the means of structural context integration varies in accordance with ambiguity aspects.

4.1.3. Discussion of the third question results

It is obvious from the results presented in Tables 5 and 6, the number of correct answers in the pre-test of the experimental group showed the positive impact that students' learning of Domestication and Foreignization translation strategies contributed to the enhancement of experimental group members' performance in the translation of Islamic terms. In addition, the number of correct answers, which increased in a remarkable way in the post-test of the experimental group, shows the positive impact of their awareness of Islamic terminology translation strategies was effective for improving the experimental group members' performance.

5. Analysis of Errors

This section clarifies the errors committed by the participants when translating the Islamic terms to English; in addition, the reasons of these errors are discussed and the results of their poor translation are mentioned. Furthermore, it denotes the effectiveness of the participants' awareness of the adapted translation strategy on a staid translation product.

The dictionaries used in checking the meanings of the tested Islamic terms are *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (1998) to explain the meanings of English words, and *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions* (2002) to compare the answers of translation students.

Errors of translation students in Islamic terminology translation can be justified in light of the followings:

First, the absence of Islamic terms in English makes it more difficult to translate them. Thus, the students translated "*Zakat*" into (charity), which is a term that indicates a voluntary donation, as *Oxford Dictionary* defines it. The difference between the two lexical items lies in the fact that charity is voluntary but "*Zakat*" is obligatory. Moreover, some translated *"Zakat*" as (Poor-due) or (give money to the poor) which indicates the money ordained for the poor. However, "*Zakat*" is not restricted only to the poor, but also to the needy and those employed to administrate the (funds). Others translated it into (tax) which means the obligatory contribution to the state, as *Oxford Dictionary* explains it. Tax differs from "*Zakat*" in terms of destination, consistency and amounts. As a result, the experimental group students were aware of this absence in the post-test and translated it in correspondence to the Foreignization strategy.

Very few students used the word "*Zakat*" which is semantically compatible with the meaning mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions*, which is "Zakaah: alms (zakaah is one of the five pillars of Islam).

In respect of the word "*Allāh*", it was translated into (God) that might make the non-Muslim addressee understands the word in terms of his/ her own culture and religion as *Oxford Dictionary* mentioned the divergence of the essence of (Allah) among religions. On the other hand, the experimental group students translated this term in the post-test into (Allah), which is semantically compatible with what is mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions* (2002).

Second, the specialty of Islamic terminology in terms of implication and performance, as there are many English terms which are equivalent to Islamic terms, but transferring Islamic terms into them might lessen their implications. For example, the participants translated the word "*Ṣalat*" into (prayer) without taking into consideration its English meaning. In the *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* (1998), it means, "to offer thanks, make requests, etc. to God" (p. 30), such meanings are closely related to supplication that is one meaning of "*Ṣalat*". Nonetheless, it does not convey the conditions, terms and times of "*Ṣalat*". Others translated it into (worship) which refers to devotion in general, as *Oxford Dictionary* defines it as "the feeling or expression of reverence and adoration for a deity". The experimental group members were aware of this specialty in the post-test, so they translated the term in accordance with the Foreignization strategy. Such translations are semantically compatible with the meaning

mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions* that is "Ṣalaah: prayer (the prayer one performs, not just says, like the regular five daily prayers)."

Another term is "*Ṣawm*" that was translated by the students into (fasting), and this word indicates refraining from food and drink at any time of a day and a year. It is defined in *Oxford Dictionary* as "abstain from all or some kinds of food or drink, especially as a religious observance". Whilst "*Ṣawm*" as an Islamic term indicates abstaining from food, drinks during Ramadan from sunrise until sunset. The experimental group members were aware of this semantic difference in the post-test, so that they translated it along with its mentioned meaning in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions* as "in Islam, fasting means complete abstention from food, drinks from pre-dawn time (about before sunrise) until sunset."

Third, Islamic terms are awkward to be expressed in English due to the lack of any senses for such terms in English. For example, the participants translated the word "*'takaf*" into (seclusion) which is a general term that indicates isolation from others due to business or study, and this word was defined in *Oxford Dictionary* as "the state of being private and away from other people". Others translated it to (staying in the mosque), although "'takaf" as an Islamic term is connected to the mosque for devotion in Ramadan. The experimental group members were aware of this specialty, so they translated the term in correspondence to the Foreignization strategy. Such translations are semantically compatible with the meaning mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions* that is "'takaf": seclusion (retiring into a mosque for devotion).

Another example of such terms is "*'ftar*" or "*faṭūr*". The participants translated these terms to (eat the food), at the same time others translated it into (breakfast) which indicates having food or breakfast in the morning. It is stated in *Oxford Dictionary* as "a meal eaten in the morning, the first of the day". Other participants translated the word into (broke his fast) which differs from the term "*'ftar*" as it indicates having food and drinks after sunset in Ramadan. For that reason, the experimental group members and some control group members paid attention to the failure of this term in the pre-test and post-test, and they translated it corresponding to the Foreignization strategy. Their translation are semantically compatible with the meaning mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions*, which is "Fatuur: breakfast (in Ramadan the meal one takes after sunset)."

Fourth: The discrepancy between English equivalents and Islamic terms, as an Islamic term, for instance, might indicates the good, while the English equivalent might refer to the malevolence. For instance, the term "*ta'dud az-zawjat*" which was translated by some students into (bigamy), while others translated it into (polygamy). Such two English equivalents have negative connotations because they express the crime of having several wives. *Oxford Dictionary* defines such a term as "the crime of marrying while one has a wife or husband still living, from whom no valid divorce has been effected". Whereas "*ta'dud az-zawjat*" as an Islamic term is permissible. The experimental group members were aware of this discrepancy in the post-test, and they translated it in congruence with the Foreignization strategy. Such translations are semantically compatible with the meaning mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions*, which is "ta'addud az-zawjat: the practice of giving more than one wife at the same time in Islam".

Another example is the word "*da'iyah*"; it was translated by the students into (propagation) which means "the breeding of specimens of a plant or animal by natural processes from the parent stock" according to its meaning in *Oxford Dictionary*. Additionally, other students translated it into (preacher) meaning "a person who preaches, especially a minister of religion" as it is described in *Oxford Dictionary*. However, "*da'iyah*" as an Islamic term refers to a person who the "*d'awa*" (inviting others to Islam). Hence, the experimental group students were aware of such discrepancy in the post-test as they translated it in correspondence to the Foreignization strategy. Their translations are semantically compatible with the meaning mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions* which is "d'awah": Islamic propagation".

Fifth, the discrepancy of culture specialties between Islamic terms and their English equivalents. For example, the term "*jihad"* which was translated by some students into (war), it is defined in *Oxford Dictionary* as "a state of armed conflict between different nations or states or different groups within a nation or state". Others translated it into (Islamic Colonization) that is explained in *Oxford Dictionary* as "the action or process of settling among and establishing control over the indigenous people of an area". However, "*jihad*" as an Islamic term is for spreading Islam without coercion, murder and indecent assault or for restoring an occupied territory (ʻAmīm Al ʻHsan, 1986). The experimental group members considered such discrepancy in the post-test, and they translated it according to the Foreignization strategy. Such translations are semantically compatible with the meaning mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions* which is "exerting a great effort, but it has come to mean exerting a great effort in the cause of Allah, more specifically in the form of fighting".

The word "*hajj*" is another example; it was translated into (pilgrimage) that does not indicate the Islamic cultural and religious meaning. Al Ba'labeki (2005) explains its meaning as an explorer or traveler to the church, or an English migrant to America .However, "*hajj*" in Islam is concerned with going to Mecca, so the experimental group members were aware of this cultural discrepancy in the posttest and translated it into: "Hajj: pilgrimage to Makkah", and such translation is semantically compatible with *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions*.

Sixth, as Islamic terms being limited to one-word terms in addition to the absence of compound words, several terms require more than one word to get to their meanings. For instance, the students translated the term "*ṭawāf*" into (circumambulation) which is a word that indicates turning around something else. When others translated it into (pilgrimage) which indicates the meaning of hajj, but "*ṭawāf*" as an Islamic term is worshiping Allah by turning around the Ka'bah seven times which is a rite of hajj. Thus, the students of the experimental group were aware of this matter in the post-test, so they translated the term in accordance with the Foreignization strategy as "Tawāf: circumambulation (going around the kaabah)", which is semantically compatible with what mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions*.

A similar term is "*ifsha' as-salam*" that some students translated it into (greeting) which is a polite word for salutation. Others translated it into (show peace) which differs from the meaning of the term "*ifsha' as-salam*" as the word (salaam) has significant implications in Islam because it is one of the names of Allah. Accordingly, the experimental group members and some

control group members were aware of this semantic difference in the pre-test and post-test, so they translated the term "*ifsha' as-salam*": greeting by saying as- "*salaamu 'alaykum*", which is a translation that is semantically compatible with what described in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions*.

Seventh, illusive equivalents of some of Islamic terms with outwardly synonymous and inwardly different English equivalents, such as the term is "*ribá*". Many students thought that *"ribá*" is related to loans taken from banks, so they thought that the English equivalent is (interests). This reveals that the term (benefits) is illusively equivalent to the term "*ribá*" as it is extra money, food or water agreed by contractors. Consequently, the experimental group members were aware of such illusive equivalence in the post-test and translated the term to *"ribá*": usury (taking interest on money or food or drink, which is forbidden in Islam)", which is semantically compatible with what mentioned in *The Dictionary of Islamic Word and Expressions*.

6. Conclusion

The present study was an attempt to find answers to the questions of the study. These questions were put forward to shed light on the hindrances that undergraduate Jordanian Translation students encounter when they translate Islamic terms from Arabic to English. In the course of this study, the questions of the study were answered.

The first question, are there any effects on the results of undergraduate Translation students in finding sufficient equivalents of Islamic terms in English before and after defining the nature of Islamic terminology? It was found that Translation students in both the experimental and control groups were unable to find adequate equivalents for the Islamic terms before being aware of the nature of Islamic terminology. Whereas, the experimental group members were able to find adequate equivalents for the Islamic terms in the post-test after being aware of the nature of Islamic terminology. The clear differences between the averages of students' performance of both the experimental and control groups were in favor of the experimental group. This shows the effect of Islamic terms as well as the effect of such terms' awareness on students' performance.

In connection with the second question, are there any differences in the performance of undergraduate Translation students due to the nature of Islamic terminology? It was concluded that the terms with new implications extended by the Qur'an, Sunnah and Jurisprudence (Fiqh) were first in the increase of the errors committed by the members of the two groups. The terms with constant implications as inherited by Arabs were in the second place of wrong answers by the participants. Finally, the terms with implications changed from what inherited from Arabs were ranked the least as this appeared in the number of wrong answers in the two groups' test.

As for the third question, what are the effects of teaching undergraduate Translation students the difference between Domestication and Foreignization on their results of translating Islamic terms? It appeared that the high number of errors in the translation of Islamic terms was due to the use of Domestication strategy; also, it seemed that the low number of errors in the translation of Islamic terms was due to the use of Foreignization strategy.

It can be assumed that the unfamiliarity with both the meanings of Islamic terms and the indecorous translation techniques and strategies were the main reasons for the poor translation of the undergraduate Translation students. Familiarizing Translation students with the meanings of Islamic terms should be necessary, and this can be done by offering extra courses that deal with cultural situations and Arabic language contexts.

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Appendix A The Diagnostic Test

اختبار تحصيل			
اسم الطالب:		الرقم الجامعي:	
الكلية:		التخصص:	
الجنس:		العلامة:	

ترجم / ترجمي الجمل الآتية في الفراغ المناسب:

الرقم	الكلمة	الجملة	الترجمة

1	الله	إن الله عليم بكل شيء	
2	الصوم	الصوم يطهر النفس	
3	الصلاة	إن الصلاة ركن من أركان الإسلام	
4	الحج	سافر محمد إلى السعودية ليؤدي فريضة الحج	
5	الزكاة	فرض الإسلام الزكاة على الأغنياء	
6	الرسول	قال الرسول: إنما الأعمال بالنيات	
7	الجهاد	الجهاد يختلف عن الإرهاب	
8	رب	يا رب اغفر لي	
9	الشريعة	الشريعة تدعو إلى نبذ العنف	
10	الفقه	هناك العديد من كتب الفقه	
11	تعدد الزوجات	أباح الإسلام تعدد الزوجات	
12	الاعتكاف	الاعتكاف له أجر عظيم	
13	الطواف	الطواف ركن من أركان الحج	
14	الزنا	الزنا أمر ترفضه كل الأديان	
15	اغتسل	اغتسل الرجل صباحا	
16	إفشاء السلام	إفشاء السلام واجب	
17	الربا	الربا محرم في الاسلام	
18	إله	لا إله إلا الله	
19	الداعية	يجب أن يحترم الداعية	
20	الفطور	تناول الرجل الفطور عند آذان المغرب.	
21	كبيرة	قتل النفس كبيرة	
22	آية الكرسي	قرأ محمد آية الكرسي	
23	ذكر	قرأ محمد ذكر الصباح	
24	فرض	الصلاة فرض.	

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Teachers Are in Great Demand in the Digital Age

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Abstract
It is claimed that technology in the digital age can shoulder the responsibility of teaching and that teachers are no longer needed. Rejecting this claim, this study that employs argumentation as a method and makes much use of the author's experience as a teacher comprises an original work devoted to demonstrating that teachers are in great demand in this age. The reason for this contention is that teachers inspire students to be lifelong learners, motivate them ,nurture passion and creativity, and create a culture of excellence. This means that teachers are facilitators and innovators who can facilitate using and integrating technology into education. This integration is necessary not only for learning and teaching purposes but also reforming today's worthless education based on rote learning .This study recommends that video games be incorporated into English classes to equip learners with the life skills they badly need for survival in this world marked by competition and everlasting change.
Key Words: equip, facilitate, integrate, reform, technology

Teachers Are in Great Demand in the Digital Age

Technology has been progressing at a phenomenal rate .This progress has been dramatically changing all aspects of human life. An important realm that has been immensely influenced by technology is education . Teachers, parents, and educators who are concerned with developing the teaching-learning process have been debating over the role of technology. Whereas some of them argue for integrating technology into classes , others argue against that probably out of their realization that proper training is needed before this integration occurs, and that a few teachers object to using technology on account of their refusal to change their methodology and their belief that technology does not have the potential to do them good. These arguments provide the indication that people are not of the same mind as to using technology . People's differing over this matter is normal as each one of them reflects his/her own point of view that is usually experience-based. A new group of people should be added to the preceding ones. Members of this group go a step further and demand that technology replace teachers. In my own judgment, these people don't have the slightest idea about teaching and learning . Being in the dark as to what a teacher does, they take teaching to be something akin to buying Pepsi or coke ,for instance, from the ending machine , going to the laundry to wash clothes, getting a ticket from the machine after putting the required sum of money into a certain slot, and so forth.

All these jobs are done by lifeless machines that have been programmed this way. After putting the specified amount of money into the specified slot, the customer gets what he/ she wants. Without putting any money into the machine , the customer cannot get anything even if he/she weeps day and night ,tears up his/her clothes, or commits suicide . These machines are senseless, and, therefore, they don't sympathize with customers. This inability to sympathize with customers is a disadvantage that renders technology unfit to replace teachers that deal with humans and keep doing their utmost to help them maintain their humanity whose maintenance is central for achieving success.

As far as replacement is concerned, teachers are irreplaceable by technology for a number of reasons .Firstly , teachers can easily know if the students they are addressing are engaged or not, and act accordingly. The moment teachers realize that students are drifting off , they can arrange for attracting their attention despite the difficulty of keeping them focused on the lesson at hand. Teachers can, for instance, introduce certain changes in the lecture to revive their students' interests. They may resort to telling a joke or making a humorous remark that brings about laughter. In this way teachers can regain their control of the classroom and draw the attention of students who have drifted off. This is not the case with technology which cannot tell if students are bored or not. Secondly, teachers care for their students because they want them to succeed. This care can be best represented by teachers' doing their utmost to enhance students' learning , treating them kindly, giving them a voice and respecting their opinions, listening carefully to all that they say, facilitating learning for them, empowering them to write about what they are learning, helping them with settling their problems, and preparing them for their future careers and lives. In so doing, teachers win students over, exact their admiration, make education meaningful, set good and memorable examples for them , and provide them with new opportunities for working together, sharing their experiences with others , and achieving success. Thirdly, teachers provide students with the guidance and help they badly need. Without this guidance and

help, students will be certainly at loss. It has been claimed that a computer can give information, but a " teacher can lend a hand , or an ear , and discern what's necessary for a student to succeed" (Dunn,2014,p.1). Teachers can instruct students on how to surf the internet and take certain notes down, to use technology to enhance their learning, learn best by doing instead of listening, to read , to write, to speak , to answer questions, to do a summary of a short story ,of an essay , or of a novel, and so forth. Teachers can also give students pieces of advice about solving certain problems, being truthful , being honest, evading hypocrisy, leading their personal lives, and so forth. Fourthly, teachers help students develop their creative and critical thinking skills which are in great demand these days for they pave the way for success. These skills that are referred to as the 21st - century skills , life skills, and survival skills focus on problem solving , cross- cultural communication, critical thinking , and so forth. The value of these skills lies in empowering students and enabling them not only to compete with others but also to excel them. To help students develop these skills , teachers who are dedicated change their methodologies to let learners raise questions , make remarks about the topic discussed ,make comments on a certain argument, and argue for or against a given argument. By employing this method of instruction , students regain their self- confidence and realize that they are capable of becoming better and doing something worthwhile, which infuses a new life into them and keeps them working hard. Thus, students learn from their own mistakes, and improve their performance. Fifthly, teachers inspire students to be lifelong learners. They inspire them not only by their achievements but also by their attitudes and values. They can, for instance, inspire them to live by certain principles and to stand up against inequality and injustice. Sixthly, teachers can instill many values in students' minds and instruct them on the necessity of practicing them and living up by them. When students have been trained on how to put these values into practice , they learn at an early stage in their lives how to maintain the necessary balance between their claims and actions. Thus, these students evade being hypocrites , set good examples for others, and impact the people they mix with, which is conducive to changing the society for the better. Seventhly, teachers teach their students lessons about life .These lessons help students after graduation with facing their problems confidently and making the right choices. In this way, students build on their own learning and become more experienced than before. By virtue of this experience, they lead their lives wisely , which keeps them off troubles that characterize today's world. Eighthly, teachers prepare their syllabi in a manner that helps them with achieving their educational and behavioral objectives, and while discussing the texts included in the syllabus ,they, acting upon their knowledge of students' individual differences, pay attention to this matter and try giving equal chances to students. This knowledge of student's individual differences also involves knowing about their deficiencies which can be dealt with by giving extra exercises and repeating the explanation of a certain topic. By contrast, technology cannot do this job. Ninthly, teachers can bring about change. They keep taking much care of students to equip them with the skills necessary for success. This attention given to students that are catalysts of change paves the way for changing society as a whole. Tenthly, teachers can easily help students maintain their identities and humanity. This can be done by instructing them on the necessity of sticking to their own cultures and values which should determine all that they say and do, and respecting others whom they should treat as peers deserving of the same human rights regardless of their creed, sex, race , color , ideology ,identity, social class , culture,

names ,and so forth . By contrast, technology robs people of their humanity, and it has been impacting personal expression.

The afore-mentioned reasons provide the evidence that teachers are irreplaceable. This argument is justified for the introduction of technology has made the teacher's role much more important than before. Commenting on the teacher's role, Wheeler(2015) maintains that teachers "perform roles that even the most powerful computers could never replicate" (1). Echoing Wheeler, Sarah Marsh(2015) quotes Woolley who claims that there are many "things that a computer will never do as a good human teacher ".Wheeler and Marsh are both right because humans are endowed with capacities that guarantee their being superior to computers that are merely man-made tools .These tools along with other ones are subordinate to humans and are not expected to do the jobs limited to humans. While technology in the form of robots has taken the place of humans in certain arenas, it's not in a position to take the place of teachers who provide students with guidance, interpretation, and encouragement, which are exclusively human jobs .Technology can certainly help teachers with many repetitive and time-consuming tasks, such as "taking attendance, entering marks into a grading book", and "providing access to educational resources and opportunities" (Trucano, 2015, p.1). Repeating Trucano's words, Bebell, Russell, & O 'Dwyer (2004) hold that teachers rely on technology to support lesson planning and administrative skills as well as instruction .Emphasizing the use of technology for instruction(61). Koehler & Mishra (2006) argue that teachers " need to know not just the subject matter they teach but also the manner in which the subject matter can be changed by the application of technology"(1028). Cator (2013), likewise, comments on the role of technology claiming that teachers, by using technology, can keep students engaged, improve their understanding of concepts via animation and simulation, and help them have access to people , course materials, and so forth(1). Being a tool , technology can help teachers, students, and other users. While it helps teachers with teaching and explaining subject matter to students, it can give teachers and students alike the piece of information they ask for . It can also provide access for all users to numerous articles , books , ads., games, and so forth. Technology can do the previous jobs well , but it cannot improve education on its own. In line with this argument, it's no use beefing up technology in the classroom. Equally useless also is to supply a teacher lacking training with internet-connected computers and asking him/her to use them in classes . In these two instances, hardly can one speak of any education going on simply because students are too young to learn on their own. They badly need interpretation and guidance that are both confined to humans. Therefore , the best thing to be done in this case is to train the teacher on how to make the best use of technology in the classroom. Besides training, teachers should be persuaded of the value of employing technology. If teachers are not persuaded, their use of technology in their classes becomes something doubtful. This persuasion is a prerequisite for using technology because it makes them drop their former beliefs abou tit, an act that precedes changing their attitudes , whose change will hopefully lead to changing their behavior.

As far as persuasion is concerned, persuading teachers of using technology also involves integrating it into course materials and meeting the concomitant challenges. This integration is becoming a necessity these days bearing in mind the limitations of rote learning that is employed on a wide scale in many countries worldwide. This education has been useless.

Therefore, integrating technology , especially games, is a great step towards reforming education and changing it into an investment. By integrating games , learners acquire many skills that pave the way for their becoming productive and successful in their future lives. To begin with, games have been defined as a " system in which players engage in artificial conflict , defined by rules , that results in a quantifiable outcome"(Salen & Zimmerman,2004,p.80). They have been at the center of people's attention. While people of the past have played games to pass the time and enjoy themselves, today's people have discovered that games have the potential to teach players a number of skills that can easily change them into life learners. These people have also found out that games, compared to rote learning, enable learners to learn better and to retain the information gained through playing. The reason underlying this contention is that people hold learning through playing games to be more motivating, more enjoyable ,more useful, and more engaging than rote learning that changes them into parrots, divests them of their self-confidence, wastes their time and money, deprives them of the right to express their minds, teaches them no skills, and, consequently, leads to their becoming failures. Conversely, games motivate players, promote communication, reduce anxiety , encourage players to use the language, urge them to cooperate with other players, keep them involved, give them the opportunity to make choices, allow them to take a stand and defend it, demand that they work as a team, and train them on how to take the initiative, solve a problem, and evade running into troubles. Arguing in support of this argument, Dewey(1916) maintains that play is"a process of discovery and learning" the means by which all learning is made possible. In *Democracy and Education*, he argues: " Were it not for the accompanying play of imagination, there would be no road from a direct activity to representative knowledge ; for it is by imagination that symbols are translated over into a direct meaning and integrated with a narrower activity so as to expand and enrich it "(2). Echoing Dewey, Curry(2016) claims in "The Best Way to Learn a Language : Playing Games," that nowadays " we can learn languages through social media , movies , or even by playing games"(1). Following Dewey and Curry's steps , the authors of *The Play of Imagination : Extending the Literary Mind* ," contend that " the kind of learning that happens" in games " is fundamentally different from the learning experiences associated with standard pedagogical practice "(Thomas & Seely, 2007,p.149). These two authors claim that this difference is that games offer a new form of learning that concentrates on how "to be", but the traditional paradigms of instruction focus on " learning about." This type of learning that excludes how " to be" is no longer needed in today's world that is constantly changing. The reason behind this claim is that this sort of learning does not do learners any good. Arguing in favor of this contention, Bill Gates(2005) maintains, in an address at the National Educational Summit on High Schools, that "[t]raining the workforce of tomorrow with the high schools of today is like trying to teach kids about today's computers on a 50-year-old mainframe. It's the wrong tool for the times" (1). In other words, Gates maintains that classical education is worthless and that it represents a "wrong tool" that we should get ourselves rid of simply because it provides students with a type of knowledge which does not prepare them for future jobs, does not provide learning opportunities for them, does not equip them with any skills, and, thus, does not help them with achieving success. Classical education that gives birth to these worthless outcomes should be reformed so that we can have better outcomes. Finding faults with this education, Brown and Duguid (1996) both argue that learning" is not simply a matter of acquiring information; it requires developing

the disposition, demeanor ,and outlook of the practitioners"(47-56). Similarly, David Berio (1975) claims that "… Education needs to be geared toward the handling of data rather than the accumulation of data". Reiterating the same problem, the report that outlines the vision for education in the United States and that is prepared by Partnership for 21st Century Skills highlights irrelevance as a problem that today's education system faces, and calls for bridging the gap between how students live and how they learn. This report adds that schools are struggling to keep pace with the astonishing rate of change in students' lives outside of school. These arguments are all reasonable and acceptable .Bill Gates, Brown and Duguid, and Berio are saying a mouthful. Their claims are indicative of their being experienced, wise, knowledgeable ,frank, and daring. It is true that learning does not lie in accumulating and memorizing information, which is true of today's learning that is useless. It is also true that this variety of learning is to blame for today's learners' being frustrated and unprepared for their future lives in a world that is competitive , technology-driven , and characterized by various trends in teaching , such as flipped learning, student-centered learning, online learning, and so forth. To these trends in teaching, learning through playing games should be added because it has become proven that games have their own appeal and that people enjoy playing them for reasons not related to enjoyment. To take an example, it has been claimed that video games provide entertainment and have the potential to " evolve into effective earning environments for the twenty-first century in both in-school and out-of-school contexts "(Gee,2007). Commenting on the significance of gaming, Buckley(2012)contends that it "teaches students survival skills that they use in school and throughout their lives"(1). Games can also "give shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings" (Hansen,1994,p.118). Moreover, they "add diversion to the regular classroom activities ," break the ice, "[but also] they are used to introduce new ideas"(Richard- Amato, 1988,p.147). Parallel to these arguments is the contention that games constitute a "good way of practicing language, for they provide a model of what learners will use the language for in real life in the future" (Zdybiewska,1994,p.6).This idea is further repeated in the claim that " most language games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms"(Lee,1979,p.2). A new value attached to games is that they create a "relaxed atmosphere" in which students "remember things faster and better" (Wierus & Wierus, 1994,p. 218). The preceding arguments made by Buckley, Hansen, Zdybiewska , and Wierus do make sense and seem to be the fruit of experience, knowledge, and wisdom. Buckley's claim that games teach learners survival skills is right. Like Buckley's claim, Hansen's that games give students the opportunity to express their opinions and feelings, add diversion to regular classroom activities ,break the ice and introduce new ideas is also reasonable and realistic. Just as Buckley and Hansen's arguments make sense and do players /learners good ,so do Zdybiewska and Wierus's. While Zdybiewska emphasizesthe role games play as to facilitating language practice, Wierus stresses the relaxed atmosphere games create. This atmosphere allows learners to act normally and willingly. Feeling relieved, learners learn by doing. They speak the language to communicate with others and express their own feelings and opinions. Taken together, these arguments provide the indication that a number of values can be safely attached to games which are in great demand these days. One of these values is that games provide new ideas and introduce them to players. To take an example, certain games focus on the idea of greed; other games deal with selfishness, envy, jealousy, treachery, war, hostility, conspiracy, cooperation, and so forth. By watching the games dealing with these subjects, players will be initiated

into this world where they are dominant. Thus , these players become more experienced than before and more capable than other ones of the same age of talking about the evils begotten by ,for instance , treachery, conspiracy, betrayal, dishonesty, greed, and so forth. These players also learn something new that humans are not angels, and the moment it's claimed that they are so , they directly respond , arguing that they are not. This means that games help innocent players with socialization by introducing them to ideas they hear of for the first time. Besides introducing new ideas , games give shy players the chance to express their feelings and opinions. This is true because shy players object to talking and making remarks in public, but when playing with their mates who are of the same age they talk because they know well that there is no one to ridicule, rebuke, or criticize them. This situation is similar to learners' responding or refusing to respond in classes. When learners, for instance, realize that their responses beget ridicule, laughter, and criticism , they object to responding and expressing their minds, and however hard you try convincing them of doing that , they don't listen to you. In contrast with this situation , when learners realize that their responses bring about praise and appreciation , they respond normally and confidently, which is true of the author's classes in which learners are urged to voice their opinions and to make whatever comments they want on the topic discussed. This author also makes it clear to these learners that their own mistakes do lead to learning, and that the more mistakes they make, the better. The reason for this is that when learners respond and make mistakes he shoulders the responsibility of commenting on their mistakes and the way of correcting them. This feedback is helpful because it consists of " more than the provision of correct answers" (SFAA, 1990). The author also promises to award respondents regardless of whether their responses are right or wrong. A third value that can be safely attached to games is that gaming provides a non-threatening environment that enables learners to relax and feel relieved.

This feeling certainly differs when the same learners sit in a classroom to attend a lecture. Defeated within and transformed into figures, these learners are obligated to be tongue-tied , attentive , and cooped up. To me , this description makes the ones transformed into figures more like prisoners than learners. These learners are silenced as if they were sitting in an interrogation room with an investigator who is in control of not only the oxygen taken in but also the words coming out of mouths. It is ironic that some people use euphemism to describe students' sitting in classes and attending lectures. Instead of calling a spade a spade , these people use indirect expressions in place of the direct ones that hurt feelings. They speak of classroom management, which ,in their judgment, means "transforming students into figures," forcing students to sit on chairs fixed to the ground by screws, and stopping them from making remarks or comments . In this way, instructors keep learners managed. The questions that pose themselves are:

Are these classrooms or prisons? Are the people divested of their names prisoners or students? Are the people managing the ones "transformed into figures" jailers or instructors? In response to these queries, it can be sadly said that our classrooms are becoming prisons where learners' freedom is confiscated and their rights to learn, to ask, and to be are all violated. This atmosphere is threatening and suffocating and does not help learners with learning anything. Learners are disempowered and forbidden to raise any question or to make any remark about the topic commented on by the instructor who sometimes changes the whole

class into one on "Reading" to conceal his own deficiencies. In this case, he asks learners to open their books at a certain page .Then he starts reading and asks learners to follow and to keep looking at that page .When he has read a paragraph, for instance , he stops reading to check if learners have any queries or not. The problem is that if a learner says that he/she has a query, he bursts into shouting loudly at this learner telling him/her that he/she is too foolish to learn and ,therefore, he /she should not be in that class. This instructor may also go on with cursing or recriminating that learner using obscene words describing him/her as being donkey- like, mule-like, and so forth. This instructor acts this way to teach learners a memorable lesson that this is the way he deals with those who raise questions and whom he holds to be trouble - makers wasteful of the time of class that he is anxious to spend on teaching. Similar to this foolish instructor are other ones who ,being fools , change the whole class into one on "Dictation" or "Copying" and spend it either dictating notes to learners who put them down in their copybooks or asking learners to copy notes written on the white board. He also explains that it is the learners' job to memorize these notes that the exam will be certainly based on. Learners that learn the notes by heart or cheat do well in the exam; others who don't memorize them fail to do well in the exam. The questions that pose themselves are:

What good do these classes do learners? What good do these instructors do learners?

Frankly speaking, these instructors don't do learners any good, and classes such as these are worthless. Such foolish instructors waste learners' time and money. The least that can be said about them is that they are irresponsible and unaccountable. They do learners harm and make them believe that they learn something. In fact, these instructors pass on failure to learners . They are blameworthy because they don't try equipping learners with skills that they badly need for their future careers. These instructors know well that they are incompetent and that they are not in a position to teach. To promote themselves , they start giving learners full marks in the subjects they teach, which maddens learners who are all after marks. This behavior makes learners jump to enrolling for any course they offer. Learners' acting this way justifies their having high marks in their transcripts regardless of their weaknesses, their refusing to enroll for classes with other instructors under the pre text that they don't give them high marks , and their not making any progress. In other words, these learners are as blameworthy for their weaknesses as their instructors are. They have been more driven by their fondness for marks than their urge for learning. Just as these foolish learners and instructors are to blame for their numerous weaknesses, so is the university president who should employ competent people that are capable of doing their jobs thoroughly, who should be responsible and accountable, who shouldn't let nepotism and favoritism sway their decisions, and who should check whether learners' needs are met or not. A fourth value that can be attached to games is that they help players speak the language as they like because there is no one to criticize them or to make any remarks about their mistakes. This absence of censorship urges them to use the language and not to think of the "correct forms" (Lee , 1979,p.2). This situation is opposed to what occurs in the classroom where learners are not allowed to speak or raise any questions. When learners are allowed to speak, they keep hesitating because of their problems with the grammar of English, especially the correct forms of verbs which they have not grasped yet. It is this failure to master the grammar of English that stops them from raising questions and

making remarks about the subject discussed .This failure represents the norm as they are still learning English, but, unfortunately, some instructors object to learners' making mistakes and stipulate, for instance, that they make no mistakes when doing a report, reading, speaking,and writing. In my opinion, these instructors' stipulation is unjustified for these learners are still learning and however hard they try they cannot but make mistakes for they are bound to err and to keep erring until they die. Humans themselves, be they educated or not , make mistakes and go on with doing that and learning until death. This physical death is different from the variety of death experienced by graduates lacking the survival skills of the 21st century. When we say that employees lacking survival skills perish , "perishing" in this case functions as a metaphor for the difficulties the employee has to surmount in order to survive. To help learners evade these difficulties , education should be reformed by incorporating games that teach players/learners these skills ,which is the fifth value , into the course materials. The significance of these skills lies in the possibility of using them both at school and throughout their lives. These skills are becoming the cynosure in the 21st century. They are represented by creativity, innovation, collaboration, communication, critical thinking, problem solving, taking the initiative ,and so forth. These skills are essential for survival, and are also referred to as life skills. In a sense , they constitute the means of survival. In this capacity, people equipped with them can survive; others who lack them are certain to have trouble with living peacefully and happily. In a sense, the ones lacking them will have difficulty with getting jobs and drawing reasonable salaries that enable them to live honorably. This argument about survival and death in connection with skills shows the dire need for these skills in this century marked by rapid technological change and increased globalization. These skills are connected with future jobs , and employers stipulate that employees be equipped with them. The employees equipped with them can compete with others and excel them. As for the employees that are not equipped with them, they are not in a position to compete with others , and their chances of getting jobs are slight. In brief, these skills facilitate achieving success not only on the personal level but also the workplace and country levels.

As far as gaming is concerned, games that teach these skills are legion. To take an example, games in *The Legend of Zelda* teach life skills, such as " perseverance and critical thinking"(Kilgore, 2012,p.1). In the first game of the series, Ganon breaks free from the Dark World , his army attacks Hyrule, steals the Triforce of Power, and captures the ruling princess. In other competitive sports games ,such as *Madden NFL* and puzzle games like *Portal 2* players learn about the value of good "decision making", planning, and communicating effectively" (Kilgore,2012,p.1). Similarly, games , such as *Minecraft* , *Warcraft* and *StarCraft* are based on problem-solving models requiring that users tackle complex puzzles, draw up plans and implement them to advance and be successful. Like these games, *Call of Duty* requires the ability to adapt to situations, and react quickly to events. *Civilization V*, *Endless Space*, and *Age of Empires*, likewise, help players develop a sense of planning and strategy. Just as the preceding games present challenges calling for thinking , adapting , acting according to different situations , and solving problems, so do video games in which players are confronted with complex problems for which they must formulate solutions and take appropriate action" (Armstrong, 2015,p.1). It is worth noting that the alternatives presented to players do "force them to make quick choices (Armstrong,2015,p.1). This argument about players is also true of students that "must exercise critical thinking,

resilience, and creative problem solving to succeed in an Alternate reality games" (Loo,2014,p.1). Speaking of students who play video games, Loo (2014) maintains that games "enable" them "to put themselves in shoes of a character or immerse themselves in a place or culture that they are learning about in the classroom"(p.1). Like Loo, Lee(2014) holds that " gaming enables stereotypically introspective individuals to be more social , ultimately improving social skills"(1). A quick look at Loo and Lees' arguments reveals that games are of great value. Loo maintains that games enable players/learners to take the place of others and immerse themselves in a culture they are learning about. The significance of this behavior is that it helps learners gain a better understanding not only of others but also of themselves, provides them with a new perspective, leads to their having empathy for other people's problems, stops them from making snap judgments, enables them to develop patience and tolerance and see the world the same way others do, which may impact their own view (Beck,1993). Like Loo, Lee(2014) claims that games enable introspective individuals to be more social, and improve social skills (1).Being introspective, these individuals shun others and isolate themselves to reflect upon their own feelings, problems, choices, and so forth. They look inward. When these individuals play games, they start going out of their cocoons and mixing with others. Lee adds that games have changed him into a productive member of the society(1), and Loo claims that players must exercise resilience, critical thinking, and problem solving to succeed, which is also true of learners who have been exposed to rote learning . In brief, games that teach players such valuable skills are worth considering.

Reckoning with all that has been said , it becomes clear that games are not a waste of time and money. This is a misconception that some uneducated people have been firmly holding onto. Contrary to this argument, studies done on gaming have found out that games constitute an important educational tool that helps learners acquire a number of skills applicable to real life situations. Arguing in favor of this contention, Lee (2014) ,in 5 Life Skills That Video Games Can Help You Develop, attests that "games have helped shape [him] into a more productive member of society"(1). Lee adds that [s]ynchronizing schedules, mobilizing people toward a goal, inspiring motivation, and resolving interpersonal conflicts are all skills that can be learned from gaming and applied to real life" (p.1). Echoing Lee, Brockway(2011) argues that video "games have been teaching us all sorts of skills for years now, it's just that we don't always think to thank them for it"(p.1). Lee and Brockway's arguments reveal that games have the potential to teach players/learners a lot of skills that can be applied to real life situations. These skills have been lacking, which means that traditional educationhas not been doing learners any good, and, therefore, it should be reformed.

This reform of education necessitates that games be incorporated into English classes in which students have been wrestling with knotty problems related to acquiring skills. Denied the right to make remarks and comments and raise questions, students haven't been able to acquire any skill. This denial itself has been solely responsible for their being frustrated, helpless, passive, desperate, inattentive, silent, lacking self-confidence, and fed up with learning. These students badly need the skills central for achieving success. Without these skills, such poor students will certainly have trouble with earning their living simply because employers attach many great values to skills, such as communication, collaboration,

innovation, creativity, productivity, team work, problem solving, and so forth. To equip students with these skills, games should be integrated into English classes as soon as possible. This integration facilitates students' becoming fluent in English that globalization has changed into an indispensible life skill. This fluency also necessitates that students look up the difficult words that pop up in the dialogue in the dictionary, learn what they mean , and use them the same way. By learning the pronunciation of difficult words along with their meanings and using them in good sentences, students can enrich their wealth of vocabularies. This wealth of vocabularies together with their mastery of the grammar of English can , through practice, lead in the long run to their becoming fluent. Besides fluency, games ,when designed well, can also teach players/ students other lessons related to life and people, such as patience, perseverance, saving money, tolerance, planning, driving habits ,design, organization, and so forth. Games that teach such valuable skills are certainly worth integrating into English classes. To me , these games represent the last resort as instructors have been reluctant to change their methods of instruction that have been ,unfortunately, without avail. When asked about students' weaknesses , many instructors foolishly claim that it is not their fault that students are poor in speaking, reading ,and writing . They also add that their job is, for instance, to teach English literature or American literature and that it is not their responsibility to teach students how to use English structures or how to write English well. Arguments of this sort are unjustified and unacceptable. These arguments themselves have been responsible for learners' leaving schools empty – handed.

Conclusion

It has been demonstrated that technology in the digital world is not in a position to replace teachers who motivate students , inspire them, help them wit becoming successful , can create a culture of excellence , and who can certainly facilitate learning. Teachers can easily harness technology that is a tool at their disposal to improve upon their methods of instruction to provide more effective teaching for learners who have their own needs. As long as instructors have been anxious to adopt rote learning as a method of instruction, learners have been unable to acquire the skills deeply connected with their future careers. It is the job and the responsibility of instructors to facilitate learning and to empower learners to help them learn English which is becoming indispensable in the digital world marked by competition and everlasting change. Instructors should also be innovative as to using technology in a manner conducive to better outcomes. These instructors are responsible for reforming education by integrating video games into English classes. These games are of great value. They add a diversion to regular classroom activities, and, thus, make classes interesting. They also contribute to keeping learners engaged by stopping them from drifting off. Moreover, they can teach learners the 21st- century skills that they have been lacking and that are in great demand in this world where jobs demand that applicants be good at communicating with others, expressing their own views, taking the initiative, solving problems, working as a team, making quick decisions , critical thinking, cooperating with others , planning , and so forth. Learners are in dire need for these skills which they can use both at school and throughout their lives. These skills are becoming the cynosure in this century because they comprise the means of success not only on the personal level but also the workplace and country levels. In view of this value, these skills are often referred to as "life" skills or "survival" skills , which is indicative of the deep connection between life and survival and

them. This connection itself equally justifies employers' stipulating that employees be equipped with them ,educators' demanding that they be the outcomes of the teaching-learning process, and this paper's arguing that reforming education occurs only when video games that teach these skills have been incorporated into English classes in which instructors use them not only for instruction but also facilitating learners' acquisition of the language that is gaining more and more momentum.

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The Level of Anxiety on the Achievement of the Saudi EFL Learners

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Abstract

The relationship between the level of anxiety on the achievement of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners has long been a key issue in the second language learning literature (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Chan, & Wu, 2004; Cheng, 2005; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006; Nahavandi & Mukundan, 2013). The purpose of this study is to investigate whether Saudi students' foreign language anxiety (FLA) affects their achievement in English classes. It also aims to identify the extent to which gender-based anxiety affects FLA in language classes. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) was used as a key research instrument. Seventy-five (24 male and 51 female) Saudi tertiary students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) at King Khalid University (KKU) in Southern Saudi Arabia participated in this study. Based on the *t*-test performed on this study, the findings revealed that gender has no significant effect on students' FLA and English competence. Moreover, the study recommends transforming Saudi English language classrooms into friendlier environments by employing a variety of practical means designed to control learners' FLA and improve their EFL achievement.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Foreign Language anxiety (FLA), Second Language Learning (L2),L2 achievement, gender.

Introduction

Many Saudi students often experience anxiety while learning English. This feeling of uneasiness may interfere with their learning and ultimately affect their grades in English classes (Alrabai, 2014; Aljafen, 2013; Hamouda, 2012; Asif,2014; Javid, 2014; Al-Asmari, 2015). Although a considerable amount of research has been conducted in the Saudi EFL context to investigate the prevalent high levels of Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) among Saudi English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, as well as the causes underlying this phenomenon, few studies have examined the relationship between FLA and language achievement among Saudi tertiary students. Therefore, this paper addressed this relationship and the role of gender in FLA in the study population.

Literature Review

Definition of Foreign Language Anxiety

Anxiety is considered a significant individual difference in language learning, and researchers have provided various definitions of the construct. MacIntyre (1999) defines FLA as "the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language" (p. 27), while Spielberger (1983) states that it is the "…subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of [the] autonomic nervous system" (p. 15). It can also be defined as "…a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz, Horowitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128). Various studies have shown that FLA is a distinct phenomenon and that students experience higher levels of anxiety in foreign language classes than in others, such as math, history, etc. (Horwitz, et al. 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). It is clear from the definitions above that FLA can be distinguished from general anxiety and can affect successful language learning.

Components of Foreign language anxiety (FLCAS)

Based on Horwitz's et al., definition (1986), classroom anxiety includes three components: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. First, *communication apprehension* is defined as the fear of speaking, such as speaking in public, listening, or learning spoken messages. According to Cubukcu (2007), "Communication apprehension is a type of shyness characterized by fear and anxiety about communicating with people." (p. 50).Second, *test anxiety* is the fear of failure, especially in formal exams. Students with test anxiety often put unrealistic demands on themselves. Finally, *fear of negative evaluation* is a language learner's fear of being evaluated by teachers. Lucas, Miraflores, and Go (2011) also suggest that fear of negative evaluation may include avoidance of evaluative situations, as well as the student's worry in the English classroom, where peer pressure may contribute to increased language anxiety.

Types of Foreign Language Anxiety

FLA has been categorized in various ways. Scovel (1978) classifies anxiety as either facilitating or debilitating anxiety. Facilitating anxiety is beneficial, and occurs when a language learner is exposed to a difficult task that triggers a moderate level of anxiety. This form of anxiety can facilitate language learning (Chastain, 1975; Mills et al., 2006; Young, 1986). By comparison, debilitating anxiety occurs from excessive anxiety, which leads to negative effects such as avoidance of work, lower performance, and frustration. In general, most previous studies

have shown that FLA has a debilitating effect on foreign language learning (Oxford, 1999; Arnold &Brown, 1999; Kondo &Ying-Ling, 2004; Gregersen, 2005; Casado & Dereshiswsky, 2004). Horwitz, et al., (1986) also differentiate this form of anxiety from general anxiety and referred to it as Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA), which can be considered situational anxiety in the context of the FL classroom. According to Abu Rabia (2004), the language learner experiences anxiety when s/he is"…usually worried, physically insecure, unable to engage in situational learning" (p.712). Accordingly, Horwitz et. al (1986) classify FLA into three significant types:

1. *Trait Anxiety:* Trait anxiety is an inherent personality characteristic, the person's permanent tendency or predisposition to be anxious. It is a stable feature of personality that refers to a "permanent predisposition to be anxious" (Scovel, 1978; as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 479).
2. *State anxiety:* Ellis (1994, p. 693) claimed that it is "…the apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to a definite situation." It refers to a "transitory state or condition of the organism that varies in intensity and fluctuates over time" (Spielberger, 1966, p.12).
3. *Situational anxiety:* a type of anxiety that is context specific, such as speaking in public or participating in class activities (Ellis, 1994).

Thus, FLCA is considered to be situational rather than a trait or state anxiety (MacIntyre & Gradner, 1991; Horwitz, et al., 1986).

FLA and Language Achievement

For the past several decades, a growing body of research has investigated the effect of anxiety on language success in various contexts and with different languages. In reviewing the findings of previous studies, it is clear that there is a consistent, negative, and significant correlation between FLA and language achievement (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 2001;Demirdaş&Bozdoğan, 2013; Sparks &Ganschow, 2007; Wang, 2011;Liu &Huang, 2011; Awan,Azher, Anwar, &Naz, 2010). According to Geotz and Hall (2013), the level of correlation between anxiety and language achievement ranges from approximately r = – 0.20 to - 0.25.

In the context in which English is a foreign language, studies so far include that of Wilson (2006), who examined the relationship between FLA (measured by FLCAS) and Spanish learners' oral performance in EFL. His findings revealed a significant, negative correlation between language anxiety and students' oral skills (r = -0.49).

Batumlu and Erden (2007) conducted a study on150 Turkish university students to investigate the relationship between FLA and their English achievement. FLCAS was administered to measure FLA and the students' scores at midterms were used to assess achievement. Their findings also indicated a significant, negative correlation between FLA and English achievement (r= -0.45).

Park and Lee (2005) examined the relationship between the mean scores of FLCAS and Korean students' average scores in a speaking course. This study revealed a significant, negative correlation between anxiety and students' oral performances as well (r= -0.32).

Various recent studies have been conducted in Pakistan to measure the relationship between FLA and English achievement, measured as grades overall among Pakistani university students. The results again demonstrated a significant, negative correlation between the measures (r= -0.27: Awan, et al., 2010; Nazir, Bashir, & Raja, 2014).

In another context with large sample sizes, there has been a considerable amount of research on FLA in Chinese students learning English as a foreign language. Various studies have measured FLA and its relationship to English achievement in large samples of students enrolled in English courses at various universities (Lu &Liu, 2011; Zheng, 2010; Kao &Craigie, 2010, Cheng, 2005). FLA was measured by FLCAS and the students' performance by their grades in English courses. The results of correlation analyses showed a significant, negative correlation between FLA and English achievement that ranged from r= -0.17 to -0.45.

However, to date, only a limited number of studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between FLA and English learning in undergraduate Saudi students (Alrabai, 2014; Aljafen, 2013; Hamouda, 2012; Asif,2014; Javid, 2014; Al-Asmari, 2015).

The relationship between FLA and English Achievement in Saudi Arabia

Teaching English in Saudi Arabia related is quite different than in other contexts. The outcome of teaching English in Saudi Arabia is poor because of various factors, including overcrowded classes, lack of teacher training, extensive use of first language (L1), and low motivation (Alrabai, 2016). Although the Ministry of Education introduced English in primary schools since 2001,students are still unable to engage in English language professional activities because they have insufficient proficiency in English.Saudi students find it difficult to learn English and lack the proper environment in which to practice their English, especially outside the classroom. In light of these circumstances, some researchers have begun to investigate FLA and its level and sources as a vital reason for the failure to achieve proficiency in English (Alrabai, 2014; Aljafen, 2013; Hamouda, 2012; Asif,2014; Javid, 2014; Al-Asmari, 2015). They have found that the level of FLA is moderate to high among Saudi students, and thereby affects their learning. Despite the importance of investigating FLA as a factor influential in language learning, almost no studies have been conducted to assess the effects of anxiety on Saudi students' achievement. The only example is Abu Ghararah's study (1999), which evaluated the effects of FLA on the English achievement of university students in King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. FLCAS was administrated to measure FLA, and the students' English scores to measure their achievement. The results indicated a significant, negative correlation between FLA and English achievement.

After reviewing the literature, it is obvious that there is a need for more research on FLA and its relationship to English achievement in the Saudi context. Thus, this study was designed to examine the relationship between FLA and students' English achievement in the English Department at KKU in Abha, Saudi Arabia.

Research Questions

To achieve the proposed objective of the study, a set of research questions were constructed as follows:

1. What is the level of FLA among Saudi university students studying English as a foreign Language in a Saudi university?
2. Is there any significant relationship between FLA and English achievement among these learners?
3. Is there a significant difference in the levels of FLA between male and female students?

Methods

Participants

The participants in this study were 75(n= 24 male and 51 female) Saudi university students majoring in English at KKU, where English is taught as a foreign language. Males constituted 32% (N=24), and females 68% (N=51) of the total sample Table 1. The participants share the same ethnographic background and are native speakers of Arabic. They also had studied English for approximately 10 years of their formal education in primary, intermediate, and secondary school. The students were selected randomly to complete questionnaires.

Table 1 ***Participants' gender***

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	24	32
Female	51	68
Total	75	100

Instruments

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Horwitz's et al., (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was used to measure the level of FLA. It has been administered worldwide in different languages and various contexts, and demonstrates high validity and reliability. In this study, a translated Arabic version of the FLCAS was used to overcome the participants' poor proficiency in English, and its validity and reliability were assessed (Table2).The results showed that the anxiety scale has an acceptable reliability of α =87.0.With respect to internal validity, Table 3 shows that all the FLCAS items correlated significantly(r = 0.34-0.74, $p< 0.01$).

Following Horwitz's et al. (1986) classification, the scale included three components: 1) *Communication apprehension*,2) *Test anxiety*, and 3) *Fear of negative evaluation*. The scale is constructed as a five-point Likert scale consisting of 33 items, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5); composite scores ranged from 33 to 165, with higher scores indicating higher levelsof anxiety and low scores lower levels of anxiety. Some items with negative wording (2,5,8,11,14,18,22, and 32) were included. These items were then reverse scored, with high scores indicating low levels of FLA and low scores high FLA.

Table 2 ***Reliability of the anxiety scale(FLAS)***

FLA Scale	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
FLCAS	33	0.78

Table 3 ***Internal validity of FLCAS***

Item No.	Communication Apprehension	Item No.	Test Anxiety	Item No.	Negative Evaluation
1	0.63**	3	0.34**	2	0.39**
4	0.58**	5	0.42**	7	0.74**
9	0.61**	6	0.53**	13	0.57**
14	0.46**	8	0.40**	19	0.57**
15	0.39**	10	0.63**	23	0.71**
18	0.52**	11	0.41**	31	0.67**
24	0.61**	12	0.55**	33	0.58**
27	0.62**	16	0.54**		
29	0.49**	17	0.45**		
30	0.39**	20	0.61**		
32	0.45**	21	0.43**		
		22	0.41**		
		25	0.42**		
		26	0.62**		
		28	0.63**		

** p<0.01 level (2–tailed).

Students' English Achievement (GPA)

Students' English achievement was assessed using their grade point average in English courses. The participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire that included various information, such as their age, gender, years spent studying English, and their GPA in English courses.

Data Collection

At the beginning of February, 2016, the researcher visited students in their English classes. Before distributing the questionnaires, each of the participants received a consent form that explained the purpose of the study and the voluntary nature of their participation. Each participant was asked to sign the form prior to participation in the study. The study took into account ethical issues, and any information and materials related to the participants remained confidential.

Data Analysis

After obtaining all of the date required, SPSS, version.20 was used to analyze the data. Both descriptive (means, standard deviations, percentages) and inferential statistics were conducted. t-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA) andPearson's correlation coefficients were performed to answer the research questions. The mean scores of the sample overall were calculated to investigate the level of FLCAS among the students. The scores ranged from 33 to 165. These scores then were classified according to the three levels shown in Table 4.

Table 4*FLA levels*

Level	Scores	Level of FLA
1	33–89	Low anxiety
2	90–108	Moderate anxiety
3	109–165	High anxiety

Results and Discussion

Prior to answering the research questions, the reliability and validity for the entire sample were assessed to examine the internal consistency of the 33 items in the FLCAS (Tables 2 and 3).

Question 1: What is the level of foreign language anxiety among Saudi university students studying English as a foreign Language?

Descriptive statistics were calculated to measure the participants' levels of FLA. The mean scores for both males and females were assessed with a *t*-test. The mean level of FLA in the sample was 95.58 (N=75), showing that the students had a moderate level of FLA.

The findings obtained in this study demonstrate the vital role of FLA as a factor that impairs foreign language learning. The English majors at KKU showed a moderate level of anxiety in learning English, a result supported by many previous studies (e.g., Horwitz et al., 1986; Aida, 1994; Lee, 2002). In the context of Saudi FLA research, our study is also supported by most Saudi FLA research (Ashahrani & Alshahrani, 2015; Abu-Gharara h, 1999; Alrabai, 2014; Aljafen, 2013; Hamouda, 2012; Asif,2014; Javid, 2014; Al-Asmari, 2015).

Question 2: Is there any significant relationship between FLA and English achievement?

We used a *t*-test to answer Question 2 as well. Table 5 shows that there was a negative, significant relationship between total FLA and English achievement (r= -0.42, N= 75,p<0.01), which was in the direction expected. This indicates that when the level of FLA increases, the level of English achievement decreases. With respect to the FLA scale components, the results indicated that all FLCAS components were correlated negatively and significantly with students' grade point averages in English courses: *Communication Apprehension* (r= -0.38, N= 75,p<0.01), *Test anxiety* (r= -0.42, N= 75,p<0.01) and *Fear of negative evaluation* (r= -0.26, N= 75,p<0.05).

Table 5 ***Correlation between FLA and English achievement for all participants (N=75)***

FLCAS Components	English Achievement (GPA)
Communication apprehension	-0.38**
Test Anxiety	-0.42**
Fear of Negative Evaluation	-0.26*
Total Anxiety	-0.42**

** p<0.01

*p<0.05

Table 5 shows the negative, significant relationship between FLA and English achievements (r= -0.42, p<0.01), which was in the direction expected. This indicated that when the level of FLA increased, the participants' level of English achievement decreased. For the FLA scale components, the results showed that all FLCAS components were correlated negatively and significantly with students' GPAs in English.

Principle Component analysis of the FLCAS

We performed an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to assess the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The independent variables were *communication apprehension*, *test anxiety* and *fear of negative evaluation*, while the dependent variable was

GPA. As shown in Table 6, the results indicated a significant relationship between language anxiety and English achievement ($F_{3,64}$=5.09, p<0.01).

Table 6*ANOVA of FLA (FLCAS) andEnglish achievement (N= 75)*

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	*p*
Regression	10.17	3	3.39	5.09	0.00
Residual	42.67	64	0.67		
Total	52.84	67			

a. Dependent Variable: GPA

b. Independent variables:*Communication apprehension, Test anxiety, Negative evaluation*

The FLCAS with its three factors explained 29.2 % of the total variance in English achievement. Items in Factor 1(*Communication apprehension*) accounted for approximately 2.2% of the total variance; Factor 2 (*Test anxiety*) accounted for 3%, and Factor 3 (*Fear of negative evaluation*) accounted for 4% of the total variance.

Table 7 *ANOVA of FLCAS components' effect on English achievement (N=75)*

Independent Variables	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig.
Communication Apprehension	-0.03	0.03	-0.21	-1.05	0.30
Test Anxiety	-0.03	0.02	-0.30	-1.98	0.05
Negative Evaluation	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.23	0.82

R^2=0.192, Constant= 5.31

For the past several decades, the term FLA has been shown widely to be an influential factor in foreign language success (Al-shboul, Ahmad, Nordin, &Rahman,2013). Therefore, this study was designed to investigate the relationship between FLA and language achievement in English courses among university students majoring in English at KKU. According to the findings, FLA correlated significantly and negatively with English achievement, indicating that students with high levels of FLA achieved lower GPAs. This finding is supported well by previous studies that also have demonstrated that students with high levels of FLA exhibited lower language performance (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Huang, 2012; Riasati, 2011; Horwitz, et al., 1986). This effect is associated with the fact that students who experience high stress, frustration, and fear perform poorly in their English classes. Moreover, this study is consistent with that of Macintyre and Gardner (1991) and Horwitz (2001), who suggest that poor performance and a negative attitude may increase FLA and impair learning significantly. Na (2007) emphasizes that, "Usually, high anxiety can make learners get discouraged, lose faith in their abilities, escape from participating in classroom activities, and even give up the effort to learn a language well. Therefore, the learners with high anxiety often get low achievement and low achievement makes them more anxious about learning" (p.30).

Question 3. Is there any relationship between English language anxiety and gender?

To address this question, the mean scores for males and females were calculated, and a*t*-test was used to investigate the differences in the students' levels of FLA and their English achievement by gender. Mean values (Table 6) indicated that there was no significant difference in FLA between males and females: (M= 98.20,N=51) and (M=94.35,N=24), respectively.

Table *8 Levels of FLA by gender*

	N	Mean	SD	*p*
Male	24	98.20	18.56	n.s.
Female	51	94.35	16.27	
Total FLA	75	95.58		

Thus, all of the students in the English Department at KKU exhibited nearly the same level of FLA in English courses (Table 8).

Table 9*The relationship betweenFLAand English language achievement by gender (N=75)*

Gender	N	FL Achievement
Female	51	-0.43**
Male	24	-0.41**
Total Anxiety	75	-0.43**

***p*<0.01 level (2-tailed).

Aida's (1994) study, which also found no statistical difference between FLA and gender in learning Japanese supports the absence of a significant relationship between FLA among males and females and their performance in learning a foreign language, as found in this study. Another supportive study is that of Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1999), who investigated the influence of gender on FLA and found no significant correlations. Moreover, Elkhafaifi (2005)found no significant difference in the levels of Arabic listening anxiety between males and females learning Arabic. In another study, Kao and Craigie (2010) investigated the effect of FLA on Taiwanese university students' English performance, and found that FLA is a significant predictor of English achievement regardless of gender.

Conclusion

There has been insufficient research on the relationship between FLA and foreign language achievement in the Saudi EFL context. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study was to examine the effect of FLA on the English proficiency of Saudi university students majoring in English. This research is one of the few correlational investigations that has demonstrated the association between FLA and foreign language achievement in this population. The findings showed that Saudi university students experience anxiety while learning English as a foreign language. Moreover, the students' levels of FLA had a negative effect on their achievement. With respect to gender, there was no significant difference between males and females' levels of FLA.

The findings of this study will benefit English teachers, educators, researchers, and students themselves. All of those who are involved in learning and teaching foreign language should cooperate to minimize the effects of FLA and create inviting learning environments that will improve the students' performance in learning foreign languages.

Limitations and Recommendations

Despite this study's valuable contributions, further FLA research is needed. Although this study identified the association between FLA and foreign language achievement in the Saudi context, some limitations should be mentioned. First, the findings are limited to Saudi students majoring in English at KKU, and therefore, the results cannot be generalized widely. The study identified the effect of anxiety on students' FL achievement without examining the influence of other variables, including motivation, aptitude, students' attitudes, etc. Third, the findings were based only on quantitative data. Qualitative data should be obtained to achieve deeper data analysis and fuller explanations of the phenomenon. These limitations should be addressed in future studies to enrich our understanding of FLA and its effects on foreign language learning and L2 acquisition.

Future researchers also could investigate other language skills, such as reading and writing, which may contribute to a greater understanding of the nature of FLA and students' achievement in various skills.

It is highly recommended to include students who are not majoring in English in future studies to see if they yield the same findings. Because this study did not address causal relationships, future research also is needed to investigate the direction of the relationship between FLA and language achievement. Specifically, it would be most useful to know whether FLA is a cause or effect of poor language proficiency.

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Arabic for Tourism: Guidelines for Linguists and Translators

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Abstract

The various linguistic and rhetorical characteristics of Arabic tourism discourse have been under investigation in this study. The research paper aims to study and analyse several tourist texts in Arabic to locate the most significant linguistic, as well as stylistic features of Arabic discourse for tourism. Arabic, which is a Semitic language, is one of the richest and most beautiful languages of the world. Therefore, this study highlights significant dominant features specific to Arabic tourism discourse as specialized discourse. Findings indicated that Arabic for tourism consists of various emphatic adjectival expressions, which are the most dominant features as compared to other tourism text characteristics. The content analysis included 333 items located in a number of Arabic tourist brochure extracts. The items were classified into 10 categories of linguistic and rhetorical techniques used in the Arabic tourism discourse and being analysed in terms of their frequency of usage. These techniques were further explained in detail within the context of Arabic for tourism. Various patterns of certain characteristics were also been linguistically and stylistically studied and explained. The data obtained from this research paper is significant in providing useful insights and guidelines for linguists of Arabic, as well as translators of tourism texts. Also, the linguistic and stylistic analysis on these items revealed that there are several features specific to the Arabic language of tourism as specialized discourse. The study concluded that Arabic for tourism possesses many positive stylistic and linguistic features, which add to its richness and beauty.

Keywords: Arabic, tourism, features, translation, guidelines.

Introduction

Tourism is "the processes, activities and outcomes arising from relationships and the interaction among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities and surrounding environments that are involved in the attracting and hosting of visitors" (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006: 5). Tourism can also be seen as a leisure activity involving the movement of people to various destinations for a short-term stay (Urry, 1990). Moreover, Valdeón (2009) stresses that tourism has been recognized as a powerful economic force and therefore it has become the world's first industry in the last decades of the 20 th century.

Today tourism stands as an essential pillar of the economic and social development worldwide (Zain Sulaiman, 2013: 1). With regard to the language of tourism, the author goes on to say that the language of tourism as specialized discourse is an instrument of persuasion and "the intangibility of tourism products has made language the most powerful driving force in influencing potential tourists and converting them into actual tourists". The language of tourism is depicted by Dann (1996: 2) as the language that aims to "persuade, lure, woo and seduce". In addition, it is featured by certain linguistic and rhetorical characreistics such as the deft use of adjectives, figurative tropes and emphatic phrases. The type and function of text for tourism is hybrid. A tourist text can be informative, persuasive and argumentative, whereby "it encompasses different communicative functions" (Munoz, 2011: 32). The functions of these three types are: to convey plain facts for creative compositions and to influence or persuade the reader (Munday, 2008). Trosborg (2000) also highlights ideational features and semantic aspects being related to the linguistic realization of the tourist text such as the skilful use of metaphors and images, as well as culture-specific elements.

Although the field of tourism draws on everyday vocabulary, many words are semi-technical and they appear with a more specific meaning than typically used in everyday contexts (e.g. finger and package). Finger, which is a part of the hand or long, thin-shaped area of land, refers to the walkway used to embark or to disembark from the aircraft at the airport. Package can also designate specialized expressions in a tourist context when used in combination with other daily terms. For example, "tour package, holiday package and combined package" (Ruiz-Garrido & Saorin-Iborra, 2013: 3).

According to Gotti (2006), there also exist several lexical features of the language of tourism such as *monoreferentiality*, whereby each term has only one referent in a given context. For example, tour operator, which refers to companies that organize holidays and tours, is a monoreferential term in a tourist context. Another feature is *conciseness*, which refers to the shortest possible form such as campsite (camp+site). The word 'voucher' has in fact acquired a specialized meaning in the context of tourism. It refers to the receipt that can be used instead of money to pay for goods, whereas it generally designates a written document serving to attest the correctness of accounts or monetary transactions. The use of 'voucher'in this sense constitutes another lexical feature of a tourist text. Such feature is referred to as *the relationship with general language*. Furthermore, *The relationship with other specialized language* can also be regarded as a lexical attribute of tourism discourse. Also, several terms have been borrowed from other fields such as the field of economics that is most likely associated with tourism. *The use of emphatic language* is a common lexical feature of the specialized tourist discourse, whereby lexis is emphatically used to extol the positive features of the places described and the services

offered. For example, 'a unique shopping centre' and 'crystal-clear water' that refer to the beauty and uniqueness of the places mentioned.

Dann (1996) has also pointed out that there exist certain techniques of the language of tourism. These techniques are *humor*, *languaging*, *ego-targeting*, *comparison*, *key words and keying*, and *testimony*. *Humor* is employed in a tourist text as a figurative tool to grab attention so that an element of surprise is created, for example, 'London without cash' and 'our revolutionary holiday ideas'. *Languaging* is a special choice of vocabulary, whereby foreign words are used to create interest in the reader. *Ego-targeting*, on the other hand, is a tourist-text feature that transforms individuals into subjects as we become subjects. For example, 'you will love Lyons'. *Comparison* involves the use of figurative tropes such as simile and metaphor to create a particular mental image or effect in the tourist's mind that is fundamentally appealing. An example from travel writing is 'a colonial town nestled in a Banff-like setting', whereby the point of comparison is the scenery. To achieve optimal effectiveness, the message has to be short and clear in a tourist text. Therefore, it should conclude with the identified key word such as 'continental', 'escape' and 'pleasure'. Such style characterizes another lexical feature of tourism discourse. Furthermore, the language of tourism uses a less elevated type of *testimony*, especially in the discourse of travel advertizing. For example, 'everyone loves it here'. This feature is mainly used to satisfy visitors and attract their attention to the tourist attractions and services.

However, according to Kelly (1997: 36), the style of tourism language might differ from one language to another. As far as tourism language of both Spanish and English are concerned, the Spanish language text establishes a formal, distant relationship with the reader, whereas the English language text tends to be less formal by establishing direct communication with the reader. The same goes to English and Arabic. The English tourism language tends to be less formal, whereas the Arabic tourism text tends to be formal (Dickins, Hervey & Higgins, 2002: 209-210). Nevertheless, Arabic is known for its beautiful literary language that is full of rhetorical characteristics.

This study, therefore, was carried outwith the aim to investigate peculiar features of Arabic tourism texts. These features can be uniquely owned by Arabic, but not shared with other languages. By conducting qualitative descriptive methodology, this study was based on tourism text analysis. For that, several Arabic tourism brochures were selected and analysed.The data was manually collected based on the model of 'techniques of the language of tourism' set by Dann (1996) and 'the language of tourism' model presented by Gotti (2006). In doing so, this study seeks to provide guidelines for linguists, as well as translators of any source language text into Arabic target text in translating tourism. Such important literary characteristics of Arabic for tourism can be employed in writing and translation.

Arabic and Its Rhetorical Characteristics

The Arabic language is one of the richest metaphorical languages of the world (Abu Libdeh, 2011). It was the leading language in the middle Ages and has occupied an international position similar to that of English at the present time. It has left much influence over the languages of Europe as well (Abdul-Raof, Hussein, 2001, 2006). Today, Arabic is the most developed Semitic language and it is one of the major languages of the world. Furthermore, Arabic is enjoying the status of an official language of the 21 countries in the world. Indeed, it is

a language of a great religion and civilization (Hasanuzzaman, 2013). Arabic is the language of the Qur'an (or Koran, the sacred book of Islam) and the religious language of all Muslims. It is the holy language of Islam and thus it has been studied in the four corners of the world. Its significance is attributed to many reasons, among which are religious, political, economic, and military. Arabic for tourism has recently gained attention despite the fact that research on Arabic for special purposes (ASP) is scarce and limited (Sulaiman & Nur al-Deen, 2011).

There is no language in the world that is as systemically comprehensible as Arabic as Arab rhetoricians' efforts of establishing a comprehensive rhetorical and stylistic system for Arabic discourse were fruitful. Arabic is one of the six official languages of the United Nations, is spoken by at least 250 million Arabs and used by Muslims reciting the Holy Quran, which is the central religious text of Islam. Also, Rhetoricians of Arabic were captivated by "Quranic Arabic and its prototypical grammatical and stylistic patterns together with its lexis". Therefore, Arabic has an uninterrupted history of at least sixteen centuries of development and has been the inspiration of a body of literature that is rich in forms of expression, styles and genres (Abdul-Raof, 2006: 271).

Arabic is described as the language of rhetoric and eloquence in general. With respect to the rhetorical features of Arabic, it is rich in tropes and figures of speech that are considered as stylistically decorative elements. Arabic deftly employs such devices to achieve effectiveness of style and make it lofty and sublime (Abdul-Raof, 2001). The well-known Arab linguist Abdul Qahir al-Jurjani (died 471 A.H.) studied and theorized Arabic rhetorical figures and emphasized the importance of figures of speech in his book Asrar al-Balaghah (The Secrets of Eloquence). He has in fact set the rules for the foundation of *'Ilm al-Bayan* (The Science of Tropes) or *'Ilm al-Balaghah* (The Science of Arabic Rhetoric), which is one of the three basic sciences; *'Ilm al-Badi^{c}* (The Science of verbal Embellishments) and *'Ilm al-Ma^{c}ani* (The Science of Structural Semantics) that make the Arabic language eloquent and rhetorical (Abu Libdeh, 2011).

Although the most fertile soil for the employment of such figurative elements is fiction, figurative words and expressions are used in other text types as well, but to a lesser degree (Abdul-Raof, 2001: 143-144). Among the most commonly used and stylistically useful and effective figures of speech in Arabic are metaphor (*isti^{c}ārah*), simile (*tashbīh*), personification (*tashkhīs*), and metonymy (*kināyah*). Both metaphor and simile are based on similitude, in other words, there exists a relationship between them although the particles مثل [*mithl*] or ك [*ka*] are not used in metaphor. An example of metaphor is ان القرن الواحد والعشرين يطرق ابوابنا [*inna al-qarna al-waḥida wa-al-^{c}ishrīn yaṭruqu abwābanā*] [*The twenty-first century is knocking at our doors*]. In this sentence, the metaphor is represented by the word يطرق [*yaṭruqu*] [knock at]. Considering the following examples, we can easily differentiate between metaphor and simile: 'Tom is a tree' and 'Tom is like a tree'. In the first sentence, '[a] tree' is the metaphorical element, while in the second sentence 'like a tree' is the simile element (Dickens, Hervey & Higgins, 2002: 148). Therefore, simile can be treated in much the same way as metaphor, whereby both expressions are metaphorically expressing a person whose major features of him are not apparent.

Personification, on the other hand, is the use of "the attributes of human beings to non-human, inanimate or abstract nouns". Also, the animation of the inanimate can be represented by personification as in ضحك الصخر [*ḍaḥika al-ṣakhru*] [The stones laughed] and بكت السماء [*bakat al-*

samā'] [The sky wept]. Metonymy takes place when an expression is replaced by another such as الصحف [*al-şuḥuf*] [newspapers], which is replaced by the metonymy word الصحافة [*al-şaḥāfah*] [the media] and مدينة الضباب [*madīnah al-ḍabāb*] [the city of fog] is the metonymy of لندن [London] (Abdul-Raof, 2001).

Data Analysis and Findings: Linguistic and Stylistic Characteristics of Arabic Tourism Discourse

Arabic for tourism purposes (ATP) enjoys many positive aspects, which keep pace with contemporary life. Indeed, the analysis performed on the Arabic items of the selected tourist brochures in this paper demonstrates that there are several positive, linguistic and stylistic features specific to the Arabic language of tourism as specialized discourse. The researchers have located 333 items in these brochures. Table 1 illustrates the frequencies of the items:

Table 1. Frequency Analysis of the Language of Tourism in Arabic

No	Features/Linguistic Techniques	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Emphatic Adjectives	194	58.3 %
2.	Figures of Speech	35	10.5 %
3.	Superlative Adjectives	28	8.4 %
4.	Relationship with other Specialized Language	18	5.4 %
5.	Monoreferentiality	16	4.8 %
6.	Keying	12	3.6 %
7.	Emphatic Repetition	10	3.0 %
8.	Use of Imperative Statements/Requests	10	3.0 %
9.	Comparison	5	1.5 %
10.	Relationship with General Language	5	1.5 %
Total		333	100 %

Results of the analysis showed that the total number of linguistic and rhetorical characteristics of Arabic for tourism is classified into 10 categories. Of these major features, the first four are the most commonly used in the Arabic tourist text. They are: 1) emphatic adjectives, 2) figures of speech, 3) superlative adjectives, and 4) relationship with other specialized language. Analysis results also indicated that the less commonly used linguistic features of Arabic in tourism discourse are: 1) monoreferentiality, 2) keying, 3) emphatic repetition, 4) imperative statements/requests, 5) comparison and 6) relationship with general language.

Emphatic Adjectival Expressions

In the context of the analysis of this research, emphatic adjectives refer to words that name certain qualities, or that define or limit nouns. The employment of such emphatic language is widely used in Arabic tourism discourse because the lexis used are often very emphatic, usually highly praising the positive features of the places described, as well as the services offered (Sulaiman & Nur al-Deen, 2011). It was found in the analysis conducted on the research data that the use of emphatic adjectives is the most dominant linguistic feature in the selected

Arabic tourist brochures. It is shown in Table 1 that there are 194 items of emphatic adjectives out of total 333 items. Results showed that there exist six patterns of emphatic adjectives:

i) The use of single-word adjectives is the most common pattern in the application of emphatic positive adjectives. It is used to give beauty and distinction to the place or service offered. In this pattern, only one positive adjective is used to describe the noun. For example, تذكارات جميلة [*tidhkārāt jamīlah*], whereby the single word جميلة [*jamīlah*] [beautiful] is the adjective that positively describes and evaluates souvenirs, which is تذكارات [*tidhkārāt*]. Other examples include مدينة وردية [*madīnah wardiyyah*], whereby the single adjective وردية [*wardiyyah*] is portraying the unique colour of the city, i.e. the noun مدينة [*madīnah*]. In the following example, المياه العذبة [*al-miyāh al-ᶜadhbah*], whereby the noun المياه [*al-miyāh*] is described by the single, positive adjective العذبة [*al-ᶜadhbah*] to portray the sweetness of water. القرى المضيافة [*al-qurā al-miḍyāfah*] and الشمس الخلابة [*al-shams al-khalābah*] are also examples of such pattern of single emphatic adjectives. The adjective المضيافة [*al-miḍyāfah*] emphatically and beautifully depicts the hospitality of the villages, that is, the noun القرى [*al-qurā*], whereas الخلابة [*al-khalābah*] is a single, positive adjective used to emphasize the attractiveness and charm of the sun, i.e. the noun الشمس [*al-shams*].

ii) The second pattern is the use of compound adjectives, i.e. an adjectival expression to describe a single noun. In this pattern, two or more positive adjectives are used to describe and emphasize the beauty and attractiveness of the noun, that is, the tourist attraction or the noun described. For example, تحفة فنية نادرة [*tuḥfah fanniyyah nādirah*] [unique and artistic piece of art], whereby the two adjectives فنية [*fanniyyah*] [artistic] and نادرة [*nādirah*] [unique] are used to describe and emphasize the uniqueness of the matchless noun تحفة [*tuḥfah*] [a piece of art]. Another example is the adjectival expression مياهه الدافئة والغنية [*miyāhuhu al-dāfi'ah wa-al-ghaniyyah*] [its warm and rich waters], whereby both الدافئة و الغنية [*al-dafi'ah wa-al-ghaniyyah*] [warm and rich] are positive adjectives describing the warmth, richness and attraction of the noun مياهه [*miyāhuhu*] [its water]. In the following example الارث التراثي الجميل [*al-irth al-turāthi al-jamīl*] [valued inherited legacy], two positive adjectives are used to emphasize the prettiness and glamour of the noun الارث [*al-irth*] [legacy]. Another example is مشهدا طبيعيا لامثيل له [*mashhadan ṭabīᶜiyyan lā mathīla lahu*] [peerless natural view] consists of two positive adjectives طبيعيا [*ṭabīᶜiyyan*] [natural] and لامثيل له [*lā mathīla lahu*] [peerless] describing the peerless view, in other words, the noun in Arabic مشهدا [*mashhadan*] [view].

iii) The use of adjectival phrases is another application of positive, emphatic adjectives, which refers to adjectives that are in the form of phrases. This pattern is characterized by the use of adjectival noun or verb phrases. An example of an adjectival noun phrase is مجتمع اصيل الكمال[*mujtamaᶜ aṣīl al-kamāl*] [original perfect society], whereby the noun phrase اصيل الكمال [*aṣīl al-kamāl*] is used to describe the noun مجتمع [*mujtamaᶜ*] appreciating the originality of the society. Meanwhile حصنا يصعب اختراقه [*ḥusnan yaṣᶜabu ikhtirāqahu*] [fort make difficult to be penetrated] is an adjectival phrase, whereby the verb phrase يصعب اختراقه [*yaṣᶜabu ikhtirāqahu*] describes حصنا [*ḥusnan*] showing that the noun 'fort', that is حصنا [*ḥusnan*] is hard to be penetrated. Moreover, منظرا مثيرا للاعجاب [*manẓaran muthīran lil-iᶜjāb*] [impressive view] and مدينة كبيرة تعج بالحركة [*madīnah kabīrah taᶜujju bil-ḥarakah*] [bustling big city] are examples of adjectival noun and verb phrases, respectively. Both adjectival phrases, i.e. the noun phrase مثيرا للاعجاب [*muthīran lil-iᶜjāb*] and the verb phrase تعج بالحركة [*taᶜujju bil-*

ḥarakah] [bustling] are used to describe the attractiveness of the noun منظرا [*manẓaran*] [view] and the city مدينة [*madīnah*], being crowded with visitors.

iv) The use of negative denotation adjectives with contextual positive connotation such as المنارات القديمة [*al-manarat al-qadimah*] [old minarets] is another noticeable feature of the Arabic language for tourism. The word القديمة [*al-qadimah*] [old] is an Arabic adjective, usually has a negative denotation, that is, old or ancient. However, in the given example it has a positive connotation, extolling the positive features of the place mentioned. Another example is السيارات العتيقة [*al-sayyārāt al-ᶜatīqah*] [antique cars], whereby the adjective العتيقة [*ᶜatīqah*] [antique] refers to something that is very old and out of date. However, in the given Arabic tourist discourse, it refers to the noun, that is, السيارات [*al-sayyārāt*] [cars] positively to indicate these cars are valuable antiques.

v) The use of foreign words and expressions in an Arabic tourist text in the form of transliterated borrowed adjectives such as منظر بانورامي [*manẓar bānūrāmī*] [panoramic view] is another feature that characterizes Arabic for tourism. The borrowed word بانورامي [*bānūrāmī*] [panoramic] is an adjective describing and praising the beauty of the view منظر [*manẓar*]. Another example is منظورا دراميا [*manẓūran darāmiyyan*] [dramatic view], whereby the borrowed word دراميا [*darāmiyyan*] [dramatic] is used to describe the noun منظورا [*manẓūran*] [view] to show that the view is dramatically peerless.

vi) Finally, the sixth pattern is the use of culture-specific words and expressions like الخيول العربية [*al-khuyul al-ᶜarabiyyah*] [Arab horses] and الفن الاسلامي [*al-fann al-Islamiy*] [Islamic art] to give distinction and add a local flavour to the Arabic tourist brochure. Both adjectives العربية [*ᶜarabiyyah*] [Arab] and الاسلامي [*al-Islamiy*] [Islamic] are specific-culture words used in the Arabic tourist discourse to show the uniqueness and distinction of the Arab culture and Islamic heritage, respectively. Another located example is الأشغال اليدوية القطرية [*al-ashghal al-yadawiyyah al-qatariyyah*] [Qatari handcrafts], whereby the specific-culture word القطرية [*al-qatariyyah*] [Qatari] is used to underline the unique nationality of the handcrafts, that is, الأشغال اليدوية [*al-ashghal al-yadawiyyah*].

Figures of Speech

The employment of figures of speech in a piece of writing entails that the writing language style is figurative. To begin with, style is, as Abrams (in Majddoubeh, 1996) puts it, the manner of linguistic expression. In other words, it is how the writer uses language; how words and sentences are employed to create a certain effect. Figurative style is described as the level of style, which is based on lofty or highly specialized terms and elaborate figures of speech. The analysis of the selected Arabic tourist texts showed that much of the language style used in the collected tourist brochures is figurative due to the deft use of figures of speech.

Arabic is a literary language and therefore it is rich in rhetorical devices such as metaphors and similes to reflect its richness and beauty of style. Figures of speech are employed to attract the reader's attention and to add uniqueness and elegance of style. They are used to emphasize the beauty of a place, a person, a thought, etc. According to the data analysis conducted on the selected Arabic tourist brochures, another feature of Arabic for tourism has been located, which is the use of various types of figures of speech in the Arabic tourist text.

A rhetorical figure can be defined as an artful deviation in the form taken by a statement (Majddoubeh, 1996). In tourism discourse, using figures of speech is the most effective way to express a certain place, landmark or person in to sway an audience. To create such a pleasant influence in a tourist text, Arabic deftly uses figures of speech to attract the tourist's attention to the attractions or services on a tourist brochure for instance. Such rhetorical techniques serve as attention-grabbing devices to create an element of appreciation and attention in the reader.

Types of figures of speech that are located in the selected Arabic tourist discourse are: metaphor (*isti^{c}arah*), simile (*tashbih*), metonymy (*kinayah*), and personification (*tashkhis*).

i) Metaphor (*isti^{c}arah*)

The first figure of speech that is located in the selected Arabic tourist brochures is metaphor. Metaphor is defined as "the use of language to refer to something other than what it was originally applied to, or what it 'literally' means, in order to suggest some resemblance or make a connection between the two things" (Knowles & Moon, 2006: 3). Consider the following example of metaphor:

والبتراء مدينة موغلة في القدم. العرب الانباط هم الذين استوطنوها وجعلوا منها اية في الفن و النحت والتكوين

Literal translation: And Petra is a very old city. The Arab Nabataeans inhabited this place and made it a masterpiece of art, sculpture and structure.

A resemblance is suggested between the city of Petra and a masterpiece in art and sculpture, whereby البتراء [Petra] (topic - الموضوع) is like اية في الفن و النحت والتكوين [sign of art, sculpture and manufacture] (vehicle/the metaphorical element - المشبه به) in that Petra is as beautiful and perfect as a masterpiece of art and sculpture (grounds - وجه الشبه).

Another example is the metaphor in the following sentence:

يعد هذا المنتجع الفريد من نوعه قبلة انظار الباحثين عن الهدوء و الجمال و العلاج منذ فجر التاريخ

Literal translation: This unique resort is considered the most unique all resorts. It is a Mecca for those looking for peace, beauty and treatment back in early history.

In this example, a resemblance or a connection is made between the place المنتجع [*al-muntaja^{c}*] [the resort] and an important destination such as Mecca for Muslims قبلة المسلمين [*qiblah al-muslimin*] [Muslims' Kiblah in Mecca, the direction to which Muslims turn in praying; toward the Kaaba], whereby the resort which is the topic (الموضوع) is the same as Mecca, which is the vehicle/the metaphorical element (المشبه به) in a context in which we can take the intended meaning to be something like the mentioned resort is an important place to be visited by Muslims, who must go there for pilgrimage (grounds - وجه الشبه) in this context.

ii) Simile (*tashbih*)

The second literary technique used in the selected Arabic tourist texts is simile, which is defined as the figure of speech by which an act or object is likened or compared explicitly to

some other act or thing, of a different kind or quality. It is the comparing or likening of two things having some strong point or points of resemblance, both of which are mentioned and the comparisons directly stated (Dictionary of Literary Terms, 1972). In English, simile is characterized by the use of as and/or like to present similitude. In Arabic, we use the particles ك [*ka*] or مثل [*mithl*] to hold such an explicit resemblance or likening between two things.

An example of simile is:

اكسبت التسهيلات التي يتم توفيرها للمتزلجين المبتدئين و المحترفين دبي شهرة ثابتة كجنة للمتزلجين على الماء

Literal translation: Facilities provided for water-skiing lovers, beginners and professionals have made Dubai permanently famous just like Paradise for water-skiers.

In the above example, a connection is made between دبي [Dubai] (topic - الموضوع) and جنة [*jannah*] [paradise] (the vehicle - المشبه به) and كجنة للمتزلجين [*ka-jannah li-al-mutazallijin*] [is like heaven] is the simile element (عنصر التشبيه), in a context in which we can perceive the intended meaning to be something like Dubai is as beautiful and attractive place like 'Paradise' for tourists, especially those who like water-skiing activities (the grounds - وجه الشبه).

iii) Metonymy (*kinayah*)

Another distinctive figurative device that is located in the Arabic specialized tourist discourse is the use of metonymy. Metonymy is a figure of speech that replaces the name of a thing with the name of something else with which it is closely associated (Klaus-Uwe, Thornburg, & Barcelona, 2009). The authors added that metonymy is not only an ornamental rhetorical trope. Rather, it is regarded as an essential figure of thought through which the structure of languages is shaped.

Examples of metonymy are مدينة وردية [*madīnah wardiyyah*] [the Rose City] and مدينة الأنباط [*madīnah al-anbāṭ*] [the Nabataeans' City] for Petra in Jordan, and النهر المقدس [*al-nahr al-muqaddas*] [the Sacred River] for the River of Jordan.

The first example is:

مدينة عمرها من عمر الزمن. المدينة الوردية: مدينة الأنباط أثمن كنوز الأردن

Literal translation: The city, which is as old as time. The Rose City: The Nabataeans' City, the most precious of Jordan's treasures.

whereby the city of Petra is replaced with the names of (the Rose City and the Nabataeans' City) with which it is closely associated. The writer suggests names for the city as it is a historical and archaeological city in the southern Jordanian governorate of Ma'an that is famous for its rock-cut architecture and water conduit system. Petra is named as the Rose City due to the color of the stone out of which it is carved. It is also named as the Nabataeans' City because it is established as early as 312 BC as the capital city of Nabataeans. It is regarded as Jordan's symbol, as well as the Jordan's most-visited tourist attraction. Petra is chosen as one of the UNESCO's world heritage sites. Both names: (the Rose City) and (the Nabataeans' City) are metonymical of Petra.

The second example is the Jordan River, which is a 251-kilometre-long river in West Asia flowing to the Dead Sea. In the following example,

يخترقه نهر الأردن هذا النهر المقدس الذي ينشر الخصب والحياة و الجمال

Literal translation: Crossed by the River of Jordan, this sacred river spreads out fertility, life and beauty.

the writer suggests the name of النهر المقدس [*al-nahr al-muqaddas*] [the sacred river] for Jordan River because they are both metonymically associated. The river is considered sacred because it is mentioned in the Bible and has significance in Judaism, Christianity and Islam. The example also suggests that it is a source of food for the people in the region to show the significant status of the river not only as a tourist attraction, but also as a source of life.

iv) Personification (*Tashkhis*)

The Arabic tourist text is also characterized by the use of another rhetorical device, which is personification (*tashkhis*). Personification is defined as a figure of speech in which inanimate objects or abstract ideas are bestowed with human qualities or actions (Majddoubeh, 1996). In a tourist text, writers use personification to help establish mood and build imagery in a piece of writing. What personification does best is that it connects a reader with the object that is being described. Personification also helps boost emotions and can make plain sentences more interesting when used effectively. For example:

يسمح باستئجار الخيل أو الجمال أو عربة تجرها الخيول للوصول الى قلب المدينة المبهر

Literal translation: It is permitted to hire horses or camels to reach to the exiting heart of the city.

The writer suggests that the city as an inanimate object is bestowed with a human characteristic, that is, the heart قلب [*qalb*] [heart] to direct the tourist to visit this dynamic and lively place as it is the heart of the city. The second example is:

تتصدر الحدائق أهم عناصر الطبيعة الترويحية بما تضفيه من جمال على البيئة وتلطيف للحرارة, علاوة
على دورها الأساسي في تنقية الجو من التلوث في أثناء النهار بوصفها رئات تنفس المدن

Literal translation: It is clear that gardens are the most important elements of natural recreation as they add beauty to the environment and decrease the temperature, in addition to its main function in refining air from pollution during the day as it is the breathing lungs of the city.

Here, the writer suggests that the inanimate object المدن [*al-mudun*] [cities] have a human characteristic such as رئات تنفس [*ri'āt tanaffus*] [breathing lungs]. The context suggests that these cities have lots of trees functioning as human lungs that help purify the air from pollutants.

Superlative Adjectives

Another language feature that is located in the Arabic language as a specialized discourse for tourism is the use of superlative adjective forms. Superlative adjective forms are used to compare one thing, one person, one place or service with all (Murphy, 1985: 208). For example,

the use of the superlative adjective أبرز [*abraz*] [the most significant], الأغلى [*al-aghlā*] [the most expensive] and أفضل [*afḍal*] [the best] whereby these superlative adjectives describe and compare a thing, a service or place with all services or places in the world to give clear emphasis on the uniqueness of the place and to attract the tourist's attention to the significance and beauty of the thing or service.

Data analysis conducted on superlative adjectives demonstrated two patterns of Arabic superlative adjectives. The first is the use of the Arabic superlative form with the Arabic definite article al- [الـ] (ال التعريف). This article is literally translated as 'the' in English. For example,

تشكيلة كبيرة ومنوعة من المطاعم تعتبر الأهم في قطر

Literal translation: A wide range of various restaurants, which are considered the most important in Qatar

The superlative adjective 'الأهم' [*al-aham*] [the most important] is used to describe restaurants in Qatar as the most important places to visit.

وبعض من تصميمات العمارة الأكثر جرأة في العالم

Literal translation: And several architectural designs, which are the most daring in the world.

The phrase الأكثر جرأة [*al-akthar jur'ah*] [the most daring] is a superlative form used to describe the architectural designs as the most daring in the world. These two superlative adjectives الأهم [*al-aham*] [the most important] and الأكثر جرأة [*al-akthar jur'ah*] [the most daring] come with the definite article al-.

The second pattern is the use of the superlative form without the Arabic article al- followed by a noun. For example:

المدينة الوردية: مدينة الانباط أجمل المواقع السياحية

Literal translation: The Rose City: The Nabataeans' City, is the most beautiful tourism sites.

The superlative adjective 'أجمل' [*ajmal*] [the most beautiful] followed by the noun المواقع [*al-mawaqi^{c}*] [sites] is used to describe the Rose City (Petra) in Jordan as it is the most beautiful tourist attraction in the world.

تتمتع دبي بـأحد أفضل المواقع الجغرافية

Literal translation: Dubai enjoys being one of the best geographical places.

The superlative adjective أفضل [*afdal*] [the best] followed by the noun المواقع [*al-mawaqi^{c}*] [sites] is used to describe Dubai as it enjoys the best geographical location in the region.

This form of superlative adjective is used without the Arabic article al-.These two patterns of superlative adjectives are considered as stylistic variation in Standard Written Arabic.

The Relationship with other Specialized Languages

The huge indebtness to the semantic field that belongs to other specialized languages is regarded one of the most remarkable characteristics of tourism discourse lexicon (Dann, 1992). In Arabic tourism discourse; terms are borrowed from other fields most closely linked to tourism. Such lexical features characterize the Arabic specialized discourse for tourism. Based on the data that has been collected from the selected tourism texts, it shows that there are various specialized terms borrowed from other fields such as geography and environment, sport, religion, and economics and finance. For example:

i. Geography terms
مناخ [*manākh*] [climate], سطح البحر [*saṭḥ al-baḥr*] [sea level], سطح مائي [*saṭḥ mā'ī*] [water surface], ترسبات كلسية [*tarassubāt kalsiyyah*] [calcic sediments], المسطحات [*al-musaṭṭaḥāt*] [flat areas], التلوث [*al-talawwuth*] [pollution], الجرف الصخري [*al-jurf al-ṣakhrī*] [rock cliff].

ii. Sport
رياضة التزلج [*riyāḍah al-tazalluj*] [skiing], الرياضة المائية [*al-riyāḍah al-mā'iyyah*] [water sport], الرياضات البحرية [*al-riyāḍāt al-baḥriyyah*] [sea sport], المسابقات المحلية [*al-musābaqāt al-maḥalliyyah*] [local competitions].

iii. Religion
الدير [*al-dayr*] [monk], عيد الرب [*ʿīd al-Rabb*] [The day of the Lord], كنيسة [*kanīsah*] [church].

iv. Economics and finance
الخزنة [*al-khaznah*] [treasury].

These examples indicate that the language of tourism is also related to other fields of studies. This is due to natural features of the field that is a combination of different fields.

Monoreferentiality

Gotti (2006) discusses monoreferentiality as part of the lexical features of the language of tourism. The term mono-referentiality indicates that only one meaning is allowed in a given context.

This lexical feature of monoreferentiality is also located in the Arabic text for tourism such as types of tourist services or attractions offered. In this context, the use of lexical monoreferentiality can be divided into two categories; i) general monoreferentialities, and ii) Specialized Arabic tourism monoreferentialities.

General monoreferentialities are lexicon that are common in different languages as almost all languages share the same reference, but with different names according to the language. These terms are either literally translated or calqued. Examples of general

monoreferentiality that can be found in the selected Arabic tourism texts of this study are as follows:

- الوكالات السياحية [*al-wakālāt al-siyāḥiyyah*] [travel agents]
- المناطق الحرة [*al-manātiq al-ḥurrah*] [free zones]

The terms 'travel agent' and 'free zone' are common terms of tourism in almost all languages.

In contrary, specialized Arabic tourism monoreferentiality refers to lexicon of tourism, which can only be found in Arabic for tourism. In other words, these lexicons are peculiar to Arabic tourism text. Data analysis showed different types of Arabic tourism monoreferentiality, such as:

- منتجعات صحراوية [*muntajaᶜāt ṣahrāwiyyah*] [desert resorts]
- رحلات السفاري الصحراوية [*riḥlāt al-ṣafārī al-ṣahrāwiyyah*] [Desert safari trips]

These types of data are considered special to Arabic tourism since they are not shared by other cultures.

Keying

Keying is another element of the verbal techniques of the language of tourism (Dann, 1992). McCannell (1989a: 10) links keying with the rhetoric of tourism. Gold and Gold (1994: 77) also make a similar point when they observe that the rhetoric of advertising is at its most persuasive when the images and symbols it employs are drawn from the shared language of the audience and advertiser, and moulded by the latter to suit the needs of the former.

In the Arabic language of tourism, interesting examples such as the use of تذكارات [*tadhkārat*] [souvenirs], مرافق للشواء [*marāfiq li-al-shiwā'*] [barbeque facilities], المنتجع [*al-muntajaᶜ*] [resort], مغامرة [*mughāmarah*] [advanture], أحواض السباحة [*aḥwaḍ al-sibāḥah*] [swimming pool], مدرج مسرحي [*mudarraj masraḥī*] [show auditorium], حديقة الحيوانات المائية [*ḥadīqah al-hayawānāt al-mā'iyyah*] [water creatures garden] and اماكن الترويح عن النفس [*amakin al-tarwih ᶜan al-nafs*] [recreational places] are deftly used in the Arabic tourism discourse to entertain and at the same time persuade the audience that the destination or service is worth visiting.

Example in context is as follow:

فهي توفر أيضا أماكن الترويح عن النفس متمثلة في الحدائق والشواطئ

Literal translation: It also consists of recreational places such as gardens and beaches.

In the above example, the term أماكن الترويح عن النفس [*amākin al-tarwiḥ ᶜan al-nafs*] [recreational places] functions as a persuasive element in the rhetoric of advertising in the Arabic tourism discourse. It refers to the places where recreational facilities can be found.

Emphatic Repetition

Repetition can be defined as "multiple instances of an idea or word, and the greater the number of repetition the more we notice it" (Reynolds, 1995: 185). In the selected samples of Arabic tourist texts, the researchers have located such a multiple occurrence of one single idea or word, which is regarded as emphatic repetition. Based on Reynolds' definition of stylistic repetition, the number of occurrences, which grabs the attention, is a key element of placing more emphasis on a certain idea. In the English language, repetition is employed mainly to emphasize meaning.

In the Arabic language, however, it is an intrinsic part of the structure of Arabic. The repetition of synonyms and antonyms in Arabic helps create cohesion between parts of the text. Linguistic cohesion and rhetorical force of Arabic discourse are the result of using structural and semantic repetition. "Writers in Arabic use lexical couplets consisting of conjoined synonyms, which create new semantic paradigms as they evoke old ones" (Johnstone, 199: 1). Repetition as a stylistic feature of the Arabic discourse indicates that the writer's style is lofty and eloquent and the discourse is elevated (Holes, 1995 & Al-Khafaji, 2005).

Emphatic repetition is another noticeable stylistic feature of Arabic for tourism, whereby repetition is employed for the sake of placing certain emphasis to highlight the idea and underline the distinction of the various tourist attractions and services and for the sake of persuading the audience to the destination or service. Repetition in Arabic is an important stylistic feature because of its persuasive and emotional impact on the audience (Mazraani, 1993 & Johnstone, 1991). Repetition is regarded as a significant, useful linguistic strategy of persuasion (Tannen, 1989). Examples located in the selected tourist discourse of Arabic show the repetition of synonyms; the use of lexical couplets consisting of conjoined synonyms such as الاعجاب والانبهار [*al-aᶜjāb wa-al-inbihār*] [admiration & appreciation], البدائع و النفائس [*al-badā'iᶜ wa-al-nafā'is*] [valuables & treasures] and مدهش و مثير [*mudhish wa-muthīr*] [amazing & interesting].

In context, the explanation is as follow:

المدينة الوردية: مدينة الانباط، أثمن كنوز الاردن، أجمل المواقع السياحية، احدى عجائب الدنيا السبعة. كل هذه الأسماء و الألقاب التي اطلقت عليها رغم عمق معانيها لاتساوي حالة الأعجاب و الأنبهار التي يشعربمن تكتحل عيناه بمنظرها الساحر

Literal translation: The Rose City: the Nabataeans' City, the most precious treasure of Jordan, the most beautiful tourism site, one of the seven wonders of the world. All these names and titles that are associated with it in spite of its deep meaning is not the same as the situation of the wonders and fascination that a man feels towards beautiful kohl of eye of a lady with her fantastic appearance.

In this Arabic tourist context, the writer uses the repetition of the Arabic الأعجاب والأنبهار [*al-aᶜjāb wa-al-inbihār*] [wonders and fascination] as lexical couplets consisting of a twin nouns referring to the same meaning, which is the admiration and appreciation of the beauty of the Rose City, Petra.

The Use of Imperative Statements/Requests

According to Munoz (2011: 35), imperative statements or requests are used in tourism texts "in order to avail him/herself of the opportunities which are on offer". The use of imperative statements/requests is also located in the Arabic tourist discourse to highlight the status of politeness and respect when offering tourist services to attract those who are interested to see the place and to direct them to behave in a certain way. Examples include:

لمزيد من المعلومات عن الشواطئ في دبي ومواعيد ارتيادها, الرجاء زيارة موقع ديفنتلي دبي التابع لدائرة السياحة والتسويق التجاري في دبي

Literal translation: For more information about beaches in Dubai and its visiting schedules, please visit 'Dubai Definitely Website' that is run by tourism and marketing office in Dubai.

This example indicates that the Arabic polite request الرجاء زيارة [*al-rajā' ziyārah*] [please visit] is used to show politeness when addressing or directing tourists to get more information about the place they intend to visit.

احرص ان تعتمر قبعة لتحميك من الشمس

Literal translation: Please put on a hat for sun protection.

Another example of a polite request, which is located in the Arabic tourist discourse, is احرص ان تعتمر [*iḥriṣ an taᶜtamira*] [please put on]. It is used by the tourist text writer to politely direct tourists to wear a hat in order to protect themselves from the blazing sun.

كذلك احمل دائما ماء للشرب بكمية كبيرة

Literal translation: Also always bring a big amount of drinking water.

To direct tourists to behave in a certain way, the writer uses the Arabic احمل [*iḥmil*] [bring], which is a polite request.

Comparison

Comparison in a tourist discourse is "a verbal technique which is often employed to mollify the effect of strangeness which are associated with a vacation" (Dann 1996: 171).

Comparison is a tourist discourse feature that is used in the selected Arabic tourist brochures to highlight the importance and distinction of a place or service and to attract the tourist's attention to a certain destination. Examples of comparison include:

منذ القدم والأرز ولبنان توأمان

Literal translation: Long back in history, Pine and Lebanon are twins

The comparison in the context above is held between Lebanon and the Pine tree, which is the national symbol of the country. The underlined expression suggests that the country is deep-

rooted in history as its old pine trees that are grown in forests, which are fairly open and even-aged almost all the country.

كما أكسبت التسهيلات التي يتم توفيرها للمتزلجين المبتدئين والمحترفين دبي شهرة ثابتة كجنة للمتزلجين على الماء

Literal translation: Facilities provided for water-skiing lovers, beginners and professionals, have made Dubai permanently famous like 'Paradise' for water-skiers.

In this context, there is a clear comparison between Dubai and the surf beach. The Arabic كجنة للمتزلجين على الماء [*ka-jannah li-al-mutazallijīn ʿala al-mā'*] [like 'Paradise' for water-skiers] suggests that Dubai is likened to Paradise for those who like to practice the water surfing sport. Dubai is famous for its perfect surf beaches that are popular with surfers including both amateurs and professionals.

The relationship with General Language

When a specialization process is applied to the language of tourism, terms of general meaning acquire the specialized meaning in tourism (Williams, 1976). The analysis that has been carried on the selected data of Arabic tourism indicates that such a lexical feature of the language of tourism is located in the sample Arabic tourist texts. Examples include general words like مرشدون [*murshidūn*] [tourist guides] and الأكلات المحلية [*al-akalāt al-maḥalliyyah*] [local foods], which have acquired the specialized meaning in tourism of 'tourist guides' and 'local foods', respectively. Examples are explained as follows:

هناك مرشدون في معظم الغابات

Literal translation: There are tourist guides in most forests.

The context of this example suggests that the Arabic مرشدون [*murshidūn*] [guides] is a general meaning term, which acquires a specialized meaning in this tourist context. It refers to tourist guides, who provide help and information to tourists on an organized tour.

وتتميز تشكيلة المطاعم بتنوعها لتشمل معظم مدارس الطبخ العالمية ولترضي جميع الاذواق بما في ذلك من يبحث عن الأكلات المحلية التي تعكس جزء من الثقافة والتاريخ المحلي

Literal translation: Restaurants are variously exotic. They include all types of world cuisines to satisfy all tastes, especially those who look for local dishes, which reflect part of culture and local history.

The Arabic الأكلات المحلية [*al-akalāt al-maḥalliyyah*] [local dishes] is another general term. The tourist context suggests that the market offers a wide range of restaurants and cafes featuring a diverse variety of foods to satisfy all tastes, including the tastes of those searching for local dishes that reflect the local culture and history of the country.

Conclusion

The linguistic and stylistic analysis of the located items included in the selected Arabic tourist brochures revealed that there are significantly dominant features specific to the Arabic language of tourism as specialized discourse. Findings indicated that Arabic for tourism consists of various emphatic adjectival expressions, which are the most dominant features as compared to other tourism text characteristics. The purpose is to support the function of the tourism text, which is persuasive and to reflect the beauty of the language. In addition to this dominant feature, Arabic for tourism employs different types of figures of speech and superlative adjectives. This, however, contradicts with previous research findings, which stated that the language of tourism in Arabic is formal. By implementing these positive features, the relationship between the text and the target readers seems less distant. Moreover, findings obtained indicated that Arabic for tourism has its own peculiar features that are not shared with other tourism languages. Indeed, Arabic tourism text is both emphatic and repetitive. Therefore, Arabic for tourism possesses many positive stylistic and linguistic features, which add to its richness and beauty. More importantly, the data obtained from this research paper is significant in providing useful insights and guidelines for linguists of Arabic and tourist text translators of any language into Arabic.

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Second Language Writing from an Intercultural Rhetoric Perspective

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Abstract

Composing in a language other than one's first language is a complex process which involves, in addition to familiarity and interest in the writing topic, many sub-skills the student-writer needs to master to communicate accurately, fluently, and appropriately in the written medium of the target language. These sub-skills include knowledge of the target language system (e.g. syntax, morphology, and lexicon), writing mechanics, and the types of rhetorical patterns used to organize the textual content. The latter is one of the major problems that second language learners encounter in their acquisition of writing due to unfamiliarity with these patterns and the impact of first language organisational patterns they tend to transfer to the target language. The purpose of this paper is twofold. First, it will highlight how the main assumptions of the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis, as advanced by Kaplan (1966) and his supporters emerged to account for the poor rhetorical performance of advanced learners of English as a second language. The main contention at the heart of this hypothesis (recently referred to as intercultural rhetoric by Ulla Connor but in this paper both are used interchangeably) is that the rhetorical patterns governing the development of expository or persuasive writing are not only culture bound but tend to persist in students' writing even at advanced proficiency levels. Second, it will discuss the types of criticism levelled at the hypothesis and the new directions it has known thanks to the contributions of many authors, including Kaplan himself, and how these led to the developments of contrastive rhetoric as a fruitful field of study on second language writing and composition

Key words: contrastive rhetoric hypothesis, first language interference, persuasive writing, rhetorical patterns, second language writing and composition,

Introduction

Writing the present article emanates from the authors' long experience as a teacher of English as a foreign language having had to teach, among other things, writing classes to students of different academic levels both in public and private institutions. This teaching experience has been an opportunity to observe how Moroccan learners of English as a foreign language handle the writing tasks they are assigned in and out of class, the quality of their written products, their lack of motivation towards writing in English, not because of lack of interest for the skill per se but mainly because of their apprehension of being judged negatively for the quality of their writing (language mistakes, stylistic inappropriateness, etc

The teaching/learning process of writing in English in a foreign language context, like Morocco, is a problematic issue for both teachers and learners. While teachers are dissatisfied about the poor quality of their students' written products (at times even at advanced levels of language proficiency), the students complain about their inability to produce good quality writing. These problems seem to be less attributable to deficiencies related to language aspects than to the sense of 'foreignness' that characterizes this type of writing. Experienced EFL teachers (both native and non-native) are often able to sense this 'foreignness' phenomenon in their students' writings even when the latter are free of mistakes and linguistically accurate. EFL students, on their turn, often complain about the frustrating feedback they regularly receive from their writing instructors describing their writing assignments as 'awkward', 'clumsy' or simply 'non-coherent'.

Based on the above, it is assumed throughout this paper (which is part of a broader PhD research thesis comparing the writing rhetorical patterns in English and Arabic) that one of the major writing sub-skills that may account for this sense of 'foreignness' is EFL learners' unfamiliarity with English writing rhetorical patterns, and interference of first language patterns from their respective to their English writing, as held by the contrastive rhetoric proponents.

This leads to the second motivation of writing this paper. This article is interested in shedding light on how the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis, as a first 'theoretical' attempt initiated by Kaplan (1966) was developed to accounts for the problems in writing by foreign (do you mean non-native) students who are enrolled in American universities. As will be made clear throughout the rest of this paper, the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis seems to have hugely evolved into a full-fledged field of second-language research area for two reasons. While the first has to do with the criticism its early assumptions have undergone, the second is related to the new directions it has taken thanks to the contributions of different scholars and contrastive rhetoricians (Oslter, 1987; Connor & Lauer, 1988; Liebman, 1988; Kubota, 2004).

Origins and early Assumptions of the Contrastive Rhetoric Hypothesis

Historically speaking, the birth of contrastive rhetoric as a field of study is often traced back to Kaplan's (1966) article in which describes his unprecedented notion of rhetorical inconsistency in the writing of ESL students from various cultural backgrounds. Kaplan drew attention through "provocative observations" as stated by (Connor 2008, p. 2) to what he thought were consistent variations/deviations underlying the rhetorical patterns in English writings by foreign students as compared to those by English native speakers. He also questioned the tendency of some EFL and ESL teachers to assume "a fallacy of repute and some duration"

(Kaplan, 1966, p13). This means, teachers assume that being a proficient writer in one's native language would necessarily amount to being able to compose with equal degree of proficiency in a foreign or a second language.

Kaplan launched what would later be a new field of research known as contrastive rhetoric. He defines the latter as "a way of studying languages -albeit with attention to the product rather than the process- based on the belief that the analysis of texts can lead to a better understanding of how language works." (Kaplan 1988, p 289) He goes on to warn that "contrastive rhetoric is not a methodology for teaching; though some of its findings can be (and indeed have been) applied to the teaching process since its inception". It is a field of study whose central concern is to raise teachers' and students' awareness to the fact that there are conventions of discourse structures and rhetorical organization without which knowledge of grammar and syntactic rules at the sentential levels would be useless when composing in English as a foreign language.

Kaplan (1966) comes to the above conclusion after a long experience of teaching composition to students coming from discrepant linguistic and cultural backgrounds. He initiated this field of research when he observes that some of his foreign students, even at advanced proficiency levels, "are employing a rhetoric and sequence of thought which violated the expectations of [English] native readers" (p.13). He also states that "foreign students who have mastered syntactic structures have still demonstrated inability to compose adequate themes, term papers, theses and dissertations." Instructors have written on students' papers comments such as "the material is all here but it seems somehow out of focus" or "lacks organization" or "lacks cohesion" (Kaplan 1967, p 12).

More precisely, upon analysis of more than six hundred essays written by students from different language and cultural backgrounds, Kaplan advances that five macro-structures are clearly identifiable in the five language families investigated (see figure1). He argues that of all the five observed macro- rhetorical patterns, English appears to be the only linear language and therefore the "use of rhetorical patterns unfamiliar to the intended audience [in this case the native English] …may not only strike readers as lack of rhetorical elegance, but as lack of coherent writing or even thinking" (Mauranen 1991, p 2).

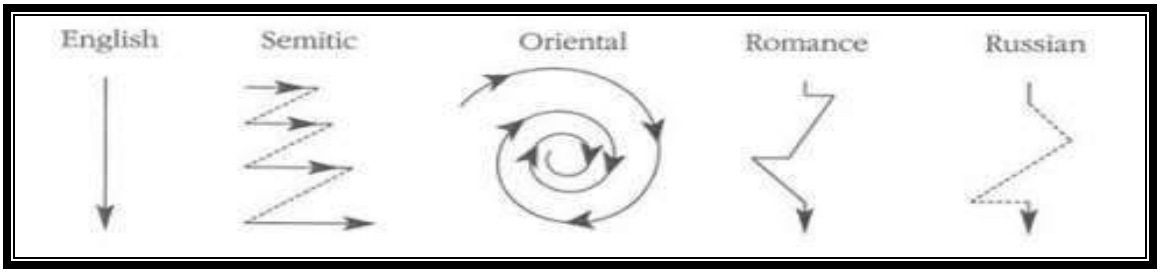

Figure 1 Diagram on cross-cultural differences in paragraph organization (adapted from Kaplan 1966).

Figure 1 describes one of Kaplan's underlying characteristics of English writing; namely the notion of linearity that is reflected in the straight line. Linearity is based on the assumption that the flow of composing in English seems to occur in a straight, undeviating mode from the topic sentence to the concluding sentence. That is, a good paragraph needs to be developed

deploying only relevant supporting arguments and details related significantly to the central idea. Contrastively, composing in other languages seems to crucially differ in many ways in that the flow of ideas occurs in dissimilar modes. In 'Semitic' languages, for example, the ideas are conveyed in a zigzag line because writers resort to a frequent use of parallelisms. In the 'Oriental' pattern, ideas are organized in a circular fashion to reflect the indirectness cycle underlying how writers develop their ideas before getting to the main point. Finally, organisational patterns used in 'Romance' languages and 'Russian' reflect a system that allows writers more freedom to digress from the main point and incorporate less relevant material to the central topic being developed (Connor 1996, p 15).

Kaplan (1966) tries to visually depict that "paragraph developments other than those normally regarded as desirable in English do exist," (p. 14) and by implication, any attempt to teach students how to compose in English would necessarily involve, besides acquainting them with syntactic and grammatical rules of usage, familiarizing them with the writing conventions and rhetorical logic or patterns specific to the English language as well.

The above clearly reflects that contrastive rhetoric, as a field of study, has been an eye opening experience for both composition teachers and student-writers who "[grew] compelled to look beyond the syntactic levels of language and consider "discoursal macro-patterns in the light of underlying cultural traditions" (Enkvist1997, p 19). It also reveals how this new this new ESL writing interest marked a historical shift away in language teaching and learning from a mere focus on language structure and the spoken mode, under the auspices of the Audio Lingual Method and the structuralist approaches to language teaching and learning prevalent in the 1960's, to a consideration of writing as an essential skill in the language learning process by raising learners' attention to the fact that the organisational patterns used in any language are cultural bound.

Kaplan's hypothesis has generated many scholars' interest in this new line of enquiry. Thus, while some of them (e.g., Ostler, 1987a ; Walker, 2007) hastened to provide further support to this key hypothesis and contribute new research support to it, others (e.g., Kubota 2004; Saville-Troike & Johnson, 1994; Spack 1997) were quick to reject it as a biased, value-laden and ethnocentric theoretical hypothesis. The latter group especially rejected Kaplan's hypothesis for being severely lacking in scientific rigor and still in need of more empirical research evidence (which is the purpose of the current research paper) before it can be accepted as a valid theory of ESL writing and composition that may account for the rhetorical variations in ESL students writers' in the target language.

Theoretical Foundations of Contrastive Rhetoric

According to Grabe & Kaplan (1996), intercultural rhetoric has its origins in the notions of language at the discoursal and inter-sentential levels. Its goal is "to describe ways in which written texts operate in larger cultural contexts" by seeking a better "understanding of ways in which written language operates and the way in which written language diverges from spoken languages (p79). Contrastive rhetoric is especially said to be deeply rooted in the two main beliefs that "each language or culture has rhetorical conventions that are unique to it and that the rhetorical conventions of the students' L1 interfere with their ESL writing" (Kubota & Lehner 2004, p 8). This amounts to saying that the ultimate goal of contrastive rhetoric is a better

understanding of the composing process of foreign language learners by "trying to understand what strategies and presuppositions they [ESL students] bring with them, what strategies and presuppositions may co-occur in the target language and what strategies and presuppositions may create tensions with the target language" (Kaplan 1988, p 295).

The key premises of early the contrastive rhetoric are inspired by a number of theories and notions from different disciplines, namely anthropology (linguistic relativity hypothesis), psychology (negative transfer hypothesis) and sociology (Lin 2007), among others. Connor (2008), on the other hand, observed that the idea of contrastive rhetoric for Kaplan has been inspired by four key areas: the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, Contrastive Analysis and Schema Theory besides a pressing need to fill in a pedagogical gap created under the auspices of the audio-lingual method with regards to teaching writing and composition in ESL and EFL contexts (p. 301). The following section attempts to provide a brief account of what and how each notion contributed to the development of the contrastive rhetoric into a full-fledged area of research in L2 writing and composition.

Contrastive Rhetoric and the Theory of Linguistic Relativity:

The theory of linguistic relativity, also known as the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, has been described as the cornerstone of the contrastive rhetoric theory. According to Connor 1996, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity and contrastive rhetoric are related mainly because the former is based on the idea that "different languages affect perception and thought processes in different ways" (p.10). The anthropologist Sapir (1929) wrote "its [one's language] forms predetermine for us certain modes of observation and interpretation (p. 10). Later on, his students Whorf (1956) elaborated on the above ideas of Sapir claiming that "the forms of a person's thought are controlled by inexorable laws of patterns of which he is unconscious. These patterns are unperceived intricate systematization of his own language". Meaning that one's L1 affects not only one's "personality [and the way s/he] communicates... [But also the way he or she] analyses nature notices or neglects types of relationship and phenomena, channels his reasoning, and builds the house of his consciousness. (p. 189)

Similarly, Gumperz & Levinson (1996) report that the Whorfian hypothesis is deeply rooted in the assumption that "language, thought and culture are deeply interlocked and that each language might be claimed to have associated with it a distinctive world view" (p. 2). This implies that the way people see the world is contingent on the type of language they have been exposed to and subsequently acquired. One's L1 shapes what they see and how they see it, both of which eventually affect how they would express it in the written medium be it in their first or second language. Talking about ESL and EFL writing, it is assumed that one's native language influences to a great extent one's thought processes, which as a result leads to a hindrance of fluent second language acquisition (Connor 1996).

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is classified in two versions. A 'week version' also referred to as "Linguistic Relativity" is based on the idea that the specific concepts related to a speakers' first language do influence their thought processes and world perception (Jourdan & Tuite, 2006). The basic assumption underlying this version is that cognitive processes are influenced by one's first language; hence the reason why speakers of different languages are bound to

think/reason differently and use discrepant thought processes when developing their arguments (Kaplan 1966).

Contrastively, the strong version of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, also known as "Linguistic Determinism", posits that language controls perception, thought processes and cognitive structures of its speakers. This implies that the way one's language is organized will determine the way they would tend to perceive the world around them. Therefore, learning a new language implies that a person's way of thinking will undergo some changes under the influence of the new language (Yule, 1996). This is why Kaplan (1966) reasons sarcastically that "if Aristotle had been Mexican, his logic would have been different, and perhaps, by the same token, the whole of our philosophy (referring to western philosophy) and our science would have been different" (p. 12).

Grabe & Kaplan (1987) admit that "contrastive rhetoric frankly derives some but not all of its orientations from the week version of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis" (p. 197), the main contention of which has been that language influences- and not determines-one's perception, conception and thought of reality. Hence, the way we think and the way we conceive of the outside world is to a large degree a by-product of our cultural thought patterns and the first language we happened to have acquired.

Contrastive Analysis and/or the Negative Language Transfer Hypothesis

The negative language transfer hypothesis is yet another crucially significant and prevailing notion upon which the idea of contrastive rhetoric is based. Kaplan (1988) postulates that "contrastive rhetoric has been concerned with such questions as …what learners bring with them from their own cultures and how what they bring interacts with what they encounter when they undertake to compose in English." (p. 294). This obviously evokes the idea of negative transfer. Kaplan phrases this notion as early as (1966) observing that "Instructors have written on foreign students' papers such comments as 'the material is all here but it seems out of focus' or 'lacks organization' or 'lacks coherence'. He explicitly shares those comments describing them as "essentially accurate [because] ...the foreign students employ [their L1] rhetoric and a sequence of thought which violates the expectations of the native speakers" when composing in English as a foreign or a second language (p. 12).

Put more precisely, the contrastive analysis theory, originally developed by Fries (1945) and Lado (1957), postulates that the syntactic errors in a second or foreign language context often results from a negative transfer from the students' first language. Fries (1945) claims that the linguistic structures of the first language do oftentimes affect the process of learning how to write in a second language. Interestingly enough, not unlike the Sapir Whorf hypothesis, the theory of contrastive analysis has a strong version and a week version. The strong version is deeply rooted in the belief to possibly predict all the difficulties L2 learners might face through knowledge of the differences between their native language and the target language (Connor 1996). The week version by Wardhaugh (1970), however, was less deterministic in that it assumes that contrastive analysis can merely be deployed for its explanatory power to account for the potential difficulties second language learners might face while still coming to terms with the intricacies of writing and composition in the new linguistic system of the target language.

Based on both notions above by Fries (1945) and Lado (1957), Kaplan (1966) drew attention to the fact that the very same undesirable transfer or language interference that is assumed to take place at the syntactical/grammatical levels also occurs at the level of rhetorical and organizational patterns. Kaplan thus advocates that, in their attempts to compose in a foreign or second language, student-writers tend to mistakenly assume that macro structures as well as preferred rhetorical patterns from their L1 are directly transferrable to the new context of the second language they are trying to learn. Through this reasoning, the notion of 'negative transfer' was extended to incorporate the macro-structural or rhetorical levels of students' composition. For Kaplan, each culture/language tends to develop its own specific and generally agreed upon rhetorical logic that governs how writers organize their expository prose when composing in their native language. He states that "each language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself" (Kaplan 1966, p 14) and that the pattern of the English language is predominantly linear, deductive and direct.

Thus, inspired by the premises underlying the notions of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis as well as the notions of Contrastive Analysis/L1 interference, both of which were prevalent in the early 1960s, Kaplan highlights the fact that L1 cultural and linguistic backgrounds do affect writing processes and written products of ESL student-writers at the rhetorical and macro-structural levels. That is to say, one's first language is bound, if not to shape, at least affect to some extent the logic and rhetorical choices they tend to make when composing in a language other than their first on. As a matter of fact, there seems to be an overlap between the previous definition of the Whorfian hypothesis and Kaplan's definition of contrastive rhetoric when the latter writes that:

> Rhetoric concerns itself basically with what goes on in the mind rather than with what comes out of the mouth…what we notice in the environment and how we notice it are both predetermined to a significant degree by how we are prepared [by virtue of the L1 acquisition and cultural experience] to notice this particular type of object" (Kaplan 1966, p 16)

Similarly, Connor (2008) phrased the same notion arguing that "if the English rhetorical style differed from the rhetorical style of the learners' native language, then there would be a potential learning problem" (p. 301). This finally suggests that the key premise of the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis is that any "rhetorical difference" between the students' L1 and the target language would in all likelihood translate into a "composing difficulty" for L2 students resulting in rhetorical mismatches between their final written products and the expectations of L2 native readers.

Contrastive Rhetoric Hypothesis and Schema Theory

The contrastive rhetoric hypothesis is closely related to schema theory in more ways than one. The latter originates from research in cognitive science and is defined as an "approach to information processing." It is based on the belief that "processing a text is an interactive process between the text and prior background knowledge or memory schemata of the listener or readers [as well as writers]" (Carrell 1984a: 482). The relevance of schema theory to contrastive rhetoric is made all the more explicit in what Carrell referred to as 'formal schemata' to describe

background knowledge of rhetorical structures that rule the reading text and composition processes in the target language.

Research in schema theory has made it unambiguously clear that readers and writers need to accumulate background information that may provide an appropriate framework within which to read or write. Reid (1988) claims in this respect that "novice writers need familiarity and practice with the common rhetorical strategies so that they can make intelligent choices as they select a form for their 'discovered' ideas" (p. 150). This implies that novice writers sometimes find it difficult to write mainly because they lack relevant rhetorical schemata or what Flower and Hayes (1980) refers to as " the stored plans for creating such format"(p. 29).

The strong kinship between the notion of schema theory and contrastive rhetoric resides all the more in ESL student writers' need all along their learning process to study rhetorical approaches and to imitate or practise models of what is considered as a good piece of writing from a rhetorical point of view. It is, therefore, part and parcel of textbook writers' job and the composition teacher task to foster the rhetorical schemata that correspond to those used by writers of the TL both receptively (in a reading class) and productively (in a composition class). Carrell (1984b) recommends that "inexperienced and unskilled ESL writers who have not been exposed to rhetorical analysis of American academic prose need to develop their understanding of the forms of academic prose." (p. 156)

Also, looked at from a schema theoretical point of view, it seems especially that the kind of help that ESL/EFL students need to successfully accomplish the various writing assignments in the target language is to equip them with appropriate frameworks/ formats that would facilitate their constant endeavour to fulfil what Shaughnessy (1977) refers to as "the expectations and needs of the academic or professional audience" (p. 240). According to Reid (1984), when the schemata of the writing task in the TL happen to be manageable, two goals can be achieved. First, "the students' papers (essays, technical reports, doctoral dissertations etc.) written in the forms anticipated by the professional reader will be more easily accepted and understood". Second and more importantly, "a student who feels more comfortable about being able to manage the form will be more able to concentrate on the content of the writing assignment" (p. 156).

Accordingly, it seems that just like cultural and domain specific schemata, formal/ rhetorical schemata, do equally play a vital role in the process of meaning construction (reading comprehension) as well as in the process of meaning production and construction (writing process). This amounts to saying that ESL student-writers equipped with the relevant schemata - be they content, cultural, domain specific and/or above all rhetorical and formal- are more prone to compose texts that are not only ideationally appropriate but rhetorically sensitive to the native audience's expectations. This also amounts to saying that ESL writers who are poorly or partially equipped with appropriate organisational patterns in the target language will suffer from deficiencies in their composing process and, as a result, may end up deploying less effective rhetorical patterns that mismatch with those of L1 writers when evaluated from a native speakers vantage point .

Generally speaking then, it appears that the students' effort to learn how to write rhetorically appropriate texts entails, among other things, exposing them to such rhetorical schemata in the first place. ESL students cannot legitimately be expected to write rhetorically appropriate essays when composing in the target language unless they are equipped with the relevant conventions underlying the writing genre/task at hand. Therefore it would be fair to expect them to write in ways that match the expectations of English native readers only after they are "cognitively and schematically ready" (Reid 1984) or well prepared and adequately trained to write in a linear way where English is concerned.

Yet it is only fair to point out that while Kaplan (1966) attributed ESL student writing problems exclusively to rhetorical interference from their native culture and language, there are others who claim that these problems could as well be attributable to instruction and literacy development which oftentimes fails to equip students with the appropriate rhetorical schemata. Zamel (1992), for example, suggests that a student's inability to write appropriately and with a certain degree of ease in the target language may be a natural result of their prior instruction and literacy practices. She theorized that some students' creativity is at times inhibited by their teachers' previous instruction when forcing them for instance to plan before they start writing. Reid, on the other hand, claimed that "developmentally," if a student fails to compose appropriately in the target language it is because "she...has not yet achieved a level of writing skill that allows her to feel comfortable about composing. She has no appropriate schemata, no framework within which to write" probably because she is still at "the first stage of the student's apprenticeship" (Reid 1988)

Because linearity, according to Kaplan 1966, is one of the major rhetorical patterns that typically characterizes the process of writing in English, the following section will be devoted to a discussion that goes into details about the premises underlying this notion.

Linearity in Language: a Rhetorical Discursive Preference in English Rhetoric

Linearity in English is one of the fundamental concepts underlying Kaplan's theory of contrastive rhetoric. He described English as " predominantly linear" as opposed to "the digressive " or non-straightforward structures which characterize what he categorizes as 'Romance', 'Semitic' and 'Oriental' language groups (1966, p. 16). Kaplan draws attention to the fact that

> **T**he thought patterns which speakers and readers of English appear to expect as an integral part of their communication is a sequence that is *predominantly linear* in its development...the paragraph in English, while it is discursive, ...is never digressive. (*Italics added* Kaplan 1966, p 14).

Although so much criticism was levelled at his description of other languages as non-linear, Kaplan reiterated the same point of view as late as 2001 insisting that "English is more linear than other languages." The expectation of any native speaker when reading in English is to feel, in Kaplan's words, that "there is nothing in this paragraph that does not belong here, nothing that does not contribute significantly to the central idea. In fact "The flow of ideas [tends to] occur in a straight line from the opening sentence to the last sentence" (p14p) in a paragraph.

Anything not related to the central idea would strike L1 readers as redundant and irrelevant; a fact which would eventually affects negatively the quality of their written discourse.

Thus, Kaplan insists that learning how to compose in another language, especially with regards to academic and advanced composition classes, involves raising both students' and teachers' awareness to the fact that "Rhetoric, the method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns is as much a culturally coded phenomenon as the syntactic units themselves are" Kaplan (1967, p. 11)

However, the rhetorical labels he used to describe other languages were severely criticised as 'ethnocentric', 'ill-defined' and above all 'intuitive'. They were especially regarded as inacceptable because they were lacking in empirical support and portraying stereotyped reality (Enkvist, 1977). Kubota (1997) criticised the tendency to draw stereotypical overgeneralisations about rhetorical styles in different cultures based on a few "non-representative samples" that often end up in "biased values judgements that favour the patterns of the target language at the expense of the subjects' native language" (Kubota 1998b). She argues that needless dichotomies generate "fixed apolitical and essentialsed representations" (p 9) that etherize the native culture, language and rhetoric of ESL students in favour of a superior native English 'Self' reflecting unbalanced power structures between the biased self and exoticized non-native 'Other'.

This criticism led Kaplan to subsequently reconsider his categorisation of the rhetorical patterns that characterise different language families. In his subsequent article that he entitled "Cultural Thoughts Patterns Revisited", Kaplan (1986) "admit[s] having made the case too strong. [He] regrets having done so; though in no way regret having made the case". He substituted his initial assumption that English is a predominantly linear language by a new recognition that "each language has its certain preferences so that while all forms are possible [in all languages] all forms do not occur with equal frequency or in parallel distribution" (p. 10)

Kaplan seems to no longer hold the view that the linear logic reflects a special way of thinking but as being the result of preferences for given writing conventions, which are "learnable" and, by implication, teachable across languages and cultures (2000, p. 84). He seems thus to tone down his original statements regarding his claimed rhetorical differences between language families, without totally rejecting them in that he reiterated his fundamental assumptions that a) languages present 'gaps' not just at the lexical or structural levels but at the rhetorical level as well; b) every speaker –and or writer perceives these differences when comparing his or her language with other linguistic systems; c) there is a tendency to unconsciously transfer to the second language the resources and rhetorical devices of the first language and finally d) there are languages whose rhetorical patterns are more linear than those of other languages. While avoiding any explicit reference to English or any other specific language, Kaplan also acknowledges that "every speaker perceives his/her language as linear and all others as non- linear" (Kaplan 2000, p. 84)

New Developments in the Field of Contrastive Rhetoric

Most new developments in the field of Contrastive Rhetoric were initiated by Connor (1996). She took Kaplan's defence by describing the criticism levelled at the early assumptions of the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis as illegitimate and unjustifiable, stating that "these

critics…refer to contrastive rhetoric as if it had been frozen in space." She objected that "understood by many as Kaplan's original work (1966), contrastive rhetoric is often characterized as a static field of research that is linked to contrastive analysis itself deeply rooted in structural linguistics and behaviourism." Her outstanding monograph on contrastive rhetoric in 1996 marked a turning point in intercultural rhetoric research and reflected four new directions along which this field has developed: a) The acknowledgement of more and new genres with specific textual requirements; b) consideration of social and situational variables within the context of writing; c) developments of new and more rigorous research methodologies; and finally d) a suggestion to change the name CR into intercultural rhetoric (Connor 1996).

To start with, unlike Kaplan's early contrastive studies which focused exclusively on expository essays by students from various cultural backgrounds, Connor (2008) reviewed a number of related studies conducted in the field of CR and concluded that new genres besides the students' essays are considered. Connor 1996 observed that research articles, research reports and grant proposals and other "writing for professional purposes like business letters [are] now considered a legitimate type of second language writing worthy of research and teaching "(p. 3)

Second, together with consideration of new writing genres, CR has recently moved its emphasis to incorporate such social, situational and contextual variables that come to play only to shape to a large degree the writing product ensuing from any writing endeavour like audience, genre, purpose and message. Writing therefore is no longer regarded as a de-contextualized undertaking with no special consideration of authorship, audience, genre and purpose of the writing in general. In this regard, Bazerman and Prior (2004) highlighted three questions to guide the analysis of writing, namely "What does the text talk about? How does text influence audience? How do texts come into being?" (in Connor 2008: 4.)

In addition to consideration of context, text type, genre and audience's expectations, Connor (2004) draws attention to the paradigm shift in terms of the methodologies deployed recently in CR research. She observed that textual linguistics analyses are currently using rigorous and sophisticated corpus linguistics in terms of design, data collections and data analysis. Current research in CR avails itself of the concept of *Tertium Comparationis i.e.* comparable corpora as requisite for drawing valid and reliable research finding in intercultural studies. The notion of *Tertium Comparationis* describes a common platform of comparison among sets of corpora elicited from writers from various backgrounds when trying to trace the origin of any rhetorical variations, if any, in their writings as claimed in Kaplan's "doodles article."(1966)

In the same vein, in 2002 Connor's reaction to the various criticism levelled against CR - this is especially so where post-colonial and post-modern writers are concerned- gave birth to a new appellation for the field. She drew attention to the need for a new term which "better encompasses the essence of CR in its current state" (p. 4). Thus with the view to making the difference between the often quoted 'static' model and the new improvements that have been realized all along the development of CR, Connor (2008) concluded that "it may be useful to begin using the term intercultural rhetoric to describe the newly and present dynamic models of cross cultural research" (p. 306) and thus avoid the unequal status of power that the term 'contrastive' seems to assign to different types of rhetoric when compared to that of English.

What all the above amounts to is that CR is an increasingly dynamic and exploratory area of research. It is a constantly changing field whose comprehensive theory is still in the making. It is still trying to incorporate new genres and widen its perspective by trying to incorporate considerations of discrepant writing variables that come to play in various writing situations. It especially attempts to adopt rigorous methodologies by attending to the notion of comparability among the corpora of texts not only at the linguistic and genre levels but in terms of purpose and audience expectations as well.

To be fair to Kaplan though, it is not without relevance to mention that Kaplan himself addressed some of the above criticism supporting thus the new trends contrastive rhetoric has known. It did not escape Kaplan in his seminal article to point out his value-free or non-biased point of view when he said "this discussion is not intended to offer any criticism of other paragraph development, rather, it is intended only to demonstrate that paragraph development other than those normally regarded as desirable in English do exist" (1966, p. 20). He later admitted that all the cultural patterns he identified in his legendary article of 1966 do exist in all languages though with different degrees of frequency. In his own words:

> In fact, it is now my opinion that all of the various rhetorical modes identified in the "doodles article' are possible in any language…the issue is that each language has certain clear preferences, so that while all forms are possible, all forms do not occur with equal frequency or in parallel distribution (1987, p. 10)

That said, it is not without relevance to point out that the present researchers are currently conducting a study in line with the new trends in contrastive rhetoric research. A research that begins with building comparable corpora collected under similar situational and contextual factors like genre, time constraint, audience expectations, subject matter, the level of writers' expertise and /or prior instruction etc. as advocated by Connor and Moreno (2005, p. 85)

Implications of Contrastive Rhetoric to Second/Foreign Language Writing

EFL and ESL writing instructors have obviously drawn significant implications from contrastive rhetoric studies ever since Kaplan's pioneering article was first published (Connor 2004). Atkinson (2000) states that "The contrastive rhetoric hypothesis has perhaps its greatest allure for those non-native English speaking contexts abroad forced as they are to look EFL writing in the eye to try to understand why it at least sometimes looks "different" often subtly out of sync with what one might expect from a native perspective" (p. 319). Contrastive rhetoric is especially relevant to second/foreign language teaching and learning of writing and composition at advanced levels of language proficiency, as "advanced EFL writers who have mastered grammar of the target language would produce pieces of writing that have a persistently "un-English" taste of peculiar strangeness." (Koch 1981, p. 2) It is especially believed that (1) implications derived from valid research on rhetorical schemata of various languages will surely lead to better ESL writing instructional practices for teachers; (2) similarly, when ESL students are better instructed to meet the expectations of L1 readers in their writing classes, they would surely be in a better position to make informed rhetorical choices when composing in the TL.

Enkvist (1997, p. 204) underlies yet another advantageous contribution of contrastive rhetoric to second language writing describing it as a field that "promises meaningful practical applications at best improving intercultural communication and understanding." This, however, is likely to be achieved only when, as Ostler (1987a) pointed out "ESL teachers first appreciate the differences in Rhetoric in different cultures and learn to teach these distinctions as an aid to improving both the reading and writing skills of their students" (p. 169). Similarly, Reid (1993) sums up the implications and applications of contrastive rhetoric to ESL instruction observing that its central focus is awareness rising. This awareness, however, must result from valid "investigation of the different ways writers, from different backgrounds, organize and present written material that reflects preferences of each particular culture" (p.170). It is also this very same awareness that would discourage L2 writers from resorting to rhetorical patterns from their L1 when writing in the target language.

Conclusion

Put in a nut shell, this paper has attempted to trace the main assumptions and news developments of the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis while highlighting the various research flaws underlying early studies conducted in the line of Kaplan's original article of 1966. These research inadequacies/flaws of the early contrastive rhetoric hypothesis, however, have been observed in other subsequent studies seeking to investigate the validity of its key premises. The contrastive rhetoric hypothesis is, therefore, in dire need of more empirical research evidence by incorporating discrepant languages/cultural backgrounds and writing genres to contribute to the existing body of literature about L2 writing and composition. This paper is hoped to be another step in this direction in that it is part of a PhD research project that aims at investigating rhetorical differences in persuasive essays by Moroccan EFL students (Arabic L1) and English native speakers writing in English. This project is intended to test the applicability of contrastive rhetoric hypothesis to the Moroccan context where English is taught as a foreign language, hoping that its findings would contribute significantly to a better understanding of the interaction between L1 and L2 conventions in the L2 writing process, and hence to an eventual development of a more comprehensive theory of the contrastive rhetoric.

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Investigating Views of Omani Students' Majoring in English on Their Undergraduate Translation Course

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Abstract

This paper presents the results and findings of a study carried out in a public college in Oman. The overarching aim of the study is to explore the views of Omani students majoring in English about their undergraduate translation course in terms of content, methods of delivery, modes of assessment, challenges, and what could be done to improve the course in question. The study is significant due to the fact that the results would potentially help translation teachers and practitioners to improve the content, delivery and assessment of their undergraduate translation courses. Additionally, there was a lack of information about students' views on their undergraduate translation courses in this particular context. A questionnaire with open-ended questions was administered to 44 Omani students majoring in English and who were at their final semester of their B. Ed programme. The quantitative data was analyzed using frequencies, percentages and thematic analysis was utilized for the open-ended questions. The results showed that students have mixed opinions and views about the course but the vast majority believed that the course content, objectives, teaching methodology and modes of assessment need to be reviewed and aligned with other courses. As a result, key findings, conclusions, recommendations, and pedagogical implications were presented. It is hoped that the findings will be of a great value to undergraduate translation teachers in this particular college.

Key words: majoring in English, Omani undergraduate students, public college, translation course, views

Introduction

Translation in general is a phenomenon that has a huge effect on people everyday life **(**Hatim & Monday, 2004; Newmark, 1991).Translation teaching has become common in English language and literature undergraduate degrees because it plays an important role in the development of communicative abilities of English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL) learners (Omar & Mohmmed, 2014). Translation fosters discussion and speculation and it helps in developing translator's' communicative competence and negotiation and interpretation skills. However, there are some many challenges encounter translation teachers in terms of course content, delivery and assessment. Gile (2009) states that translation teaching should always be centered on the translation process, rather than on the analysis of translation errors which are made by students. Analyzing translation teaching methods and strategies, methods of delivery and assessment approaches from students' perspectives may help in improving translation pedagogy (Clavijo & Marin, 2013). It is essential that translation courses in universities be academic rather than professional as the purpose is to improve students' language skills (Colina, 2002). Translation teachers' job is to teach English language, and translation craft as per Newmark's (1988 a) description to it as "a craft consisting of the attempt to replace a written message and/ or statement in the language by the same message and/ or statement in another language" (p.7). Therefore, the present study is conducted in a public college in Oman on students majoring in English language and literature for the purpose of investigating students' views about their e translation course to better understand their views about the content of the course, methods of delivery and modes assessment for the purpose of improving the provision of the course by using current trends of teaching translation.

Institutional Context of the Study

This study is conducted at the Department of English Language and Literature in one of the Colleges of Applied Sciences, Oman. There are six colleges of applied sciences which are distributed across Oman. There is only one college which offers B.Ed in English language and literature. The college mission is to provide high quality programmes that meet national and regional employment needs, prepare students for postgraduate studies and lifelong learning, equip them with knowledge and skills necessary to excel as future professionals, and contributes to Oman's economy and society (http://rustaq.cas.edu.om). The department of English Language and Literature at the college in question offers three main streams namely: the B.Ed English, the English for specific purposes (ESP) and the English for academic purposes (EAP) and General Foundation programme. The foundation programmes is streamed into four levels (A, B, C and D) in the light of their performance the newly admitted students will be placed. The ESP/ EAP programmes are divided into two levels and it is offered to the International Business Administration (IBA) and the information technology (IT) students. The B.Ed programme is a four year 132 credit hour programme designed to produce graduates who are competent in their English major and who are ready to be involved in teaching in Omani schools and educational industry. The B.Ed programme has different courses in language –related courses, English language teaching (ELT), applied linguistics, theoretical linguistics, education and translation. Therefore, the present study attempts to look into the views of Omani students who are majoring in English about their present translation course in terms of course content, methods of delivery and assessment to better improve the provision of the course in the future.

An Overview of the Translation Course

EFL college students require translation skills in both their daily lives and in their future workplaces. Moreover, translation facilitates the learning of the English language. During the process of translating text from Arabic into English, students accumulate knowledge about the application of vocabulary and syntax to practical uses (Pan & Pan, n.d.). The translation course is an obligatory course which is a three credit hour offered in the fourth year of the he B.Ed degree. The course introduces students into translation between English and Arabic as an internlingual process. The course is meant to develop students' awareness of problem arising in the process of translation and ways of handling them. By the end of the course students are expected to: demonstrate as sense of linguistic awareness through contrastivity, translate a variety of texts (informative, argumentative, expressive texts, etc. and to discover and handle basic translation problems. Students are introduced to different types of translations between English and Arabic and English such as cultural, literary, scientific, legal, general, etc. The mode of teaching is classroom discussions and in-class practices. The course is assessed through midterm which is weight 30% of total marks of the whole course, projects which weight 10%, classroom participation and in-class tasks which weight 10% and the final exam which is 50% (Source: General Translation-ENSP 3116-Course Outlines). Thus, there is a wide consensus among teachers and students of translation that translation course needs to be reviewed and improved because translation is considered to be an important course for students majoring in English as meeting their needs both real life and the future workplace. Another reason to incorporate translation into the EFL classroom is that a significant number of researchers (e.g. Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Hsien, 2000; Husain, 1995; Jones, 1995; Marti Viano & Orquin, 1982; Prince, 1996; as cited in Pan & Pan n.d, p. 3) have considered the positive potential of using translation in language learning.. Therefore, the study tries to investigate students' views about this particular course to help in improving its content, delivery and assessment methods used.

Theoretical Background of the Study

Involving students in evaluating their translation course is of a paramount importance and significance for future reform and improvement because teaching and assessing translation courses is not as easy task. Arbitrary approaches to teaching translation cannot serve as reliable and sound so a systematic approach should be utilized to achieve the course goals and learning outcomes (Amer,n.d). Teaching translation for academic purposes means training students for mastering the linguistic and communicative competence in translation (Amer, n.d). Translation helps students to see the link between language usage and language use. It also, encourages students to see the similarities and differences between first language (L1) and second language (L2) (Omar & Mohammed, 2014, p. 67-68). Researchers classified translation competences into three major domains: First, knowledge which is important for student to have such as sufficient knowledge of both the source and the target language, in-depth understanding to their cultural norms and to know more about translation theory and to know more about how to practice each translation skill. Second, skills domain which is equally important to the knowledge domain for students and it includes skills such as reading and writing skills and have good understanding to translation strategies and techniques. Finally, attitudes and ethics domain: This includes the ability of the student to convey the meaning faithfully, accurately and impartially and to show positive attitude towards translation. Thus, undergraduate translation courses should equip students with all these skills in order to help them developing their communicative competence

(Habeeb, et. al 2016). In order to improve the course content, delivery and assessment, both teachers and students need to be involved for future improvements. The course objectives, content, and present teaching methodology need to be reviewed to achieve realistic learning outcomes. Translation students are expected by the end of the course to use translation techniques such as calque, borrowing, literal translation, transposition, modulation, functional equivalence and adaption effectively. Moreover, teachers are also expected to consider Nida's suggested criteria for assessing translation comprehension of the intent, communication of the intent and equivalence of response. Assessing and delivering translation course should be informed by translation theories.

Objectives of the Study

According to the researcher's experience in teaching linguistics and language-related course suggested that there has been research was carried out to investigate students' views about their translation course in this particular college. Therefore, this study will inform the provision of the translation courses and helps in achieving the following objectives: to investigate Omani students' majoring in English language and literature perceptions and views about their undergraduate courses; to identify the challenges that encountered when studying this particular course; and to propose some possible strategies which could be used to improve the content, delivery and assessment of this course in particular.

Research Questions

1. How is an undergraduate translation course perceived by Omani students majoring in English language and literature?
2. What type of challenges do they encounter in this course?
3. What could be done to improve the content, delivery, and assessment of this undergraduate translation course?

Methods

This study utilized quantitative methodology. A survey with four major parts was used to collect data from the fourth year students majoring in English language and literature. The survey contains four parts: part one undertakes students' views about the course content. Part two is centered on students' views about the methods of delivery used in this particular course. Part three deals with students' views about modes of assessment used. Finally, part four handles the open-ended questions which intend to generate free responses from students with regard to their opinions about the course, challenges encountered and what could be done to improve this particular course. The number of the participants is 44 out 55 students. All of them are Omani and they have been studying English as a major for four years. The questionnaire was administered to them during their normal classes and all their queries were addressed and all ambiguities and wording related to the questionnaire were clarified and corrected. The purpose of the study was explained to the participants and their questions were answered. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, charts and frequencies and percentages.

Data Analysis and Discussion

This section undertakes data analysis and discussion of findings. Charts were used to present the data and to answer the study first question which related to students' views about

their undergraduate translation course in terms of content, methods of delivery and modes of assessment.

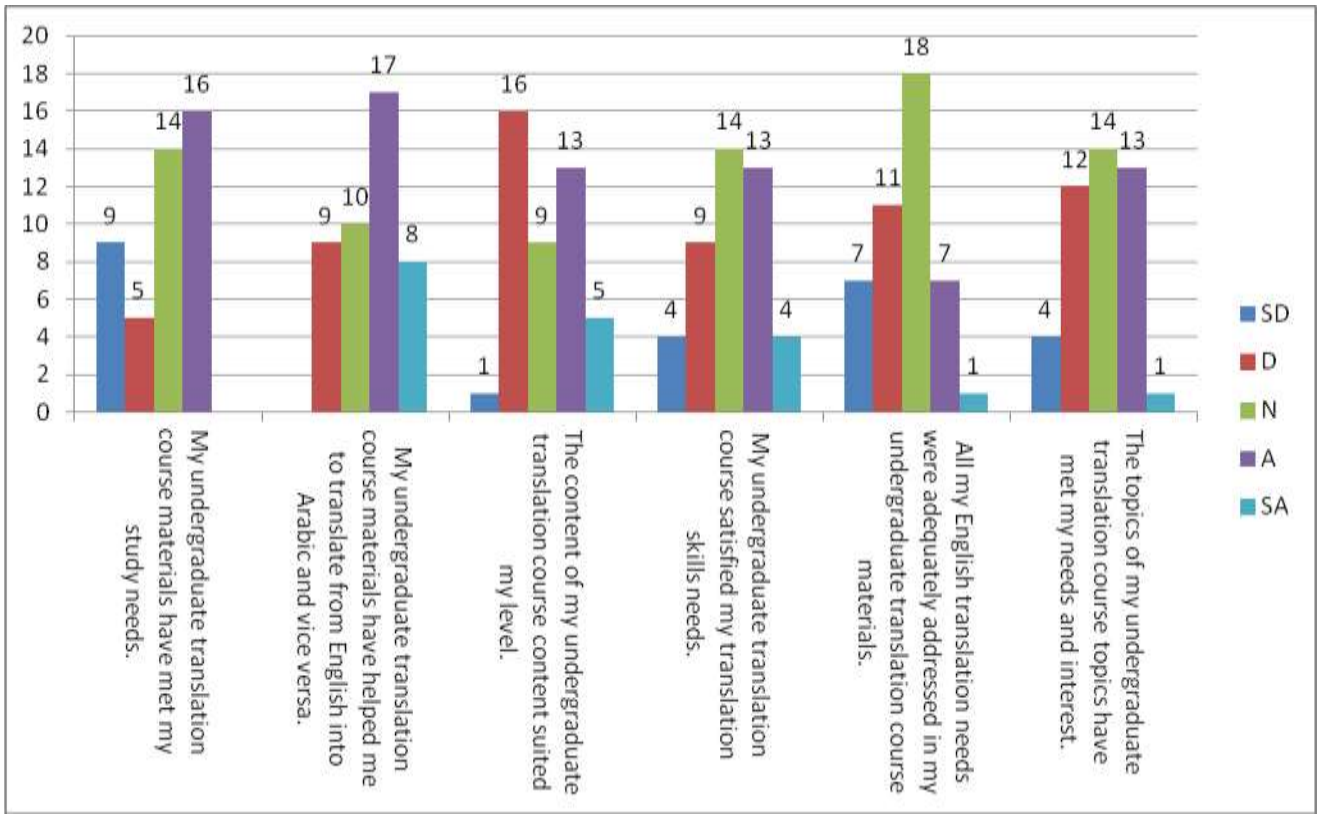

Figure 1 **Students' Views about the Content of the Course**

Figure 1 shows the students' views about their current undergraduate course. As for item one, 16 students reported that the course materials have met their study needs. 14 students responded by neutral and 14 disagreed with statement. As for question two, whether the their undergraduate translation course materials have helped them to translate from English into Arabic and vice versa or not, 25 students agreed that the course materials have helped them to translate from English into Arabic and vice versa, and 10 students responded by neutral and nine disagreed with the statement. So it is quite obvious that the majority of the students believed that the course have helped them to translate between English and Arabic. Item three, whether the content of the course suited their level or not, 17 respondents disagreed with the statement, nine responded by "neutral" and 18 students agreed with statement. In response to item four whether the translation course satisfied their translation skills needs or not, 13 students disagreed, 14 remained "neutral", and 17 students agreed with the statement. As for item whether all their English translation needs were adequately addressed in their translation course materials or not, 18 students disagreed, whereas 18 responded by "neutral" and only eight agreed. It is quite evident that a considerable number of the students believed that their English translation needs were not adequately addressed in their translation course materials. As for the final question six, whether the topics of their translation course have met their needs and interests, 16 believed that they did not meet their needs and interests, 14 students reported by "neutral", and 14 agreed with the statement.

Have a closer look to students' open responses about the course, there are mixed opinions and views about the course and here are some of the examples:

A student reported: *In my opinion, translation course needs to be more clear and give them more time in the semester because 3 hours are not enough to learn translation course."*

Another student said: *"I think the content of the course is not enough, and the methods are not clear. Moreover, the assessment is not valid".*

Yet, a student reported: *"It was really good but I think it should be enough courses for translating from Arabic into English or vice versa".*

A student replied: *"I think this course is very important but they need to create other course to help ss to develop their skills, also the way of assessing ss because it is not helpful for ss".*

Furthermore, a student said: *"content needed to be varied. The content needs to be divided into two courses. Assessment needs to be changed (more homework or other activities".*

In the light of the above mentioned response it is quite obvious that students have diverse views and opinions about their undergraduate course content in terms of its suitability and adequacy. Some of the study believed that the course content should be divided into two semesters as the number of credit hours allocated for the course is not enough to teach students all the necessary and essential skills in translation. Having two courses would help students to benefit from the course in a better way. As for students' needs, some of the students believed that their needs were not adequately addressed by the course content. Therefore, it could be argued that the translation course should be needs-responsive and students' needs should be analyzed before choosing the content. Because translation is not as easy task and it need linguistic and nonlinguistic skills. The researcher believes that students who are majoring in English should be introduced to different types of translation because that will foster their linguistic competences and help them to join translation profession and industry.

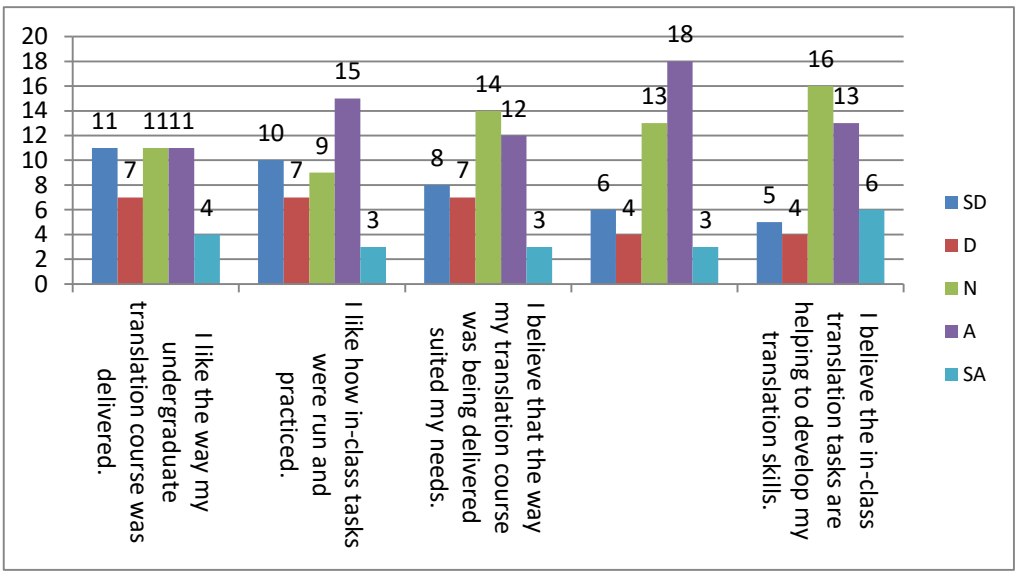

Figure 2 **Students' Views about the Methods Used in Delivering the Course**

Figure 2 illustrates students' view about the methods of teaching used to deliver their undergraduate translation course. In response item one, whether students liked the way their undergraduate translation course was delivered or not, 18 students responded by "disagree", 11

reported by "neutral' 'whereas, 15 "agreed". It is quite clear that a considerable number of the students were not happy with the way the course is delivered. As for item two which intended to elicit students' views about whether they liked their in-class translation tasks, 17 students "disagreed" with the statement, nine said "neutral" and 18 students responded by "agreed". This shows that a substantial number of the students they liked the translation in-class tasks and activities and some they did not like them. In response to item three, whether the way their translation course being delivered suited their needs, 15 students responded by "disagreed", 14 reported as "neutral", and 15 "agreed" that the way of delivery suited their needs. As for item four, 10 students believed that the way their current translation course was being delivered offered them opportunities to practice translation, 13 students responded by "neutral" and 21 "agreed" that the course offered them opportunities to practice translation. It is quite evident than the course was a golden opportunity for students to practice translation because it is the only translation course that offered in their degree. Finally item five, nine students "disagreed" with the statement that whether the in-class translation tasks were helping them to develop their translation skills, 16 remained "neutral", and 19 students "agreed" that the in-class task have helped them to develop their translation skills. So it could be argue that a considerable number of the students were satisfied with the methods of delivery and in-class activities but they need to be improved. In this regard a student replied: " I think this course helped me to understand these kinds of terms, to be better and helpful".

Moreover, another student reported: " it needs more improving includes more types of translation".

Another student said: "Both the content and assessment were suitable, but the only issue was the method that the teacher uses to deliver the topics".

Yet, a student replied: "the content is OK but the methods and assessment need to be changed in a better way".

Yet, a student argued: *"Content need to be changed because it is useless. The methods of delivery are boring ad do not encourage students to learn".*

Again, the methods of delivery need to be revisited to make the translation classes much more interesting to students. Choosing the appropriate translation teaching methodology and activities are significant in the success of the course.

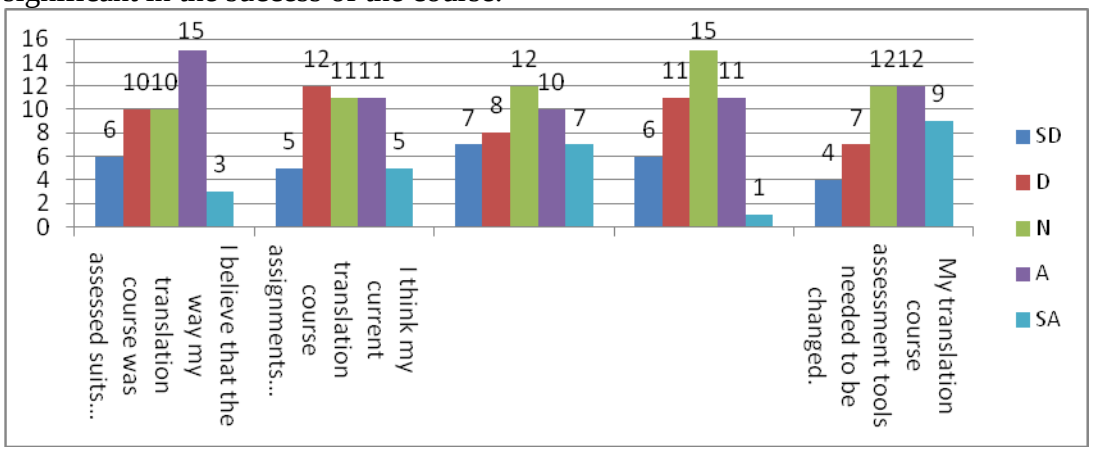

Figure 3 **Students' Views about the Methods Used in Assessing the Course**

Figure 3 undertakes students' views about the modes of assessment used in their undergraduate translation course. As for item one, 16 students believed that the way their translation course was assessed suited them. However, 10 students' replied by "neutral" and 18 "agreed" that the way the course was assessed had suited their needs. In response to item two, whether their current translation course assignments offered them enough opportunities to practice translation or not, 15 students "disagreed", 11 responded by "neutral" and 15 "agreed". It seems there are mixed views and opinions with regard to the benefits of course assignments. As for item three, whether the students liked the way their exam questions were written or not, 15 students "disagreed" with the statement, 12 responded as "neutral", and 17 students "agreed" with the statement and they reported that they liked the way their exam questions were written. Item four handles students' expectations about their translation course, 17 students "disagreed", 15 reported by "neutral" and 12 respondents "disagreed".The majority of the students disagreed maybe it is impossible and impractical to offer all types of translations in one course and one semester. As for the final item five whether the translation course assessment tools needed to be changed or not, 11 students "disagreed", 12 students reported by "neutral" and 21 students "agreed" that the tools of assessment needed to be changed. It is quite clear that a great number of students were in favor of changing the assessment tools in this particular course. In this regard a student said: *"More practice, less theories and content, and more projects and less exams".*

Further, another student responded: *"the content was good but it is better to make some changes to match students' needs. Also, assessment tools didn't suit what students were learning".*

Yet another student replied: *"content, methods of delivery and assessment tools somehow need to be changed".*

To sum up, some of the students appreciated the content of the course, methods of delivery and assessment tools, however, all of them they need to be changed to suit the students' needs and abilities.

What type of challenges do students encounter in this translation course?

To realize the objectives of the study and answer this question, an open-ended question was kept within the questionnaire and students came up with diverse opinions and views.
A student reported that: *"I encountered difficulties with translating idioms and verbs. Actually translation needs time so we didn't have too much time. Also, the number of students in the class was huge".*

Moreover, another student replied:*" I found difficulty with final exam; they should either give shorter text to translate or give students more time".*

Yet, a student said: *"The main challenges are using the suitable words in translation because in English language has a synonym and antonyms ...etc. So this made me confused sometimes".*

Further, another student reported: *"I think the time and type of dictionaries are very important in the exam. So you need to have to answer the questions in the exam. So time wasn't enough for translating".*

Another student argued: *"I think there was no particular way or steps that can students follow to practice translation. "I had difficulty in dealing with some technical words which have scientific meaning".*

A student said: *"In my point of view, I think the most common issues that I faced are: the translation from Arabic to English is sometimes difficult for me especially in aspects of grammar".*

Yet, a student reported: *"How to translate from Arabic to English, how to deal with meaning and how to find appropriate vocabulary".*

Another student replied: *"The final exam was somehow difficult, need more time, and especially the second part which was about translating a paragraph consists of at least 12 lines".*

Yet, a student said: *"lack of knowledge in both languages. The translation of some types of texts like literature, physics, legal and math texts were challenging and difficult".*

Moreover, a student responded: *"The main challenges are to know the exact meaning of the text or context because; sometimes the word carries different meanings according to the situation or the purpose of it".*

Students came up with several challenges and difficulties and they could be summarized into the following categories: First, difficulties and challenges related to the translation of idioms, verbs, technical and scientific vocabulary. Second, challenges related to final exam and time. Some of the students believed that time given for final exam in relation to the give texts are not really enough. Third, choosing and appropriate dictionaries during exam are considered to be a big challenge for them. Forth, translation texts from Arabic into English are reported to be the most salient problem for them. Fifth, dealing with different types of genres such as translating literary, legal, physics or math texts are considered to be a challenge for them. Sixth, they find it difficult to find suitable equivalents when translating texts and this was considered to be a great challenge for them. Seventh, lack of knowledge and skills in both English and Arabic languages. Thus, in order for the undergraduate translation course to be successful, teachers and practitioners needs to look into the challenges encountered by students so as to help them to make use of the course and to the gain intended learning outcomes. The best way for help students to be good translators is practice. The more they practice, the more they benefited from the course.

What could be done to improve the content, delivery, and assessment of this undergraduate translation course?

This question intends to capture students' views about what could be done to improve the provision of the course in terms of course content, methods of delivery and modes of assessment. Students have made many suggestions which could improve the content, methods of delivery and modes of assessment. A student suggested that:

> *"I suggest that students should not be allowed to use dictionaries, they should find out the meaning of the words from the context. For teachers they need to consider their students' level when designing the course. Teachers should apply oral translation. For example, teachers ask students to translate the text immediately. This gives the students a good experience. This kind of translation is used in conferences and international meetings so the students will be professional".*

Yet, another student said: *"Giving sufficient practice and enough time for translating is the best solution. More practice on translation from Arabic into English and having more quizzes and tasks which should be done individually. Moreover, reading a lot may help students to cope and get away from these problems."*

A student replied: *"Teachers should expose learners to the techniques of how to translate from SL to TL. The focus should be more on the techniques of translation rather than the content."*

Moreover, another student suggested that:

> *"In my opinion, I think it is better if we give students to do their activities by themselves without any help from the teacher until they finish. Also, the teacher should ask the students to bring a dictionary during the class; I mean not a mobile phone, so they will have the idea about how to search for some words in dictionary than the phone which is easier. Students should be exposed to more practice and should be given resources to refer to such as websites or some books that might help them."*

Further a student believed that:

> *"Yes, I believe that teacher can provide different topics to the students and ask them to translate as a home work. Last but not least, teacher should first explain different techniques on how to translate certain topics and how to avoid problem with cultural issues. Moreover, practice is the best way to improve the skills of translation. Teachers have to provide students with enough practice or examples.*"

Yet, another student suggested: *"We need more than one course in translation. Only expert teachers must teach this course. It is important to connect this course with other courses to help student more. They need to provide books for this course and double the course."*
A student said: *"The translation course should be made optional if we want to choose or not and the course should be kept in two semesters and more focus should be on the practical side instead of theories".*

terms of its content, methods of delivery and modes of assessment. This reform is to help students to develop their abilities. Translation competence is undeniably central to successful translation teaching and training and translation courses should be successfully constructed in the presence of an adequate understanding of what one need to know in order to translate well and effectively (Mudawi, 2016, p. 215). These competences can only be achieved through well-constructed courses and valid assessment tools.

Summary of Findings, Conclusions, Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

To conclude, the findings indicted that students have mixed responses and opinions about their translation course but many issues raised which merit consideration. A closer look to the study findings and students' suggestions the study puts forward the following recommendations: The vast majority of the students believed that one course in translation is not enough for them so they need to courses instead of one so as to enable them to acquire the translation techniques and skills in a better way. Further, students should be trained on translation techniques such as adaptation, modulation, exposition, literal translation, borrowing, functional equivalence, claque,

etc. They need to be trained on how to approach the text and how to use these techniques purposefully. Translation resources such as books, specialized dictionaries, and websites should be made available for students to use. Besides, students should be allowed to use dictionaries frequently and they should be encouraged to work out meanings of words from the context. Further, the course content, present teaching methodology, assessment criteria, objectives of the course and textbooks used in the course should be reviewed in relation to students' views and needs to achieve realistic learning outcomes. In addition, EFL students should be instructed to go through two phases: comprehension and reformulation. In the comprehension phase, students attempt to understand the source text. Then they move on to the reformulation phase, where students produce, edit, and refine English translations to make them accurate, intelligible, and readable (Pan& Pan, n.d., p. 3). One of the difficulties that students have reported that they encountered when translating is the choice of suitable equivalent in a given text or context in this regard Baker (1992) claimed that the choice of equivalent in certain context depends on linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. Therefore, students need to be trained on how to use their extra-linguistic knowledge to decipher the meaning of words and expressions when it is impossible to use their linguistic knowledge convey and render the intended meaning. Additionally, the training of teachers on some of the current trends in teaching translation is of utmost importance. Finally, students and teachers should be trained on how utilize new technologies in translation.

The study has pedagogical implication for both translation teachers and practitioners. It may inform the methodology of teaching translation and it may give insights to teachers to modify their course content, methods of teaching and assessment. Moreover, some translation assessment tools such tests were questioned in terms of their validity for testing translation competences as it is difficult to identify the variables which constitute translation ability (Campbell, 1991). Therefore, different methods and tools such as portfolios should be utilized to avoid any discrepancies in assessment.

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APPENDIX

Translation Students' Questionnaire

Dear Student,

This survey intends to investigate translation students' perceptions of the difficulties and challenges that they faced with their undergraduate translation course so as to find ways for overcoming them and improving the course. 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 for improving your undergraduate translation courses. 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.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Using the following scale, please indicate your agreement with students' views about an undergraduate translation course.

1. **Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1**
2. **Disagree (D) = 2**

3. **Neutral (N) = 3**

4. **Agree (A) = 4**

5. **Strongly Agree (SA) = 5**

No	Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Content of the Course					
1.	My undergraduate translation course materials have met my study needs.					
2.	My undergraduate translation course materials have helped me to translate from English into Arabic and vice versa.					
3.	The content of my undergraduate translation course content suited my level.					
4.	My undergraduate translation course satisfied my translation skills needs.					
5.	All my English translation needs were adequately addressed in my undergraduate translation course materials.					
6.	The topics of my undergraduate translation course topics have met my needs and interest.					
	Methods of Delivery					
1.	I like the way my undergraduate translation course was delivered.					
2.	I like how in-class tasks were run and practiced.					
3.	I believe that the way my translation course was being delivered suited my needs.					
4.	I think the way my current translation course was being delivered offered me opportunities to practice translation.					

5.	I believe the in-class translation tasks are helping to develop my translation skills.					
1.	I believe that the way my translation course was assessed suits me.					
2.	I think my current translation course assignments offered me enough opportunities to practice translation.					
3.	I like the way my current translation course exam questions were written.					
4.	I expected my translation course materials to offer me all types of translation.					
5.	My translation course assessment tools needed to be changed.					
Part Three: Please, answer the following questions						
1.	What do you think of your undergraduate translation course in terms of content, methods of delivery, assessment, etc.?					
2.	In your opinion, what were the main challenges that you encountered in this course?					
3.	In your opinion, what are the reasons behind these challenges? How did you cope with these challenges?					
5.	In your opinion, what could be done to improve this particular translation course?					
6.	Any further comments or suggestions?					

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

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Comparison of the Impacts of Writing To Learn and Writing To Communicate Activities on Academic Achievement in TESL Classrooms

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Absract

The main question of the study is "What are the impacts of Writing To Learn (WTL) and Writing To Communicate (WTC) activities on the academic success of the English learning students?". This study aims to compare the effects of WTL and WTC activities on academic success of students in English lessons. The study was carried out with 59 (27 male, 32 female) nineth grade high school students in 2015-2016 in Turkey. One of the quantitative designs, quasi-experimental design with nonequivalent control group was used in the study. Experimental group had 30 students (16 female, 14 male) and control group had 29 students (16 female, 13 male). Present Perfect Tense Academic Achievement Test (PPTAAT) and Rubrics developed by the researcher were used as data collection tools in the study. Students in the experiment group wrote "WTL letters" and the control group students wrote "WTC letters" for four weeks as in-class and homework assignments. There are four hypotheses of the research and anlyses were made to prove the correctness of them. All of the hypotheses were corrected based on the results. As a result of the study, it was detected that there is a statistically meaningful difference for the benefit of the experimental group. It can be said that writing WTL letter helps students learn English better than writing WTC letter. Teachers can be recommended to change the way they use writing from WTC to WTL.

Keywords: academic achievement, TESOL writing to communicate, writing to learn, WTC, WTL

Introduction

"If there's a book that you want to read, but it hasn't been written yet, then you must write it."

Toni Morrison

Learning is like in Morrison's quote; if you do not know what you have learnt or want to see what else you need to add to your new learnings, you need to write them first. Only by writing you can see, so read what is happening in your cognitive world. Writing is described as language and thought written down (Fulwiler, 1987). According to Kawano, Kida, Carvalho & Ávila (2011) and Graham, Harris & Santangelo (2015) writing is a necessary tool for knowledge learning and development, because it enables students to understand and develop new ideas and concepts, construct meaning from different reading sources, and develop critical thinking (Simão, Malpique, Frison & Marques, 2016). The begining of Writing To Learn movement is based on this idea. It originally started with the Writing Across Curriculum (WAC) Movement in USA in 1870s (Russel, 2002). Eming (1977) states that rather than being a simple tool for representing information, writing is viewed as an interactive learning tool (technology) that incorporates students (Gunel & Yesildag-Hasancebi, 2016). WTL includes writing activities other than compositions, diaries, letters etc. activities as usually used in teaching. WTL activities are mistaken for regular activities (WTC) that are already known and used widely. Regular writing activities are used to improve writing. If the students is writing a letter as a homework, that means s/he is learning the format of the letter; where to write the date, adress etc with the aim of communication. This activity is a WTC activity beacuse s/he is learning and practising "how to write a letter" and trying to deliver a massage. However, if a student is writing a WTL letter, this means s/he is still learning. S/he is trying write the experience of learning process s/he has just had in the classroom. Because in WTL letter s/he is expected to write "how s/he has learnt" the subject. S/he is expected to explain the way s/he has learnt. The difference between WTL and WTC is presented in table 1.

Table 1 ***Places of WTL and WTC in Curriculum***

Four Dimensions of Curriculum			
Context	Input	Process	Product
		WTL	WTC

*Four Dimensions of Curriculum are taken from Stufflebeam (2001).

As it is seen in table 1, WTC activities are the product activities. Students learn in the classroom and use "what" they learn as an activitty. On the other hand, WTL learn takes place in the process part of learning. Students' learning process is still going on with the actvitity. S/he is trying to explain "how" s/he has learnt using, examples, diagrams, tables etc. WTL activities are used in processing the information. WTC activities are used to present the product of information and they are written to communicate (Balgopal & Wallace, 2013).

In his experimental study, Jaafar (2016) finds that not only students understand the lesson deeply but also develop appriciation and learning habits essential to their success in other fields. Ray, Graham, Houston & Harris (2016) carried out a research with middle school teachers from six to nine grades. In their study, they examined the types of writing to learn strategies that middle school teachers in their classrooms and found that 43 different WTL were used by teachers. The kind of the WTL activity may vary based on the time or teacher's preparedness.

Chang, Rao, Stewart, Farley & Li, (2016) made a research in order to explore new ways and used WTL activities. In their study they detected that WTL activities help students to increase the understanding of their experiences, of learning and using new strategies. Traver (2016) emphasizes the importance of peer evaluating and learn from one another. In his study, he says "students are more engaged in the learning process and that the quality of their work improves" when peer reviewed. That is the reason in our study that we used peer review. Lund (2015) interviews with 19 Norwegian EFL teacher-students using WTL activities and writing by hand has much greater impact on their learning which shows superiority of hand writing against keyboard. Because of this reason, handwriting was used in our study. Balgopal & Wallace (2013) detected in their study that WTL is an effective instructional and learning strategy takes place in the process of organizing and articulating ideas, while writing to-communicate which is based on the finished written product. Although there are varieties of research proving that writing can be an effective tool to promote student learning and engagement, WTL activities are still not widely implemented in other school subjects (Reynolds, Thaiss, Katkin, & Thompson, 2012). When all these are gathered, it can be said that examining the effect of WTL in TESL classroom is a necessary study in the field (İncirci, 2016).

The Research Problem

The main problem of our study is "What are the effects of using WTL and WTC activities on the academic success of students in TESL classrooms?".

Research Hypotheses

The research has four hypotheses. They are:

1- Experimental and Control group students get similar (not statistically different) scores from the pre-tests.
2- Control group students get statistically higher scores in favor of post-tests.
3- Experimental group students get statistically higher scores in favor of post-tests.
4- Experimental group students get statistically higher scores than Control group students from the post-tests.

Method

Information about the participants, design of the research, application of the activities (WTL, WTC) and data collection tools are given in this part of the study.

Participants

The study started to be carried out with 60 (28 male, 32 female) nineth grade students in March 2016 in a high school in the northern part of Turkey. One of the male students had a traffic accident and a broken leg, so he was not able to attend the class for four weeks. He could only attend the first lesson. The number of the participants decreased to 59 (27 male, 32 female) nineth grade students. There are six nineth classes in the school the research was carried out. With the aim of determining the experiment and control group classes, the researcher tried to choose two very similar classes based on the number of male and female distribution of students, grade point average and absenteeism average of the students. In experiment group (EG) there are 30 (16 female, 14 male) students with age range of 15,3 years. In the control group (CG) there are 29 (16 female, 13 male) students with the age range of 15,6 years. The average score of last English exam in EG is 67,8 and in CG 64,4 from 100. The average absenteeism in EG is 2,3 days

and in CG 3,03 days. The research was explained to students and asked them if they want to attend it voluntarily or not. All the students accepted to attend the classes voluntarily. Because the students are under the age of 18, the researcher had a meeting with the parents of the students and explained the experiment in details. The researcher also took the written permissions of the parents. 59 students attended all the classes for 28 hours of English classes.

Design of the Research and Application of the Activities

One of the quantitative designs, quasi-experimental design with nonequivalent control group was used in the study. Two groups (EG and CG) attended to the study. The formation of the groups was explained the participants part of the study above. Application process is presented in table 2.

Table 2 ***Applied Procedure***

Groups	Before the Application	During the Application	After the Application
EG	Achievement Test (M1)	Teaching and Application of WTL Activity	Achievement Test (M2)
CG	Achievement Test (M3)	Teaching and Application of WTC Activity	Achievement Test (M4)

*M : Measurement

Before the application of activities (WTL, WTC), the researcher explained the WTL letter to the EG students and also, reminded the WTC letter to the CG students. The students of both groups were informed that their letters will be evaluated using a rubric prepared by the researcher. Two different rubrics were prepared for two groups. Each group was shown only the related rubric. They were informed about the rubric and their questions were answered clearly about the rubrics. The preparation part took two hours of English lesson.

After the preparation part, both groups had pre-tests. The application of pre-tests toook two hours of English lessons. Then the reseacher taught “Present Perfect Tense (PPT)” using the same method, books, exercises and techniques. Only difference was the in-class and homework writing assignments. The EG was assigned to write WTL letter, whereas CG was assigned to WTC letters. The subject was studied for four weeks and students wrote four letters. The first letter was written as an in-class assignment and the researcher evaluated the letters in the class to show the students how he scores and corrects the letters using rubrics. The second, the third and the fourth letters were given as homework assignments. The last letters were evaluated outside of the classroom and students were informed about it. All the letters were given back to the students after the evaluation and feedback. Two groups were applied the same procedure by the same teacher. Only difference was the kind of writing activity. CG students wrote letters using PPT to explain what they have done through the week. EG students wrote letters explaining how they have learnt PPT and tried to teach the PPT to the students whom they wrote letter to. CG students learned PPT and wrote PPT sentences to communicate. EG students explained how they learnt, draw tables, diagrams, gave examples about the PPT. Two group made the same activity with a totally different aim, so they wrote very different sentences to form the structure of the assignment.

Completing the application part of the research, EG and CG had pos-tests. Pos-test application took two hours of English lesson. The process of the research is shown in table 3.

Table 3 ***Application Process***

Time	Experimental Group	Control Group	Hours of Lessons
1st	*Explanation and Application of Pre Tests*		2
2nd Week	Reading text written in PPT WTL in-class	Reading text written in PPT WTC in-class	6
3rd Week	Exercises about PPT WTL homework	Exercises about PPT WTC homework	6
4th Week	Exercises about PPT WTL homework	Exercises about PPT WTC homework	6
5th Week	Exercises about PPT WTL homework	Exercises about PPT WTC homework	6
6th Week	*Application of Post Tests*		2
	Total		
6 weeks	4 WTL letters	4 WTC letters	28 hours

As it is seen in the table 3, the research proceeded for six weeks. There are six hours of lesson in a week in the 9th grade schedule. The experimental activity (WTL) and WTC applied four weeks (24 hours of English class). It took two lessons to explain the experimental activity and answer the questions, two lessons for pre-tests and two lessons for post-tests. At total the research took 28 hours of English class. Both EG and CG students wrote four letters each.

Data Collection Tools

Data were collected using PPTAAT and Rubrics. Information about data collection tools' validity and reliability take place in this part of the study.

Achievement Test (PPTAAT)

The achievement test "Present Perfect Tense Academic Achievement Test (PPTAAT)" prepared by the researcher was used as pre and post-tests. Test questions for the PPTAAT were prepared from the Course Book. At total 112 questions were prepared by six English Teachers. 32 questions considered to be of the same quality were removed out based on the views of experts (six English teachers and two Curriculum and two Instruction instructors) and 80 questions were used in the pilot study. In order to ensure construct validity and reliability of the activity, initially, it was performed with 244 students of 10th grade from three different high schools who studied the same subject in the previous year. Content validity is the most important thing in achievement tests to ensure the validity of the test, and this can be achieved with expert opinions (Büyüköztürk, 2014). Expert opinions were received from six English language teachers and two curriculum instructors to ensure the content validity of the test. The final 50 questions selected based on these views, can be stated to be valid. Validity and reliability values are presented in table 4.

Table 4. ***Validity and Reliability Results of PPTAAT***

Number of the Questions	d	p	Cronbach Alpha	Item-total correlation values	Spearman Brown split-half Test (r)
50	0.33	0.52	0.84	0.41-0.64	0.87

As it is shown in table 4, the average difficulty level of the final form was found as 0.52. Considering this rate, it can be stated that; items have balanced distribution. The distinctiveness was found as 0.33, and it can be stated that; the items have a good level of distinctiveness. Total correlation of the elements was detected as varying from 0.41 to 0.64. The Spearman-Brown formula was applied and the value obtained at the end of the analysis was 0.87. Cronbach Alpha value is 0.84. The test can be stated to have a suitable level of distinctiveness as a result of the Cronbach Alpha and item-total correlation values. Considering the values of validity and reliability, it can be detected that the PPTAAT is suitable and ready to use (İncirci & Parmaksız, 2016).

Rubrics

Rubrics were prepared by the researcher based on the views of experts. Experts were six English Teachers, two Turkish Grammar Teachers and two Curriculum Instructors. Two different rubrics were prepared for two different kinds of letters which are WTL and WTC. The experts were divided into two groups. Each group included three English Teachers, one Turkish Grammar Teacher and one Curriculum Instructor. One group prepared rubric for WTL letter and the other for WTC letter. Then, two groups exchanged the rubrics to assess them. The agreement ratio of the experts is about 95% on the rubrics.

Findings and Comments

Findings and comments about the hypotheses of the research take place at this part of the study.

Findings and Comments about the First Hypothesis

PPTAAT was applied as pre-test in order to examine the first hypothesis of the research "Experimental and Control group students get similar (not statistically different) scores from the pre-tests". The results are presented in table 5.

Table 5 ***Pre-tests of Groups***

Groups	N	M	SD	df	t	p
EG	30	19,57	9,32	57	-,754	0,454
CG	29	21,52	10,54			

As it is seen in table 5, the average score of EG is 19,57 and CG is 21,52. The CG can be said to be more successful than the students in EG, but the difference is not statistically different ($t_{(57)}$ = -,754; p: 0,454 > 0,05). As a result it can be stated that the academic success of two groups are similar. It can be stated that the first hypothesis of the study is corrected based on the results of the analyses of pre-tests.

Findings and Comments about the Second Hypothesis

PPTAAT was applied as pre and post-tests in order to examine the second hypothesis of the research "Control group students get statistically higher scores in favor of post-tests".The results are presented in table 6.

Table 6 ***Paired t test of CG's pre and post-tests***

CG Tests	N	M	SD	df	t	p
Pre	29	21,51	10,54	28	-2,071	0,048
Post	29	26,76	8,94			

When table 6 is examined, it can be seen that average score of CG group is 21,51 from the pre-test and 26,76 from the post-tests. The students in CG are more successful in post-tests. But the difference between pre and post-tests are statistically meaningful ($t_{(28)}$ = -2,071; p: 0,048 < 0,05). It can be said that the second hypothesis f the study is corrected based on the analysis of pre and post-tests of the CG.

Findings and Comments about the Third Hypothesis

PPTAAT was applied as pre and post-tests in order to examine the third hypothesis of the research "Experimental group students get statistically higher scores in favor of post-tests".The results are presented in table 7.

Table 7 ***Paired t test of EG's pre and post-tests***

EG Tests	N	M	SD	df	t	p
Pre	30	19,56	9,32	29	-8,037	0,000
Post	30	35,30	6,57			

As it is seen in table 7, the average score of EG from the pre-tests is 19,56 and 35,30 from the post-tests. Based on the results it can be said that EG students get statisticallly higher scores from the post-tests ($t_{(29)}$ = -8,037; p: 0,000 < 0,05). It is detected that the third hypothesis f the study is corrected based on the analysis of pre and post-tests of the EG.

Findings and Comments about the Fourth Hypothesis

PPTAAT was applied as post-tests in order to examine the fourth hypothesis of the research "Experimental group students get statistically higher scores than Control group students from the post-tests". The results are presented in table 8.

Table 8 ***Unpaired t test of post-tests***

Groups	N	M	SD	df	t	p
EG	30	35,30	6,57	57	4,193	0,000
CG	29	26,76	8,94			

When table 8 is examined, it is detected that the average score of EG is 35,30 and CG is 26,76 from the post-tests. Considering the results, it can be stated that there is a statistically meaningful difference between the EG and CG post-test results ($t_{(57)}$ = -4,193; p: 0,000 < 0,05).

The fourth hypothesis of the study is corrected based on the results of the t test analysis of post-tests.

Results and Discussion

Considering the results of the research, the four hypotheses are corected based on the values obtained. The results are similar in other studies (Jani & Mellinger, 2015; Shultz & Gere, 2015; Tomas & Ritchie, 2015; Comer, Clark & Canelas, 2014; Jordon, 2014; Whitehead & Murphy, 2014; McDermott & Hand, 2013). WTL activities help students learn better than writing WTC activities.

Before the application of writing activities the EG and CG students had the similar success but writing activities helped them to become more successful. Taking into consideration of natural language learning system in order first we listen, then speak, then read and only the write. As all human being experienced writing is the climax of our language learning process (İncirci, 2016). Writing is a challenging activity for both teacher and student (Yangın-Ersanlı, 2013). It needs more than cognition skills. Writers need to use metacognition skills (Raoofi, Chan, Mukundan & Rashid, 2014; Ruan, 2014). Writing is a helpful tool to teach students better is TESL classes.

After the application of writing activities, the data showed the usefulness of writing activities. In this study, there is a very important comparison issue: which one is more useful, WTL or WTC? Considering the results of the analyses both writing activities assisted students to have significantly higher scores, whereas comparing the post-tests, it is proven that WTL activity is better that WTC activity in students' academic achievement. There are studies in the literature proving that WTL has positive impact on academic achievement (Bahls, 2012; Reynolds, Thaiss, Katkin, & Thompson, 2012; Smith, 2001). Human brain has to store more than it can remember (Külekçi, 2012), but if the information is written, it can be read repeatedly any time. Writing is also used to filter and shape the experience we have. While shaping the experience, learner adds new information on his previous experiences.

Writing may provide us with a tool to make sense of experience and to clarify our thoughts (Myers & Burnett, 2004). Writing enhances language acquisition as learners experiment with words, sentences … reinforce the grammar and vocabulary they are learning in class (Bello, 1997). While writing students make organization of ideas into coherent and cohesive form (Gebhard, 2006). Therefore, it can be concluded that WTL activities help students not only remind what s/he has learnt, but also develop their cognitive and metacognitive skills to become a more successful learners (Schunk, Şahin, Demir, Celasun, Kaçkar, Üzümcü, & Şahin, 2011; Ulu, 2001). With this study it is proven that WTL activities are better than WTC activities in terms of academic achievement. There are varieties of WTL activities and teachers may find a suitable activity for any lesson. WTL activities are mistaken for WTC activities, so there needs to be more studies about how teachers and students can use WTL in any field of the academic life. Many teachers need to make fundamental changes in how writing is taught (Graham, Harris & Santangelo, 2015) and used as a teaching/learning tool in TESL classrooms.

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The Impact of Poor English Language Proficiency on Professional Development of Professors at Jordanian Universities

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Abstract

It is widely acknowledged that English has become the language of communication internationally (Yahya, 2012; Pennycook, 2014). To the researchers' best knowledge, no research has reported on neither the difficulties non-English major professors face when using English as their formal language of instruction nor on the impact of these difficulties on their professional development. Thus, this paper aims to offer a better insight into the different problems that university professors non-major in English specifically face when communicating in English and their influence on their academic and professional advancement. Non-English major professors need to be competent in communicating English because they need to contact international organizations for publications, introducing partnership, present up-to-date findings in their fields and so on. The sample of the study comprised of 20 non-English major lecturers randomly selected from Hashemite University. Data collected via semi-structured interviews revealed that the participants encountered numerous difficulties in reading, writing and speaking and listening when using English and that these difficulties impact negatively on their academic and professional development. In light of these findings, the paper concludes with some of the participants' suggestions to solve these difficulties.

Keywords: English learning difficulties, bilingualism, limited English proficiency, academic and professional development

1. Introduction

Language is a very important aspect in people's life as it sharpens their thoughts and controls their entire activity, carries civilization and culture (Bolinger, 1968). In the modern global world, people need to learn languages to communicate and share ideas. As a result, the majority of them are becoming bilingual which Brown (2000) described as becoming a way of life.

English has become the language of communication internationally (Yahya, 2012; Pennycook, 2014). It has got a privileged position as the language of the world in all fields of humanities, science, and social science, international trade, and diplomacy. In particular, Al-Khatib (2000) claims that Arab countries make special efforts to facilitate using English language among their citizens considering it as one of the main focus in their school curriculum in 1920s. Recently, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research has put the condition of passing the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) for admitting university postgraduates to ensure their high competency in English language (Alkhawaldeh, 2010). Literature relating to the difficulties English as a foreign language EFL learners encounter in general is available in bulk (e.g. Mourtaga 2006; Kannan, 2009; Jdetawy, 2011), but studies discussing the present research objectives are absent. The lack of opportunities for getting familiar with English, no encouragement for self-learning English, the lack and weakness of the input in their language teaching context, in addition to the lack exposure to the target language indicate that university professors non-major in English could encounter more difficulties than EFL learners when using English as their way of communication.

2. Literature Review

The difficulties English as a foreign language (EFL) learners face in all skills and sub-skills and suggestions to overcome them have been a very hot topic for research since English Language proficiency is currently a requirement in all aspects of work, study, entertainment and communication (Adas & Bakir, 2013; Asassfeh et al, 2011; Jdetawy, 2011; Alkhawaldeh, 2010; Mourtaga, 2006; Rababah, 2003; & Chen, 2002). Asassfeh et al.'s (2011) is one of the studies that tackles the problems EFL face in learning English language. They ordered the skills according to their difficulty: speaking, reading, writing and listening respectively. With regard to speaking, they report the following problems: speaking English fluently as native speakers do, pronouncing words correctly, speaking English with an English or British accent, using idiomatic expressions properly, determining the stressed syllable in a word, using intonation in pronouncing sentences and speaking grammatically correct language. With respect to reading, the difficulty was to understand an English text unless read more than once and infer information not explicitly stated in a text. Concerning writing, most difficulty was reported in writing the first sentence in a text, finding the appropriate word that fits the context as well as writing grammatically correct sentences.

With respect to writing skill in particular, Gomaa (2010) reports some difficulties EFL students face in writing: running on sentences with no punctuation marks, using words translated from the first language causes misunderstanding confusion, using punctuation marks appropriately and writing organization (i.e. essay writing). EFL learners' also find it very hard to produce high-quality texts distinguished by coherence, cohesion and smooth logical flow of ideas (Hinkel, 2001, 2002). To overcome these difficulties, Adas and Bakir (2013) recommend

working on supporting the notion of blended learning among both teachers and students, training both teachers and students on blended-learning techniques and strategies to make the process of writing easy, improving the facilities and the technical infrastructure by providing higher internet speed, wireless internet, and stronger server. Blended learning, according to Colis and Mooner (2001) is a using traditional face-to-face in combination with online learning where instruction occurs both in the classroom and online.

Regarding the speaking skill, Rababah (2001) found that Arab students find it really hard to engage in authentic communication using appropriate and correct English because of the poor vocabulary repertoire. Hesitation to speak English during class time could be ascribed to lack of communicative competence and the feeling of being under evaluation by others (Bachman, 1990).

Jdetawy (2011) ascribes the difficulties EFL learners face to the fact that their mother tongue and the mainly language used for communication is Arabic, the Arab EFL learners' preference and tendency to use Arabic in EFL classrooms rather than English, the lack and weakness of the input in their EFL teaching context, the lack of EFL learners' personal enthusiasm, the unsuitability and limitations of the English language curricula adopted by some academic institutions. Besides the aforementioned problems Zughoul (1983), Mukattash (1983), and Suleiman (1983) believe that the problems encountered by Arab EFL learners can be referred to ineffective teaching methodology and the lack of the appropriate and effective language environments.

3. Rationale for the present study

English language is the international language used for communication worldwide. Therefore, any difficulties people face when communicating in English must to be identified and solved in order to facilitate communication for academic and personal purposes nationally and internationally. The review of literature shows that even EFL learners face various difficulties in communicating in English (Rababah, 2001; Jdetawy, 2011). Thus, it is definite that those non-major in English who handle English classes (such as scientific branches) face insurmountable difficulties. However, none of the foregoing literature tackled the types of difficulties faced by university non-major when communicating in English with regard to the four language skills and the impact of them on the professional development. Unraveling any difficulties and being consciously aware of them would help researchers and specialist find ways to overcome them and provide effective solutions accordingly. Thus, the present study tries to fill the research gap by investigating the difficulties university non-major face when communicating in English and the impact of them on the professional development along with some suggested solutions. Theoretically recommended methods for enhancing proficiency in English without considering potential difficulties communicators face would not be prove successful. Such investigation may unravel certain serious difficulties which English languages users themselves are not conscious of their hindrance of reaching English language proficiency. Thus, they cannot choose the suitable method to solve them. It is in this context that the present study was undertaken to capture valuable insights into how non-major in English university lectures in Jordan perceive their difficulties with English language four skills. The study reported here aims to add to the knowledge base in this area.

4. Significance of the study

The study contributes to the existing literature related to applied linguistics fields particularly TESOL and TEFL fields. It enriches the domains of the difficulties that learners face when acquiring or using a foreign language. Taking the difficulties and challenges learners from different academic backgrounds face in mastering the English language into consideration is significant because they will soon embark on their teaching career and will be in constant contact with many people from different academic and national backgrounds. Overcoming these difficulties could be a great assistance to them. It is also of value that the main reasons behind these difficulties that roadblock leaning English have been investigated and suggestions have been given in order to overcome such problems. In addition, it could significantly serve those who are interested in studying the relation between First language (L1) and Second language (L2) by shedding some light on the possible impact of the L1 on L2 and vice versa. Furthermore, it is significant for teachers as it clarifies the weakness points which should be considered when designing English language curriculum.

5. Research Methodology

The research is qualitative in nature. The researcher has adopted the interview rather than a questionnaire as the research instrument for this study for so many reasons. It suits the objectives of the study. It also allows the participants enough time to probe for providing rich data that better describes their perception of both their behaviour and its related social reality (Gray, 2004; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Patton (1990:278) argues that the mainly used "find out what is in and on someone else's mind". The interview has been found to be widely used in needs analysis particularly as it is more flexible in the sense that the order and wording of the questions in this type of interview can be changed based on the direction of the interview and the interviewer's discretion. This indicates that they are more reliable in yielding valid responses about the participants' perceptions and attitudes about their experiences and real life (Punch, 2005). The researcher followed the following interview protocol: the interviewees were assured that the interview data will be kept confidential and used only for the purpose of this research study. They were asked to provide some general information to make them feel relaxed, they were informed that interview contains questions regarding your attitude toward English learning, difficulties and their impact on their professional development, and they can stop the recorder anytime they want and refuse to answer any of the interview questions if they were not comfortable responding to it, besides they were able to direct any questions related to this research. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed and their content were analyzed thematically.

6. Population of the Study

The population of this study consisted of male and female non-majors lecturers at the Hashemite University who did not even have any experience living abroad. A convenient sample of 20 lecturers, non-major in English, were selected for interviews lasting from 20 minutes to 35 minutes to enable them talk about the difficulties they encountered when communicating (reading, writing, speaking and listening) in English.

7. Results and discussion

The participants revealed their awareness of the importance of being proficient in English language for academic and professional development. They were aware that English is quickly

becoming the international lingua franca. They were also conscious of they need to have a good command of English as they are normally required to use English in publishing papers, reporting on certain projects, contacting foreign organizations to establish mutual relationships, writing and correcting students' assignments, delivering speeches and presentations. However, it appeared that there were certain difficulties that hindered that. The vast majority of the participants referred these difficulties to the degree to which their mother tongue (i.e. Arabic) differs from the target language (i.e. English) besides the excessive use of Arabic compared to English in and outside classroom. They also made it clear that cultural differences in communication styles and preferences may also significantly contribute to the difficulty. The difficulties that the participants revealed could be summarized in Table 1 as follows:

Table 1: *The difficulties lecturers face when communicating in English*

The skill according to the difficulty	The difficulties
speaking	incapability and lack self-confidence to engage in an ongoing English authentic communicative situations due to the feeling of being under scrutiny, poor vocabulary repertoire , poor pronunciation, and the inability to balance between varying vocabulary, applying correct grammar and pronouncing correctly.
Listening	The uneasiness when listening to any speech in English due to their incompetence, limited vocabulary, inability to follow the quick speech
Writing	The difficulty of generating and organizing pertinent ideas in well-written grammatically correct sentences which are correctly punctuated.
Reading	The inability to determine the main ideas in a long text, use contextual clues to guess the meaning and infer implied information.

A considerable number of the lecturers (93%) highlighted listening and speaking in English as the most difficult skill to master followed by writing then reading. One of the difficulties is the inability to use English for communication particularly engaging in authentic communicative situations. They lack self-confidence in keeping the interaction in English going for an extended period of time with their Arab or foreigner peers. Their poor vocabulary repertoire contributes to loosing self-efficacy in communicating in English language. Their poor pronunciation also contributes to their inability to speak English fluently. This could be ascribed to the fact that English contains a number of sounds that are not present in Arabic language. Thus, they might not feel natural to them. They basically face difficulty in distinguishing between vowel sound, i.e. ……..Pin-pen /u/ with /ʊ/ (fool vs. full vowels), (law and low) and of /ɛ/ with /æ/ (bet vs. bat vowels). Thus, speakers end up mixing pronunciation of words and not being able to distinguish between them such as Arabic language consists of only /b/ sound, the letter /p/ would sound by Arabic native speakers' tongues and ears as /b/instead such as in words "parking" which may sound more like "barking". The majority also highlighted the fact that they were unable to keep balance between varying vocabulary, applying correct grammar and

pronouncing correctly. Such imbalance causes hesitation, confusion and embarrassment for them which all result in low speed in talking, repetition of the same vocabularies and no intonation being applied in pronouncing sentences. Most of the interviewees revealed that having the feeling that you are under scrutiny by others and in a very evaluative society could also contribute to their inefficiency in speaking English or undesirability to even try to speak in English. Thus, they find it really difficult to express themselves comfortably and competently even when they deal with academic topics or everyday topics. Accordingly, they avoid interactions with native speakers and their English speaking counterparts because of their frustration or awkwardness at their poor English. In light of this finding, teachers should recommend EFL learners to listen to native speakers through pronunciation laboratory, watching films and using visual aids so as to strengthen their capability at phonological aspect.

Very related to the speaking skill is the listening skill. A vast majority of the participants stated that they feel uneasy when listening to any speech in English. They referred this difficulty their incompetence in this skill to having limited vocabulary and expression repertoire, their inability to understand the quick speech and words they hear, recognize and distinguish the English vowels. This results in asking for more repetition for the sake of understanding.

Writing is the third skill in its difficulty. The majority of the lecturers (78%) suffers from planning for the writing process including generating and organizing ideas that are pertinent to the required topics, writing grammatically correct sentences, punctuating the written text properly. The use of the appropriate word that fits the context and the cohesive linking words in properly is also a source of difficulty for the participants. This finding indicates that English teachers should focus not only teaching English basics but also the finer points of English writing conventions. They should be made conscious of the point that they should produce complete sentences rather than fragmented phrases that are normally used in speech. Things such as correct verb tenses, article usage, subject-verb agreement, determiner-subject agreement, complex sentences, and collocations usage should be clearly explained to them. In addition, because of the considerable effect that written performance may have on students' success, teachers should pay particular attention to how learners' view their own writing level. This is because though learners' self-assessments may not be an accurate indicator of their actual language proficiency, their perception of their own English skills may greatly affect their interest in taking extra support writing courses.

Reading was viewed as the least difficult skill. A large number of the lecturers (64%) stated that determining the main ideas in a text particularly in a relatively long text. That is why they need to read any text written in English more than once in order to understand its content. They also need to repeatedly check English-Arabic dictionary. They lack the ability to invest the strategy of using context clues to guess the meaning of unknown words. Inferring information not stated clearly in a text is another difficulty they face when reading any English text. The difficulties found in the present study are consistent with those found in Mukattash (1983), Wahba (1998), Abbad (1988) and Rababah (2001). They found learners face difficulties in pronunciation, spelling, morphology, and syntax and they were unable to express themselves comfortably and efficiently in communicative situations. This indicates that the situation is almost the same in the Arab countries.

Grammar in English has been viewed by the participants as a cause of low proficiency in the four skills. The researchers support Abdullah and Hussein's (2013) claim that learning of a second language is a complex process, if the two languages have distinctly different structures. This involves a seemingly infinite number of variables. It could be because English has a relatively large number of verb tense forms with some quite subtle differences compared to Arabic language. In other words, besides the simple past, simple present, and imperative known in Arabic, English has present perfect, past perfect, progressive, perfect progressive forms, and future which add to the complexity of using English. Besides the tenses, the participants find it difficult to manipulate the various ways in which English uses modal verbs and auxiliary verbs in aces such as negation (e.g. she hasn't been playing.), inversion with the subject to form a question (e.g. have they been playing?), and tag questions (have they?), the case when auxiliary are main verbs and when they are used to replace other verbs.

The differences between definite, indefinite and zero article are also another source of difficulty for the participants since they only have definite and zero article in Arabic. They pointed out that the uses of these types of articles are not always clear thus not easy to learn. Vey related to this is the fact that many participants face difficulty in using prepositions with verbs and remembering their exact meaning correctly. Very related to this is the difficulty they face in using phrasal verb (e.g. give up, put on, and look for). Due to these difficulties, they are not able to produce even a single sentence without any grammatical error in English. This could be partly ascribed this the fact that the participants view learning English it from the examination perspective only, and partly to the fact that examination system applied at schools and university mostly focuses on students' memorisation rather than testing their analytical, creative and applicable skills which ultimately results in short team learning of English.

The participants also revealed a very important point which could be the reason latent behind their less proficiency in English that is the influence mother tongue exert on the acquired foreign language. They pointed out that even when trying to speak or write English, they feel they still think in in their mother tongue (Arabic). In other words, in order to understand, for instance, a text in English, they try to explain it first in Arabic. They also carry over the Arabic grammatical patterns to English. This is problematic because both languages have different grammatical patterns. There are large numbers of subtle differences in both languages' tenses that lecturers may have great difficulty detecting. This finding lends supports to Richards, et.al. (1992) who state that learners frequently made errors result because of borrowing patterns from the target language, and expressing meaning using the vocabulary and syntax which are already known. The finding is in line with other researchers' finding regarding the possible effect of mother tongue on difficulties of learning English as a foreign language (Beardsmore, 1982; Makattash, 1983; Abbad, 1988; kambal, 1980 & Wahba, 1998). This could also assert cook's (1991) claim that there exist a bidirectional interdependence amongst the (L1) and the (L2). Due to the influence L1 exerts on L2, the researchers agree with Ellis's (1997) claim that teachers should make their students distinguish between errors and mistakes. As he puts it errors reveal gaps in the learners' knowledge as they don't know the correct whereas mistakes reflect infrequent lapses in performance as learners are unable to perform what the correct form they know in a particular case.

Following such bilingual approach constantly may render them less confident in using the English language proficiently. In addition, the lack of knowledge of English idiomatic expressions was also highlighted by a number of participants as another possible cause that could be attributed their low proficiency in English language. This could be because English is reputed to have a relatively high degree of idiomatic usage.

The participants revealed that these difficulties make them less confident and less proficient in using English, accordingly they provided some suggestions to solve them in order to enhance their English language proficiency. Having such attitudes toward these difficulties affect learning the language and consequently improving the academic and professional status. This is very important because as (Everling, (2013) claims that lecturers with lower self-efficacy are not as effective in their instruction. This could be explained by the fact that the higher a person's self-efficacy, the higher their students' performance will be. The ability to communicate effectively provides high quality instruction.

The issue of how proficiency in English language relates to academic and professional achievement is clearly relevant to the following main concepts: background knowledge, the means of instruction, academic classification and promotion. Since there is a plethora of academic papers published in English, the participants complained that they cannot benefit from them. They also add that they are required to publish papers in English even if their academic specialization is not English. With all these difficulties, they feel discouraged to publish papers in international journals or even participate in international conferences. Non-English majors' level of English proficiency is an important criterion in determining their readiness for participating in the national and international conferences, meeting and forums. It influences their readiness for reading different types of books, articles or recent studies to keep up-to-date with any recent advancement and findings in their field. It also influences the ability to enhance and develop their abilities and knowledge in arts, math, and science. If Jordanian non-English major professors are to catch up academically to their native-speakers counterparts, they must engage in an extensive reading of books, papers, articles published in English so as to be exposed to academic language and be well-versed in their areas of specialisations. The majority of them dwelled on the point that they are not good at presentation because English language is not their mother tongue, thus they feel shy if they pronounce or use words inappropriately.

In addition, the affective side of the participants is also found to play a crucial role in developing their tendency to improve their English language skills. The learners' emotions control their will to activate their cognitive lingual abilities. The interviewee revealed that they are not sufficiently motivated to persevere on enhancing their English language skills. They are aware that a lack of personal impetus on their parts essential for enhancing their English proficiency. In addition, their past level in English that holds me back, their fear of failure and their prevalent feeling that it is not possible to attain fluency or mastery over English language and disappointing feeling that English is very difficult and whatever they do, they will not excel in English prevents them from learning it.

Therefore, the English syllabuses, the teaching methodology, and the target language environment need to be changed and developed in light of the difficulties they face in order to suit their needs. Being faced with the urgent need to use English in their future academic and

professional life presses hard on the need to be sufficiently motivated to learn English. Thus, it is extremely crucial to make lecturers recognize that learning English requires being patient and constant practice. Following these suggestions to make lecturers highly motivated and goal oriented could help solve their English use difficulties and can also attribute their success in different aspects. Reducing lecturers' passivity and raising the eagerness only is not sufficient, they also need to be directed to how to learn English. This result supports what Suleiman (1983) and Mukattash (1983) found that lack of motivation is one of the factors that contributes to the weakness of learners' English proficiency. It is also in line with Stevick's (1982:27) argument that "fluency depends at least as much on emotional factors as on amount of practice". Narayanan et al. (2008) assert that successful acquisition of a language seems to some extent, contingent upon learners' opinions of the language itself, learning environment, and its speakers. Accordingly, English learners need to have an interactive motivation. In other words, they will be more motivated if they want to set some goals and purposes for themselves such as becoming an accepted academically active member of the university. Being motivated to learn English could help improve and enhance learner's aptitude learn a new language.

Exploring this hot topic is of a great significance since leaving the difficulties non-English major lecturers face when using English unresolved would negatively impact professional development. A lack of sufficient quality professional development can in turn negatively influence professors' self-efficacy which in turn may result in the professors' having lower self-confidence in their knowledge and ability to be effective instructors.

Impact on professional development

The results showed that poor English language proficiency hinders university lectures' professional development. They admitted that English language is an indispensable mean for communication with most of the outside world in both daily and professional life. They acknowledged that their poor English language skills had hindered the development of their self-confidence in communication and information-handling skills particularly understanding, interpreting and conveying information, managing the self-learning and teaching process, computer skills learning and learning and teaching critical thinking and problem-solving. Their lack of proficiency in English poses some difficulties and results in failure in using English as a tool of self-expression to achieve their communicative goals to alter teaching plans and methods of teaching considering what is new in literature.

Identifying such specific areas that constantly challenge non-native speakers and the underlying reasons could lead researchers and English teachers to find and illuminate better ways through which they can help students on their journey of learning English language.

In light of the results, the researchers recommend that the essential principles in the English departments' programs and the designed curriculum should be revisited to be adequate to cater for the students' needs. Sufficient in-classroom communicative approaches should be provided to develop learners' communication skills. More extracurricular activities with native speakers should be devised in order to break the language and cultural barrier. Considering the limitations of increasing exposure to authentic English environment, virtual English learning environment particularly speaking courses may be efficient in improving their poor conversation skills. Offering is one hour English language support classes for those lecturers who might need help.

The researchers recommend English teachers to boost their students' self-confidence and stress the point that learning English language requires time, patience and dedication. This could in turn assure them that they difficulties they face would fade through time and will help reduce their feeling of depression when learning English language. The researchers also recommend that English teachers assert to their students the point that learning English is a skill which entails continuous practice. Practice helps students strive not only to learn English but also to master it. What is also of a great significance is the individual differences. Teachers and learners should also consider the fact that some people are better at learning languages than others due to having different personalities and learning styles. This would indicate as Harmer (2001) argues that there are differences in the ways individual brains work. According to Brown (2000), some students prefer oral learning compared to other who favor using visual materials for learning. On the top of that, English teachers should keep on their professional growth and development. These ways will encourage students be more committed to improving their English proficiency.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

Overall, the outcomes of the study show that the non-English major lectures struggled with notable difficulties when communicating in English: listening, speaking, writing and reading. They ascribed these difficulties to numerous resources: excessive use of Arabic compared to English in and outsides classrooms, the interference of their mother tongue and target language, lack of exposure to authentic language learning environment, low self-efficacy and passive motivation and to learning English as a foreign language.

The findings of the study stressed the importance of tackling such difficulties. Although there is a plethora of studies that have been conducted in different countries to investigate issues associated with language teaching and learning, it would be extremely problematic to say that people sharing certain cultural, academic, and educational background face only one set of problems. There will always be difficulties in learning English varying as time goes. Therefore, more studies are needed to specifically study difficulties each group face in order to resolve them. More Studies investigating difficulties of learning English in teams of experience, age, and gender among EFL students. Further contrastive studies examining difficulties of learning English among students specialized linguistics and those specialized in literature at English department. Teachers, curricula designers and lecturers themselves should be aware of these difficulties since they will then be better able to help in overcoming them. Further studies are required to specifically tackle each difficulty and provide appropriate solutions

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Facilitating Character Building through an Academic Writing Practice

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Abstract
This paper aims to show how an academic writing practice can facilitate character building to the student teachers of English education department of a private university in Pontianak, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. The academic writing practice implemented the genre-based approach teaching stages. Two instruments were used to collect the data. First, an open-ended questionnaire filled by thirty-six students regarding their reflections on the academic writing practice. The data then analysed thematically. Second, the student's writings. The researchers selected purposively two writings from a student teacher constructed in the diagnostic test and independent construction stage. The student's writings were analysed by using functional grammar. The findings show that the academic writing practice can facilitate character building through the application of explicit teaching and group work throughout the teaching stages. The student's writing constructed in the academic writing practice showed an improvement of the student's academic writing knowledge, skills, and characters. The findings suggest that character building should be practised in any subjects across the university curriculum.
Keywords: academic writing, character building, character education, genre-based approach, systemic functional linguistics

Introduction

In the higher education context, the students demanded knowledge and skills to develop their academic achievements. However, without proper characters, the students might achieve their academic achievements through an unethical way. The knowledge, skills, and characters are inseparable domains that are required for the students to be productive, active, and effective in the school and even in the society. In order to achieve them, an effective character building is required (Battistich, 2005; Berkowitz, 2011).

One medium to facilitate character building is writing (Lickona, 1999). Academic tasks mainly are in a form of academic writing. Without sufficient academic writing knowledge, skills, and characters, students may do, for instance, an act of plagiarism intentionally or unintentionally. This certainly shows that the students require a good practice of academic writing to achieve the required aspects.

Accordingly, this paper will elaborate an academic writing practice that can facilitate character building to the students specifically in Indonesia's higher education context while at the same time developing the students' knowledge and skills in academic writing. The academic writing practice will be based on a well-known literacy-based teaching approach, that is, genre-based approach (GBA) developed under systemic functional linguistics (SFL). Previous research has discovered that GBA through narrative writing can develop secondary school students' characters in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia (Hardini, 2013). The difference with the previous research is that this research involved students in Indonesia's higher education context where little research has been conducted to Indonesian students at this level of education. To begin with, the following section will discuss the concept of character building followed by academic writing practice with genre-based approach teaching stages underlying the practice.

Character Building

Character consists of three psychological dimensions. They are awareness, attitude, and action (Lickona & Davidson, 2005). As an illustration, ideally, students who have sufficient knowledge and skills of academic writing should be followed by changes in their attitudes such as following the ethics of academic writing. Then, their actions will be reflected from their academic writing. In their academic writing, the way the students think or reasoning should eventually change. Instead of limited to logical reasoning, moral reasoning will help the students to provide moral consideration (Chaffee, 2012; Williams, 2011).

The illustration shows that knowledge, skills, and character will lead the students to do their best to improve their academic achievements. To achieve that ideal illustration, effective strategies are required in character building. The strategies, as suggested and adapted from Lickona (1999), are as follows: (1) using academic subject, in this case, academic writing as a subject to learn characters; (2) being a good role model in thee academic writing practice; (3) encouraging moral reflection through academic writing; and (4) using cooperative learning to develop the students' characters as they will be working with their peers (p. 80). Explicit guidance itself is suggested by the character building

proponents (Slote, 2014) and genre-based approach proponents (Emilia, 2005; Hyland, 2007), which makes genre-based approach is suitable to facilitate character building in the academic writing practice.

Throughout the academic writing practice, to provide an effective character building, a lecturer should be the role model in the academic writing practice such as by providing explicit guidance to the students. Then, academic writing practice should be more than just reading and writing activities. The students' communication with their peers will also help them to learn characters. This section has delineated the brief concept of character building. The following section will discuss the academic writing practice for students in Indonesia's higher education context.

Academic Writing Practice

This section will delineate the academic writing competencies followed by the teaching stages, which is based on systemic functional linguistics genre-based approach (SFL GBA). Academic writing competencies in this research cover knowledge, skills, and characters. To be more specific, knowledge here is related to the topic that will be written (Irvin, 2010). Skill is related the way the students communicate their ideas into writing by using a certain genre and its linguistic features, which is also known as discourse competencies (Bruce, 2013). This research focuses on argumentative writing, specifically, exposition genre that is used to present one side of a topic that will be written. It has three important elements. They are: (1) thesis-the main idea; arguments-points of information that are elaborated to support the main idea; and (3) reiteration of thesis-the summary of the text followed by a recommendation if necessary (Coffin, 2004; Martin, 2006).

The last competency is characters. Characters are divided into performance and moral characters, which are related to each other (Davidson, Khmelkov, Baker, & Lickona, 2011). Performance characters here are guidelines for the students to perform well in their academic writing practices. Examples of the performance characters are diligence and discipline. Then, moral characters are characters that define the qualities of the students' academic writing practices. Examples of the moral characters are honesty where the students should learn to follow ethics of academic writing including avoiding act of plagiarism that can harm their own academic achievements; and caring, respect, and cooperation where the students should learn social skills to communicate their ideas in writing and to work with their peers (adapted from Davidson & Lickona, 2007). After knowing the competencies in academic writing, an effective academic writing practice can be planned.

This research applied systemic functional linguistics genre-based approach teaching stages in conducting an effective academic writing practice. The academic writing practice consisted of four stages that are commonly practised in Indonesia. Before applying the teaching stages, diagnostic test and introductory sessions to characters in the academic writing practice and group work were conducted as the students in this research had limited knowledge and skills in academic writing as delineated in the findings and discussion section later on. The four stages applied in this research were building knowledge of the field, modelling, joint construction, and independent construction in one

curriculum cycle (adapted from Emilia, 2005). Throughout the academic writing practice, explicit teaching and group work were applied as suggested by character building and genre-based approach proponents (Emilia, 2005; Slote, 2014). Further descriptions of the activities conducted in the teaching stages will be outlined in the findings and discussion section.

In conclusion, academic writing practice theoretically should be able to facilitate character building through the application of explicit teaching and group work to the students. The reading and writing activities are surely also beneficial for the students to grasp more good characters and to build not only logical reasoning but also moral reasoning. The following section will delineate the method applied in this research.

Method

To know how academic writing practice can facilitate character building to the students, this research applied a qualitative research method. The participants were thirty-six student teachers of a regular class who were selected purposively for this research. The participants' department was English education of a private university in Pontianak, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. The students were heterogeneous and their age range was between 18-23 years old with 11 male participants and 25 female participants. Before the data collection began, the students agreed and signed a consent form to participate in this research.

The data collection applied two instruments. The first instrument was an open-ended questionnaire. The participants were invited to fill an open-ended questionnaire at the end of every teaching stage to gather their reflections regarding the teaching stage, including the researcher who acted as the lecturer; and their peers' performance and character development. The second instrument was the participant's writings. One writing from the diagnostic test and one from the independent construction stage were selected purposively to see the student's academic writing knowledge, skills, and character development before and after the academic writing practice. The writer of the two writings was Heri (in pseudonym). Heri, based on the diagnostic test result, was considered as a medium-skilled writer. The limitation of this paper is that writing from the low and high-skilled writers are not presented.

Completed the data collection, students' responses to the open-ended questionnaire were analysed by using thematic analysis. The goal of the thematic analysis is “to allow research findings to emerge from the frequent, dominant, or significant themes inherent in raw data, without the restraints imposed by structured methodologies” (Thomas, 2006, p. 238). The participant’s writings served as the documents to be analysed (Yin, 2003) by utilising functional grammar to describe the schematic structure and linguistic features of the participant's writings (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Thompson, 2014). At the same time, the practice of the ethics of academic writing, logical and moral reasoning were also analysed based on the description of the academic writing competencies that have been delineated in the earlier section. After each data set was analysed, a data triangulation was conducted to ensure trustworthiness of the research (Shenton, 2004). Completed the data analyses, the following section will delineate the findings and discussion of this research.

Findings and Discussion

This section will delineate the findings of this research along with the discussion. The delineation will begin by providing the overview of the academic writing practice, which is based on systemic functional linguistics genre-based approach teaching stages. In the overview, the students' responses from the open-ended questionnaire are pointed out to see the students' reflections regarding the academic writing practice. The last part of this section is the texts analyses to evaluate the participant's academic writing competencies development before and after the academic writing practice.

The academic writing practice began from the diagnostic test and introductory sessions to characters in the academic writing practice. The diagnostic test helped the lecturer to identify the students' weaknesses in academic writing. The students were considered as beginners in which they had limited knowledge, skills, and characters of academic writing as confirmed in the texts analyses later on. Then, in the introductory sessions, the lecturer introduced the purpose of the academic writing practice with its expected outcome including expected characters. The students also learned referencing in their academic writing including writing a list of references (Jones, 2011) and social skills in which the students learned working with their peers in the group (Johnson & Johnson, 2009). After the introductory sessions, the students entered the teaching stages of the genre-based approach.

The first stage was the building knowledge of the field. The building knowledge of the field is a stage where the lecturer provides the students opportunities to get to know a particular topic (Feez, 2002). The lecturer provided several texts to help the students to get to know the topic. In this stage, the students in groups gathered arguments that were needed to construct their writing. In order for the students to be able to work together, the students were equipped with social skills that can build their senses of caring, respect, and cooperation. That is why, the introductory sessions were necessary as part of the academic writing practice.

The next stage was the modelling stage. The modelling stage purpose is to introduce the students to the model texts belonging to the target genre (Feez, 2002), in this case, the exposition genre with its schematic structure and linguistic features, which is very useful to help them to construct arguments as a part of the students' moral action through writing. The lecturer provided several model texts with different level of difficulties that show the aspects of academic writing such as ethics of academic writing that is important to build honesty through their writing.

In the joint construction stage, the students worked in groups to construct their first academic writing. Before the writing task, the lecturer explicitly modelled a construction of an exposition text with the help of the students where the lecturer wrote a thesis then the students participated in giving their arguments (adapted from Emilia, 2012). The lecturer also modelled referencing and writing reference list. Modelling these aspects in the joint construction stage is encouraged especially when dealing with beginners. Completed their

first drafts, the students learned to review their own writing and the other groups' writing as well. For beginners, a review form was used as a guideline to do the review (Emilia, 2012). The last stage was the independent construction stage. In the independent construction stage, the students were given another topic (Emilia, 2005). Having another topic means that the students built their knowledge on the new topic followed by writing it independently and consulted with the lecturer and their peers only as needed (Feez, 2002).

Throughout the academic writing practice, explicit teaching and group work were applied as suggested by character building and genre-based approach proponents (Emilia, 2005; Slote, 2014). The group work enabled the students to succeed in their learning in which they for the first time must work with different friends, who were not so closed to them. The reason is the lecturer grouped the low-skilled writers with the medium and high-skilled writers who were expected to assist the low-skilled writers in the academic writing practice. At first, the students felt uncomfortable but as the time passed by, they were willing to work together to reach a mutual goal. Karin (in pseudonym) commented this in her questionnaire as follows:

> *"Dengan cara belajar berkelompok dengan teman yang tadinya saya tidak mengerti, karena kemauan saya ingin pintar, jadi saya mengembangkan kemampuan saya di academic writing ini."*
> "By doing group work with my friends, at first I did not understand, but because of my willingness to learn with my friends, I can develop my academic writing skills." (translation)

The comment shows that they were willing to work as a team to reach a mutual goal. Eventually, their senses of caring, respect, and cooperation have been built from the introductory sessions and practised throughout the academic writing practice. However, few problems were also identified as some students were passive and confused during the practice. Rick depicted this in the questionnaires as follows:

> *"Saya ingin bertanya tapi saya bingung apa yang ingin di tanyakan.*" (Rick).
> "I wanted to ask but I confused what to ask." (translation)

The lecturer was aware of the students' passiveness in asking a question as they probably have difficulties but they were unable to communicate it. So, the lecturer came to them and provided explicit guidance. Another example of the explicit guidance was in the building knowledge of the field stage in which the students in groups were invited to write arguments about a good teacher. This activity was used to develop their logical and moral reasoning. Elias pointed out his argument as follows:

> ″A good teacher teaches from the heart.″

The lecturer instructed the students to review the statement. The students at first were silent. So, the lecturer gave an explicit feedback that this statement was unclear as it has no supporting details. Still, the statement can be a good point that needs further

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elaboration. A feedback related to the supporting details was used to introduce them to the ethics of academic writing where they learned referencing. At the end of the meeting, the students were informed that even though the stage was over, they still have to build their knowledge related to the topic in order to provide a better argument (Emilia, 2012). At some points, the lecturer seemed dominated the activities. The domination here is in terms of providing scaffolding until the students' are ready to perform independently (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Mari commented the lecturer's performance in the questionnaires as follows:

> *"He is excellent in conveying the materials; he is a patient man it the face of our."* (Mari)
> "He is excellent in delivering the materials; and he is patience in giving an explanation (when we have a problem)."

The comment shows that the lecturer was able to deliver the teaching materials. The lecturer was also being patient in the process of delivering the teaching material. The scaffolding or explicit teaching in the practice was not easy, especially when teaching students at the beginner level. Still, by being patient, the lecturer can make the students performed their best by giving clear explanation, providing constructive feedback, and pointing the students explicitly what should be done. Explicit teaching is one of the main principles of the genre-based approach and character building (Emilia, 2005; Slote, 2014).

The open-ended questionnaire reveals that the explicit teaching and group work in the academic writing practice can facilitate the character building to the students. Introductory sessions on ethics of academic writing and group work should be conducted earlier to equip the students with social skills in which the students learned to communicate with their peers or friends by building their senses of caring, respect, and cooperation. Learning the ethics of academic writing also helped the students to be discipline and to prepare themselves to construct their academic writing diligently with the guidance of the lecturer and the support of their peers. In order to see the development of the students' academic writing, the following section will delineate the analyses of the texts.

Student's Texts Analyses

This section will delineate the analyses of the student's writing or texts. The texts analysed were writings constructed from the diagnostic test and the independent construction stage. Both texts were constructed by Heri, a medium-skilled writer. The texts were analysed by using functional grammar to describe the schematic structure and linguistic features of the texts. At the same time, the practice of the ethics of academic writing; and logical and moral reasoning were also analysed to see the writer's character development. To begin with, the diagnostic text is presented in Table 1. The text is arranged into numbered clauses.

Table 1 ***Heri's Diagnostic Text***

Heri's Diagnostic Text

1. I think the national exam (UN) must **be** exist in Indonesia**,** because it can be a system to know **about** the potential of students in all of Indonesia region.
2. I think it is important because the region **goverment** [government] can use the result[s] of national exam **for** [to] increase the quality of [the[school[s] in their region, so, with that result[s[, the **goverment** [government] and the school[s] can learn about the weakness[es] of the school[s] among other schools in **national** [the nation].
3. But, as we know before, the answer key **usually stolen by the people who unresponsibility**. [was stolen by irresponsible people]
4. I think to prevent **of steal answer key [**that], the **goverment** [government] must give or make new **adjustment about keep, stole, or give the answer key to the students with hard sanction**. [rules for those who stole the answer key]
5. So, the people who stole it can be processed **in law.** [by law]
6. For the best quality of the student, the **goverment** [government] must make a decision about **the pass in national exam**. [requirements to pass the National Exam]
7. I think the example can be like this **"the national exam doesn't establish the pass in school, but the mark of the teacher in school required for the mark result to pass the school." [**National Exam scores alone cannot determine the graduations of the students]
8. The decision above is required **just for** [to] know the quality of the school's ranking **in national** [in the nation]**,** it can be a tool[,] too, to know who the students are cheating in exam.
9. We can know because we can compare the result[s] in exam school and national exam.
10. The students maybe cheating in exam **with knew about** [as they have] the answer key, but the answer key is not always right and give a better result.
11. In this case[,] the school must have a good supervisor or CCTV to prevent the student[s] [from doing] cheating.

Note:

- Bold words or expressions show grammatical mistakes and improper word choices followed by suggestions in square brackets [].

In the diagnostic test, the students were instructed to write a response toward an online news article entitled "Teachers and Principals Stole and Leaked National Exam Paper" written by Stev (2014). The students should construct an expository text by paying attention to five important aspects in a limited time. The aspects are: (1) the issue that will be developed; (2) arguments with supporting evidence; (3) proper word choices; and (4) proper conventions.

In brief, the text in Table 1 has many limitations in the aspects aforementioned. At the text level, the text has an unclear pattern of Thematic progression in which each sentence in the text seems isolated as the text has no proper logical connector (Thompson, 2014). The pattern of Thematic progression has the same purpose with the pattern of essay organisation that can reflect the student's information organising skills that are required to

elaborate logical and moral reasoning (Ennis, 1993; Lipman, 2003; Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

At the clause level, the word choices including cohesive devices, conventions, and sentence structures are also far from good where the text is quite unreadable even for general readers. Yet, the writer attempts to express his personal voice by using a mental process: *I think* (see clause number 1 and 2 in Table 1) indicates a subjective opinion (see Knapp & Watkins, 2005). This is surely reasonable as the test was limited by time, which made the writer unable to build sufficient knowledge related to the topic. Then, a pronoun: *As we know* (see clause number 3 in Table 1) is a form of academic language, which attempts to engage the readers into the text (Hyland, 2002). However, these attempts are not succeeded as the text indeed is very limited in many aspects of academic writing.

Up to this point, the writer's attempts to communicate his logical and moral reasoning are not succeeded due to the limitations aforementioned. The reason to this problem is limited time to construct the writing; and limited knowledge, skills, and characters of academic writing that are required to communicate the logical and moral reasoning. This means that knowledge, skills, and characters are really inseparable domains that should be developed in the academic writing practice. As a result, explicit teaching at these domains was conducted throughout the academic writing practice as explained in the overview of the academic writing practice.

The last text was a writing constructed in the independent construction stage in which the students learned to construct the texts independently. The topic in the independent construction stage is “the importance of character education.” The students constructed their writing through reading several texts provided for them. They also looked for other references to support their writing. Unlike the diagnostic text, the independently-constructed text was constructed through a recursive process of writing in which they had opportunities to improve their writing as they received constructive feedback from their peers and the lecturer (Emilia, 2012; Wingate, 2012). The independently-constructed text, also written by Heri, is in Table 2. The text is arranged into numbered clauses and divided into three elements of an expository text.

Table 2 ***Heri’s Independently-constructed Text***

The Important of Character Education
Thesis element: 1. Character education is very important for students to be better in study and behavior. 2. To do that, character education **most** [must] focus on quality teacher. 3. There are three reasons why character education is needed. Argument element: 4. First, character education can develop [the] students’ responsibility in study. 5. To do that**,** [the] students should **be** learn about character education. 6. In this case, teachers can do their best to make sure [the] students have more

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responsibili**y** [responsibilities] with their work[s] or stud**y [**studies] (Wisnu, 2009).
7. Second, character education can train students to be **a** successful people in life.
8. With a good character, [the] students can be better and easily accepted as good people in a society, **to do that students should be have and apply good character.**
9. Character education "is so overlooked as a vital part of students' success" (Lahey, 2013[,para. 13]).
10. Third, character education can teach children how to act in a society (Lahey, 2013).
11. To do that[,] [the] teacher should be give[n] lesson about character education.
12. In this case, character education is needed to control the students' behavior because it can be a rule for students to act in a society.

Reiteration of Thesis element:

13. In conclusion, character education can develop **responsibility** [the students' responsibilities] in work and study.
14. Then, it can be a tool to train students to be a successful human
15. and it refers to self control that can be a rule for students to live in a society.

References :

Lahey, J. (2013, May 6). The benefits of character education. [*The Atlantic*]. Retrieved from http://www.theatlantic.com/national/archieve/2013/05/the-benefits-of-character-education/275585

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Note:

- Bold words or expressions show grammatical mistakes and improper lexical choices followed by suggestions in square brackets [].

The independently-constructed text written by Heri is an instance of an exposition text. Despite several grammatical mistakes identified in the text, the text shows a clear pattern of Thematic progression, that is, the multiple Themes pattern that is commonly used in an argumentative writing (see Emilia, 2014; Thompson, 2014). The following table provides a closer look of the multiple Themes pattern of the text.

Table 3 ***The Pattern of Thematic Progression of the Text***

The Pattern of Thematic Progression of the Text
MacroTheme: 1. There are three reasons why character education is needed. HyperThemes that support the macroTheme: 2. First, character education can develop [the] students' responsibility in study.

3. Second, character education can train students to be **a** successful people in life.
4. Third, character education can teach children how to act in a society (Lahey, 2013).

MacroNew:

5. In conclusion, character education can develop **responsibility** [the students' responsibilities] in work and study.

The text thematic progression pattern begins from a hyperTheme that is considered as the macroTheme. The macroTheme: *There are three reasons why character education is needed* serves as the main idea of the text. The main idea then is developed into three HyperThemes that serve as the points of information that are elaborated to support the main idea. The hyperThemes are preceded by enumerations: *First, Second*, and *Third* that serve as textual strategy at the text level (Emilia & Hamied, 2015). The latter part of the text is macroNew: *In conclusion, character education can develop **responsibility** [the students' responsibilities] in work and study* that serves as the conclusion or the summary of the text, which is preceded by a conjunctive adjunct that has a summative function (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

The arguments presented in the text are relevant to the main idea and the conclusion of the text. This makes the writer's moral and logical reasoning is accommodated even though several grammatical mistakes are identified at the clause level. As an instance, the clause number 4 in Table 2: *First, character education can develop [the] students' responsibility in study* is the first argument that is followed by an elaboration as follows:

> To do that**,** [the] students should **be** learn about character education.
> In this case, teachers can do their best to make sure [the] students have more responsibilit**y** [responsibilities] with their work[s] or stud**y [**studies] (Wisnu, 2009).

The argument is clear and the elaboration supports the argument that character education can develop the students' responsibilities in their studies, which needs a teacher to make it comes true. Accordingly, the reasoning sounds logical (Ennis, 1993) and the way the writer emphasises the teacher's role indicates a moral consideration that the students cannot learn character education by themselves. This statement is strengthened by an in-text citation that supports the argument (Irvin, 2010; Oshima & Hogue, 1999).

The in-text citations in the text are valid information as the text has a list of references. Having citations and the list of reference are parts of ethics of academic writing that show an appreciation of the writer to the references that contribute to the text. Still, the citations and list of references require improvement by the writer as it has missing information (see the list of reference in Table 2) and improper way of citing information (see clause number 9 in Table 2). Eventually, without the proper citation format and reference list, the text will lose its credibility, which may indicate an act of plagiarism (Jones, 2011).

Up to this point, the independently-constructed text surely is far much better than the diagnostic text. The text reflects a good development of the writer's academic writing knowledge, skills, and characters in which the writer managed to communicate his logical and moral reasoning through his academic writing with a proper schematic structure, linguistic features, and ethics of academic writing even though several limitations are identified. The findings show that the academic writing practice can facilitate the character building in terms of developing the students' logical and moral reasoning through the reading and writing activities.

Surely, this can occur through the application of explicit teaching and group work throughout the genre-based approach teaching stages in the academic writing practice that enabled the lecturer to build the performance characters such as diligence and discipline; and moral characters such as honesty, caring, respect, and cooperation that guided them in their academic writing practice. Moreover, the findings confirm that character building can and should be conducted at the tertiary level of education (Colby, 2002) and teaching writing through the genre-based approach teaching stages can develop the students' character values (Hardini, 2013). Yet, this research has two limitations. First, this qualitative research is limited to a single case, which means that the result of this research cannot be generalised. Second, this research was conducted in one semester, which is sufficient to see how the students develop their characters, but it is not sufficient to see how the characters are internalised and practised by the students across the curriculum.

Conclusion

The aim of this research is to find out how an academic writing practice can facilitate character building to the student teachers of English education department of a private university in Pontianak, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. Explicit teaching and group work throughout the genre-based approach teaching stages enabled the researcher as the lecturer to develop the students' academic writing as a medium to communicate their logical and moral reasoning as suggested by the character education and genre-based approach proponents.

The researchers designed the academic writing practice that facilitates the development of the students' academic writing knowledge, skills, and characters as these aspects are inseparable in character building. The key is a teacher or a lecturer should be the role model of good academic writing by providing an explicit guidance to the students. The students were also equipped with social skills that enabled them to work as a team to reach a mutual goal. Still, this research is not without limitations such as the students' passiveness in learning and grammatical mistakes in the student's texts. These limitations require attention for the betterment of the academic writing practice. Moreover, future research can involve more cases in order to provide more complex and rich data. Then, a longer study is required to see how the good characters learned from the academic writing practice are internalised and practised by the students across the curriculum.

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Thai Students' Perceptions on the Direct Vs. Indirect Written Corrective Feedback: A Thai University Context

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Abstract
Feedback is an important skill and a valuable part of any language course. The term feedback has been used by various scholars to refer to both negative as well as positive error treatment in both natural settings and the instructional setting. Some researchers have raised objections to corrective use and have pointed out that it is unhelpful or even harmful for students' writing development. Yet others seem to have established evidence in support of corrective feedback. Nevertheless, very few studies have conducted an experiment on the effectiveness in terms of accuracy on business letter writing. This quasi-experimental study involving 63 senior students in two sections of business English classroom at an international university in Thailand were divided into two groups. Each group received one type of feedback. The group that received direct corrective feedback perceived it positively hence they showed better improvement when compared to the group that received indirect corrective feedback which was negatively perceived. Further investigation on different writing types and different native language (L1) background would contribute more to the field's literature as more debate on the effectiveness of written corrective feedback will still need further research to address many unanswered questions.
keywords: corrective feedback, direct corrective feedback, indirect corrective feedback, learners' perception, Thai EFL learners

Introduction

Among the four basic language skills, in recent years, the writing skill has become more necessary than the other skills (Grabe &Kaplan, 1996). The need to express opinions and thoughts through writing in the literate societies is very crucial. People are involved in many types of writing in their everyday lives such as personal diaries, business letters, proposals, etc (Grabe &Kaplan, 1996). As Hyland writes "for over half a century writing has been a central topic in applied linguistics and remains an area of lively intellectual research and debate" (2003, p.1). It is therefore highly acceptable that writing can be studied from a wide range of perspectives.

In an ESL context, English is spoken as a second language or acts as a medium of communication among people who speak different languages (Ellis, 2008) however, in an EFL context, English language is neither a primary nor a secondary language. In fact, in such context, English is considered as foreign language with very limited usage especially in classroom setting. Teachers dealing with English courses in EFL context, especially writing courses at this international university face many kinds of challenges – dealing with marking and correcting students' writing assignments. A survey of teachers and students of a writing focused English course at an international university regarding homework practices found that most students received written feedback on their written assignments from their teachers and all teachers reported giving such feedback (Parreno,2015). In giving feedback on students' writings, teachers employ various practices . He explains in his survey that there is no system or standard set by the university on how teachers should give feedback but the two most frequently used was the direct and the indirect corrective feedback. Hence, different ways of commenting on ideas, organization, and language use are common by writing instructors. While giving feedback teachers face day to day challenge of trying to find a right balance between effectiveness of feedback provided and efficiency in their usage of time.

Based on the aforementioned problems, a writing instructor is required to evaluate and provide feedback to students' business letter writing to help them constantly improve. Therefore, the series of writing, evaluating, rewriting and reevaluating require a great deal of time and energy for both the teacher as well as the students. So, it is important for the writing instructor to have evidence on the value of feedback they are providing to their students.

Many studies showed that feedback practices are still debatable as increasing number of studies have also been investigating whether certain types of corrective feedback are more likely to help than others. Truscott (1996, 1999, 2004) argue against the benefit of providing feedback. According to him, correction can only lead to a superficial and transient type of L2 knowledge. Hence, in his view error correction is considered to be entirely unnecessary and ineffective, or even harmful. According to Ferris (1999) if feedback is not provided then the student will not try to improve their writing skill seriously as they will not perceive its importance.

Ferrisc(1999, 2002) tries to refute Truscott's view on this matter and still recommends that instructors should continue to provide feedback until there is more and comparable research to prove otherwise. To elaborate, Ferris (1999, p.2) criticizes that Truscott's ideas are "premature and overtly strong." She and other researchers such as Ashwell (2000),

Chandler(2003) and Lee (1997) explain that if students are left without any feedback or guidance, their error will go unnoticed and eventually move to the phase of fossilization.

Besides, almost all studies revolved around the impact of corrective feedback in an ESL context (Bitchener et al.,2005; Sheen, 2007). Ellis et al. (2008) suggest that there is a need for more studies in EFL context. Hence, the findings of this study can provide insights to help us understand these points of views towards the usefulness of feedback and the influence of such feedback on students' L2 learning process. Besides, the findings can contribute to this field's literature with regard to the function of corrective feedback in learning English. Such knowledge is useful for teachers' consideration on whether or not using feedback in English lesson would be hinder or help their students. This study generally seeks the answer to the following question:

1. What are students' perceptions towards direct corrective feedback and indirect corrective on their grammatical errors?
2. Do the students' positive perception towards the corrective feedback result in better production?

Feedback and its Importance

According to Keh (1990) feedback is a fundamental element of a process approach to the teaching of writing. It can also be defined as input from a reader to a writer with the purpose of providing information to the writer for a better revision.

Feedback comes in different forms, and one of the most common is correction. Sadler (1989) links feedback to gap-filling in student understanding, and one way to fill the gap is to indicate to learners that they are either correct or incorrect.

Types of written corrective feedback

Language teachers who believe the value of error correction have different practices in giving corrective feedback. Written feedback in broad sense usually takes two forms; direct correction and indirect correction. Direct correction is done when the teacher corrects students' errors on their work by providing the correct structural or lexical forms (Lalande,1982; Semke, 1984; Robb et al., 1986). While in the indirect correction, the teacher points out the error by circling or underlining without providing corrections (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009) . The main distinction between the two is having the learner involve in the process of error correction.

Corrective Feedback and SLA theories' view on error

Several theories have been put forward into helping us understand language learning or language acquisition. However, the researcher would hereby discuss the theories of language relevant to second language learning and have implication on error correction or feedback.

Behaviorism

An outstanding theory of learning in the 1950s, behaviorism views language learning as similar to other kinds of learning, to put in other words, it is the learning as habit formation (Ellis, 1997). Skinner and many other behaviorists believed that children learn or acquire language through the process that he calls imitation. They would imitate anyone significant to their lives be it their parents or any adult. After having been exposed to language stimuli in their

context or environment, they will imitate. The habit formation will occur once these responses are reinforced through a series of repetition.

However, according to Ellis (1995, p.22) errors in this behavioral view is something "undesirable" and are considered to be products of "non-learning". These errors are to be avoided. Errors in the second language are considered as results of the interference of the first language. To elaborate, second language learners' knowledge or habit can influence and can be transferred to their usage or habit formation of their first language. Hence, they may commit errors when they speak or even write in second language. Moreover, contrastive analysis was initiated by behaviorists to determine the differences between the learners' first language and their target or second language.

It cannot be denied that behaviorism has a good amount of implications for language learning even though this view of language learning has been criticized mainly because it could not account for the fact that children produce some words or utterances that they might have never heard anyone speak before. So, there are certain critics who argue that language learning is far more complex process than a stimulus- response concept can explain.

Universal Grammar

Errors from the perspective of Universal Grammar are viewed as a natural part of learners' language system which is highly tolerated. As there are two types of input used by children to base their linguistic knowledge on. The first type is the positive evidence which is composed of what children hear while the second one is negative evidence which consists of lack of use of positive evidence and corrections. Therefore, correcting of errors can seem to be of minimal value. This is so because learners can revise their linguistic system through positive. Brown (1994) also mentions that as children develop their linguistic system, they also constantly revise their previous knowledge.

Interlanguage Theory

Selinker offers another Nativist view of second language acquisition which has its root in the Universal Grammar model of second language acquisition (SLA). According to Ellis (1997) Interlanguage refers to the language system that learners construct at certain stages of their second or target language (L2) development. From his perspective, L2 learners produce utterances that are different from their L1 and also different from the target language. Their interlanguage has its own rules. This system is influenced by internal and external factors and changes over time. Learners use various approaches in constructing their interlanguage before coming up with different rules at various stages of their target language development. However, fossilization of learners' grammar or rules is possible. This means that the learners may not reach their target language mastery even though persistent exposure is available and instructions are provided. They believe that errors were inevitable and it is an integral part for second language learners' acquisition process.

Similar to the Universal Grammar model, interlanguage theorists also believe that errors are a natural aspect of learning a language that one goes through especially in learning a second language. As the linguistic system of learners is transitional, their error corrections via teacher correction and self corrections can play an important role in shaping their interlanguage.

Therefore, a number of proposals were made regarding which errors should be corrected (Ellis, 2000). Firstly, the researcher attempts to distinguish between mistakes and errors and treat them differently. Secondly, many researchers distinguished global and local errors and conflicting arguments still exist whether which should be corrected. Thirdly, stigmatized errors are advised to be corrected as they invoke negative responses. Lastly, correcting errors need to be related to the learners' next stage of development.

The Input Hypothesis Model

The input hypothesis model also known as monitor model is one of the most debated model of L2 learning. As proposed by Krashen (1987), the five hypothesis model explained the language acquisition or language learning. Error correction has little or even no value for Krashen (1985) as he believed that linguistic structures and rules learned from the correction will not lead to language being acquired. Cook (2001) states that Krashen's model has been criticized even though it has some few evidences supporting it. Yet still the importance of comprehension on the part of the language learner is crucial. This means that L2 teaching methods and approaches which include error corrections should therefore be provided suitably in order for learners to understand and assist them to comprehend features or linguistics structures that they do not acquire as yet. Also, as this model encourages the process of acquisition through the natural communications, correcting errors can negatively impact learners' confidence and attitude towards using and learning a target language and may hinder their motivation in the acquisition process.

A number of scholars such as (Corder, (1967), Gass& Selinker (1994) and Ellis (1997) believe that ideas about errors produced by learners are significant for researchers to understand the learners. As Corder (1967) states when students are learning to acquire their target language, errors are indication of the state of students' knowledge. He clearly distinguished errors of performance to that of competence. Error of performance refers to mistakes which are usually one-time occurrences or equivalent to spoken language's slip of tongue. However, errors reflect learners' lack of target language knowledge. According to Ellis (1995, 1997) distinguishing errors from mistake can be rather complex.

Methodology

This study involving 63 senior students in two section of Business Communication in English II course was done at an international university in Thailand in the semester 3/2014. The two sections were handled by the same lecturer and were assigned to two different groups by tossing a coin. (Direct Corrective Feedback Group n = 32, Indirect Corrective Feedback Group n = 31). The ratio of male to female participants was almost equal, i.e. 47% males and 53% females. The participants were homogeneous in terms of age and first language background which is Thai. The average age of participants was 21.6.

Feedback was provided on four types of business letter writing practices in accordance with the university's course objective, i.e. informative, persuasive, positive and negative letter writings to both groups consistently. Students had to rewrite their letter writing tasks based on the feedback they received throughout the semester.

Direct Corrective Feedback was done by providing the correct forms above the incorrect words, phrases or sentences whereas the Indirect Corrective Feedback was done by underlining or circling the incorrect words, phrases or sentences without providing codes or correct forms.

Table 1. *Pre-tests and post -tests data*

	Direct Corrective Feedback (Group A)	Indirect Corrective Feedback (Group B)	Number of letter writings
Pre test	32	31	63
Post test	32	31	63

Table 1 shows the total of 126 business letter writings which were obtained from pre-test and post test of both groups. That is, 63 writings were obtained from the pre-test of both groups and the other 63 were obtained from the post test of both groups. The independent sample T-test was used to compare the result of pre-test and post tests of both groups. This statistical test revealed the number of errors by the students in group A and group B. The pre-test result (p= .34) verified the homogeneity of the two groups of students.

Table 2. *Error-counts for both groups*

Types of Error	**Group A (Direct Corrective Feedback)**		**Group B (Indirect Corrective Feedback)**	
	Pre test	**Post test**	**Pre test**	**Post test**
Wrong clause formation	34	20	30	11
Wrong or no subject formation	30	15	26	7
Incorrect Verb/Missing	8	6	22	10
Wrong usage of Relative clause	31	25	23	10
Pronoun error	10	4	24	6
Sentence Fragment	44	35	16	11
Run-on sentence	46	40	30	10
Spelling	7	3	11	13
Capitalization	11	6	6	6
Incorrect tense	29	21	39	5
Subject verb agreement	29	20	14	6
Quantifier	21	20	22	10
Word form	23	17	21	8
Word choice	13	7	16	9
Wrong	10	4	22	2
Singular for plural	24	19	30	4

Plural for singular	21	16	22	2
Conjunction	30	10	31	7
Preposition	50	43	37	17
Missing/misuse articles	36	29	20	9
Negation	33	22	26	12

As Ellis (2000) explains that the study of error treatment must have an operational definition and researchers should be able to identify incidences in a lesson however, this is still challenging for researchers. Hence, it is worth mentioning what counts as error and what doesn't. In order to analyze students' writing accuracy a number of students' writing errors needed to be pointed out. According to Wolf-Quintero et al. (1998, p. 33) looking for writing accuracy is to count the errors in students' production in "some fashion". In this particular study 21 grammatical errors were corrected based on Polio's (1997) error classification.

Questionnaire and Semi-structured Interview

Questionnaire, a survey-based data collection has been used to shed light on learners' views and perception of the usefulness of the feedback they received throughout the semester. As according to Dörnyei, (2003), questionnaire data can measure important areas in applied linguistics research. The instrument that the researcher used in this study was a questionnaire which consisted of 12 items each item in the questionnaire tries to address a particular issue in teacher feedback is sub-divided into three major categories : demographic data, students' perception of feedback they received and their preferences on the types of feedback. The percentage was analyzed and used to determine whether the participants perceived it to be positive or negative. An evaluation using the index of item-objective congruence (Rovinelli & Hambleton, 1977) is a process where content experts rate individual items on the degree to which they do or do not measure specific objectives listed by the test developer. The result of IOC from five experts in this study was no less than 0.8 which is considered as high.

Interviews are among the most frequently used research methods in applied linguistics (Block, 2000), one of the main reasons is because they can help researchers investigate phenomena that are difficult to retrieve from questionnaire alone. In this case, interviews were used to investigate students' beliefs and attitudes about issues relating to feedback. The objective of having this interview was to collect qualitative data on students' perceptions towards feedback they received. The semi-structured interviews were used as they allowed the respondents to clarify on issues according to the guiding questions (Dörnyei, 2003).

In this study, 12 students; six from each group was selected for a semi-structured interview according to their progress on the grammatical accuracy in business letter writing. The interviews were later transcribed in a light of salient themes and patterns. Based on the inductive analysis (Brice, 2005) the data were group into categories that reflected the major themes. The questions answered from the interviews revolve around students' perceptions of the feedback they had received throughout the semester. Most of the students who received direct corrective feedback showed positive perception and perceived that they improved significantly due to the feedback provided. However, students receiving indirect corrective feedback felt that the

instructor did not care to mark their papers and they were confused on what they need to do in order to improve.

For example, when the students were asked to explain how they benefited from the teacher's feedback. Some said that they benefited in improving grammar and others claimed that they benefited from the teacher's feedback. Below are the six responses from the direct corrective feedback group (DF) and the Indirect corrective feedback group (IF)

1. How do you benefit from your teacher's feedback? Please explain.

DF S1: *I think my grammar got better because sometimes in other subjects when teachers only underline, I don't know what to correct but in this class when you correct my grammar and you write the proper one for me I can learn and next time I think I try to use better words.*

DF S2 : *I think my weakness is grammar but when the teacher correct at first I was confused why I make so much mistake but later in the next assignments I think I try to be more careful and I go back to see the corrected words and I think I don't make those mistake again. Yes I like it and I think my writing is much better than before.*

DF S3: *Yes, I think I improved a lot. I try to write to make it better than my previous ones. I think my last work is much much better than my first work. I want to get every point correct.*

DF S4: *I benefit especially in grammar points. I understand preposition better and I think I will not write wrong preposition in my letter anymore.*

DF S5*: At first, I didn't like because its all red colour, my paper was full of correction. It make me feel sad. But I try to improve and I think I have already improved.*

DF S6: *actually because I hate grammar so much. I never thought I can get better. I think now I write better with fewer mistakes.*

IF S1: *first day I was very confused. I don't know what to do but when I try to check what was wrong I correct and next time I become more careful but I want the teacher to be specific and give me correct answer. I think I can learn better if I know the answer from the teacher. It's difficult to find myself.*

IF S2: *the feedback was good as I need to find out why you underline my work. Sometimes I can sometimes I can't but I try.*

IF S3: *I think I benefit but I want more help from teacher, I want to know how to correct. I am afraid what I think will not be correct again.*

IF S4: I *benefit a lot because teacher didn't correct for me so I correct myself and I learnt more and before I submit I can review and correct myself better and better each time.*

IF S5: I *did not benefit a lot because I still don't know where I can check the correct answers.*

IF S6: *I think today I can write and teacher will not give me a lot of circle like before. Because I know what is wrong, I don't write it again. My weakness was I always forget what article to use, so I double check myself carefully.*

2. Do you prefer that the teacher corrects your errors on the script or that she underlines your errors?

DF S1: I *prefer teacher correct for me because I am not sure what is correct.*

DF S2 : *I want teacher to give me the correct word because I am very weak.*

DF S3: *I am ok if teacher correct or underline because if I don't understand I will go and ask someone.*

DF S4: *I want teacher to correct. Because teacher corrects my work now I know what to use and what I cannot use.*

DF S5: *I don't like too many corrections, I feel sad to see and I have to show my parents and they will think I don't work hard.*

DF S6: *yes teacher should give me the answer if I do it wrong because its teacher's duty to check and correct for students.*

IF S1*: Teacher always underlines and let me find but I want teacher to correct as it would be easy for me. Sometimes I am busy and I don't have time to find the right answer.*

IF S2: *I like this way, it help me remember because I have to think and find the correct way to write the work but I think if teacher correct for me I can write better too.*

IF S3: *No, I don't want to have only circle or wrong but I want teacher to correct because I have poor grammar and I don't trust myself.*

IF S4: *I want teacher to give me hint like this just show me where I should improve more. I can find out my own mistake and do better next time. If you give all answer then I think I might forget soon.*

IF S5: *I like this way, I want to improve when you underline my wrong spelling and grammar. I think I can do it and you can see I have done better writing assignment.*

IF S6: *I think I prefer that teacher correct difficult point for me but most of the time small mistake I can do myself.*

3. Do you make changes on your writing based on teacher's feedback? Please explain.

DF S1: *yes I changed based on feedback that I get and I remember and do not make same mistake again.*

DF S2: I *see what I did wrong and I changed according to what teacher give feedback*

DF S3: *I changed my revision draft based on teacher's feedback because I want to write better with fewer mistakes.*

DF S4: *I always change after I get feedback from teacher and I remember my mistakes or the points that I do wrong and in my next writing I correct like teacher say and it make my writing better.*

DF S5: *yes I change according to feedback and eventually I get less feedback but I still change every time I get feedback to improve my writing.*

DF S6: *yes I do what teacher correct because my grammar is very bad so when I change it sounds better and next time I remember and try to use the form that teacher correct for me.*

IF S1: *yes I change my writing by thinking what should I correct when teacher underline and then I try to make it right sometimes I am not sure but I always try to do better.*

IF S2: *yes I try to change if I know what is wrong but if I don't know I still try but I am not sure if its correct.*

IF S3: *yes I always change the part that I made mistake, I think first why teacher underlined, and then I try to think of new way to say it or change it to be grammatically correct.*

IF S4: *yes I improve my writing based on teacher's feedback by looking at the mistake but I want teacher to be clear what is my mistake so I can really do better next time.*

IF S5: *yes I try to make changes according to teacher's feedback and make my writing better. I look to see which part I got underline and I try to find out my mistake and do not do again.*
IF S6: *yes I always change and correct by myself based on what teacher suggest. I look at points that I often do wrong and redo and it improve a lot now I think.*

Table 3. *Questionnaire data obtained from Direct Corrective Feedback Group*

Question	Students' responses (Direct Feedback)									
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Not Sure		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	No.	%	No	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%

I find my teacher's feedback on my writing beneficial	20	62.5	5	15.62	3	9.37	3	9.37	1	3.12
I understand my teacher's feedback on my writing	20	62.5	7	21.87	4	12.5	0	0	1	3.12
I would like to receive feedback from my teacher in the future	23	71.8	5	15.62	2	6.25	1	3.12	1	3.12
I prefer not to get feedback on my writing	2	6.25	4	12.5	2	6.25	20	62.5	4	12.5
Teacher's feedback on my writing help me to improve	24	75	5	15.62	1	3.12	2	6.25	0	0
My teacher's feedback makes me feel unwilling to do the task again	5	15.62	3	9.37	1	3.12	22	68.75	1	3.12
My teacher's feedback makes me confident of producing a better writing in the future	24	75	3	9.37	2	6.25	2	6.25	1	3.12
My teacher's feedback discourages me from producing a better writing in the future	1	3.12	2	6.25	2	6.25	4	12.5	23	71.8
I prefer when the teacher writes the correction of the error on my paper	22	68.75	5	15.62	3	9.37	1	3.12	1	3.12
I prefer when the teacher underlines the error without correcting it	2	6.25	4	12.5	5	15.62	20	62.5	1	3.12
I wish to receive more written feedback from my teacher	18	56.25	5	15.62	2	6.25	5	15.62	2	6.25
I do not think teacher's feedback is beneficial for me	2	6.25	1	3.12	2	6.25	20	62.5	7	21.87

Table 4. *Questionnaire data obtained from Indirect Corrective Feedback Group*

Question	Students' responses (Indirect Feedback)									
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Not Sure		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	No.	%	No	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
I find my teacher's feedback on my writing beneficial	5	16.12	2	6.45	5	16.12	20	64.51	9	29.03
I understand my teacher's feedback on my writing	3	9.67	2	6.45	2	6.45	21	67.74	3	9.67
I would like to receive feedback from my teacher in the future	4	12.9	4	12.9	2	6.45	15	48.38	6	19.35
I prefer not to get feedback on my writing	5	16.12	3	9.67	2	6.45	14	45.16	7	22.58
Teacher's feedback on my writing help me to improve	3	9.67	2	6.45	5	16.12	14	45.16	7	22.58
My teacher's feedback makes me feel unwilling to do the task again	14	45.16	5	16.12	3	9.67	3	9.67	6	19.35
My teacher's feedback makes me confident of producing a better writing in the future	3	9.67	3	9.67	2	6.45	5	16.12	18	58.06
My teacher's feedback discourages me from producing a better writing in the future	17	54.83	6	19.35	2	6.45	3	9.67	3	9.67
I prefer when the teacher writes the correction of the error on my paper	27	87.09	2	6.45	1	3.22	1	3.22	0	0
I prefer when the teacher underlines the error without correcting it	3	9.67	5	16.12	2	6.45	10	32.25	11	35.48

I wish to receive more written feedback from my teacher	22	70.96	2	6.45	2	6.45	2	6.45	3	9.67
I do not think teacher's feedback is beneficial for me	18	58.06	10		1		2	6.45	0	0

Results and Discussions

After a series of treatment in one semester, the next step was to detect the changes in students' writing accuracy. Paired sample T-test was employed to analyze the pre-tests and post-tests of the students in the same group. This statistical analysis revealed the progressive writing by the same subjects in their correspondence writing. Group A, receiving the direct corrective feedback improved significantly (p=.00) while Group B, receiving the indirect corrective feedback shows marginal improvement (p=.050).

Even though the value of written corrective feedback has been heavily criticized (Truscott, 1966, 1999, 2004, 2007; Ferris, 1999, 2004), this study has provided an evidence of the efficacy of error correction. Nevertheless, this study refute the claims made by researchers such as Krashen (1985) and Schwartz (1993) that correcting grammatical error can be entirely harmful and ineffective which may not provide positive outcome. The studies of Fazio (2001) and Lalande (1982) found corrective feedback to have a negative influence.

The findings of this quasi-experimental study are in line with some of the previous research work (e.g. Bitchener et al., 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, 2009; Sheppard,1992 ; Fazio, 2001) which state that written corrective feedback has a positive effect on grammatical accuracy of students' writings. However, the result contradicts the study of various researchers (Truscott,1996, 1999, 2004; Truscot and Hus, 2008; Ashwell, 2000) claiming that written corrective feedback did not show any effect on students' written work.

Turning to the findings of questionnaires, for the direct corrective feedback group there are many indications that feedback is highly valued. They believe that using the teacher's feedback helped them in improving their business writing, mainly in terms of grammatical aspects. Furthermore, students' interview answers amplify the results of the questionnaires as well as statistical data. Contrastingly, students receiving indirect corrective feedback, even though showed marginal improvement, they still perceive this type of feedback negatively. Most of them were confused when the instructor only underlines or circles their mistakes. They preferred to get more feedback in the form of direct correction. The result was in line with the interview. The findings theoretically imply that written corrective feedback in both forms of direct and indirect corrections can help in learning certain linguistic structures of a second language by helping learners notice the gap between their production and the target language's structure. Moreover, in the view of cognitive processing models of second language learning, awareness and understanding develop explicit or declarative knowledge and make that knowledge become more automatic or procedural. Apparently , the overall findings suggest that there is a strong bond between providing language learners with error correction and their

improved accuracy. However, writing instructor also needs to know how their students perceive the feedback they received in order to achieve the highest effect.

Recommendation for Further Studies

Firstly, in order to gain deeper insights, further studies need to be conducted on other types of writings. Also as Truscott (1996) mentioned, without incorporating measures of complexity in students writing, written corrective feedback may actually be brought about due to avoidance, so future studies should measure the lexical and structural complexity as well. Additionally, this study is only based on L2 learners from only one L1 background which is Thai. For future research, it is suggested that two or more different L1 background groups may be tested.

Conclusion

The researchers would conclude that it is definitely worth providing written corrective feedback which the students perceive positively as this would provide learner with opportunities to notice the gaps in their language development and test their interlanguage hypothesis. As students receiving direct corrective feedback positively perceive it to be beneficial, they value and think highly of it. According to them it is considered as being one of the useful tools in improving their writing skills. However, more debate on the effectiveness of written corrective feedback will still need further research to address many unanswered questions.

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Investigating Students 'Attitude towards E-Learning Model for Studying English in Delta University

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate students' attitude towards an e-learning English model named Learn English Pathways (LEP) . This course is assigned for freshmen students of Delta University, as a training material for accessing APTIS test. This research seeks answers for the following questions: 1. Does using e- learning software program influence students' attitude towards learning English as a foreign language positively? 2- What are the advantages of e learning in improving English language skills among freshmen students? To achieve the goals of the paper, a questionnaire was distributed to the subjects of this study. Its items aimed at eliciting whether the students think that using e- learning models enriched their learning process and made it easier or it had no effect on them. The population of this study was 100 of freshmen students at Delta University, during the academic year 2015- 2016. The students filled out a questionnaire and completed a course evaluation at the end of the experiment. The t-test scores were statistically evaluated. The findings of this paper reveal that LEP influences the students' overall attitude towards English learning language. The different activities that are provided by LEP have been described with an analysis of how they can be used to develop EFL students' language proficiency and self education.

Key words: *E-Learning, English classroom, Learn English Pathways, Student' attitude*

Introduction

The classroom environment, today, is completely different from the traditional classroom. The traditional methods which are mainly based on lecturing and rote learning reduce English language learning to mechanical memorization and miserably fail in developing English language as a skill among the learners. New technologies have added not only stimulus but also learners' engagement and true interactivity within the classroom.

In the context of such high tech learning environment, it's necessary for both teachers and students to get updated, equipped and involved with technology in education especially in ESP. They must incorporate such technologies in facilitating English Language learning. The use of Internet has given an immense opportunity for teachers and students to interact with each other in particular and with the world in general. (Computer Assisted Learning) CAL has contributed considerably in this direction. The evolving technical and technological scenario, especially in some developed countries of the world, has almost replaced the traditional classroom with a virtual global learning situation without a face-to-face interaction. Its impact is being seen in advancing countries where system of education is competing with the rest of the educational system of the developed world.

Research Background

Technology and language learning

Electronic education and learning is one of accomplishments of mankind which has affected the world tremendously. Since 1990 advancement in technology has led to increasing integrity of electronic-learning courses and also language learning courses.

The report of Soliman (2014) presents the advantages of the E-learning Moodle and its role in enhancing "English foreign language" (EFL) students' language skills and independent learning. An already running and established virtual learning environment, namely the E-learning Moodle software, is being used successfully in the British University in Egypt. The different activities and resources that are provided by E-learning have been described with an analysis of how they can be used to develop EFL students' language proficiency and independent learning.

Heidari et al (2010) have concluded that not only is the utilization of educational software in teaching useful, but also the effect of it on progress of students is better than conventional method. Similarly English teaching with the use of educational software is effective in motivation of students towards learning.

In a study carried out by Almekhalafi, (2006), 83 students were put in two groups of test and control. The control group attended English learning without the use of computer and the test group did with the use of it. The results of the study show considerable difference between the two groups leaving the advantage to test group. Besides the results showed that test group had more motivation to learn English than control group.

Kargiban Zohreh and Kaffash Reza (2011) study is to determine the effectiveness of the use of the attitude towards English learning at eleventh grade of the secondary school in Iran. This study was conducted on the effects of the use of My English Lab, an online model software program, on secondary school students. One part of the students accessed to the free download software (MOODLE) in the classroom instruction. The students took a t-test and filled out a survey and completed a course evaluation and qualitative survey at the end of the research. The t-test scores were statistically evaluated.

The objective of Zanjani and Ramazani study (2012) is to examine acceptance of e-learning technology carried out by English teachers and students based on technology acceptance model (TAM). In order to achieve the objective of the research, the researcher has employed descriptive-survey method and also questionnaire and interview with English students and teachers who constitute population of the research. To test the hypotheses of the research, the researcher has employed Pearson correlation test along with SPSS software. The results of the research indicate lack of Perceived ease use and Perceived usefulness of e-learning technology in teaching English.

The paper of Tanveer (2012) presents the findings of a research study at Majan University College, Oman, which aims at exploring the perceptions of students and teachers regarding the use of e-learning pedagogical tools in a language classroom, the challenges they face and some strategies to enhance the practical application of integrating e-learning tools in classroom-based language teaching (ICT). The study, following the qualitative and quantitative research approaches, interviewed eight English lecturers and administered a five-point Likert scale questionnaire with 46 learners. The qualitative data were analyzed using a coding system and quantitative data were analyzed using computer excel programme to get highest and lowest percentage of subjects' responses. The study finds that both teachers and learners perceive that e-learning: helps students take the ownership of their own learning, provides diversification of activities, fosters intrinsic impetus of learning, enables introvert students to interact better, permits acquiring valuable study and time management skills, allows teachers to have more student-centered form of learning, etc. However, reservations regarding excessive use of technology at the cost of language learning have also been reported. The paper discusses the challenges that hamper ICT success under three headings: technical, administrative and pedagogical. The major challenges reported are marginally less technologically sophisticated faculty, unreliable technology, lack of confidence and experience of instructors and students with technology, substantial amount of time required for lecturers to fine-tune their instructions for electronic transmission of knowledge, lack of e-learning resources to administer networked classes and electronic assessments, etc. The study concludes that ICT has great potential to be integrated in classroom-based language teaching. However, in order to utilize the full potential of ICT and to equip students with skills to be life-long language learners, it follows that teachers and learners' confidence to use technology should be raised by duly facilitating them with the required electronic equipment, training and time resources.

Learn English Pathway (LEP)

Learn English Pathways is a series of eight self-study modules for adult learners of English organized across the B1 to C1 levels of the Common European Framework of Reference CEFR (is a guideline used to describe achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe and, increasingly, in other countries. It was put together by the Council of Europe as the main part of the project "Language Learning for European Citizenship" between 1989 and 1996)

Each course is 30 to 40 hours long and aims to develop learners' language through a variety of flash-based interactive online lessons. These courses are moderated meaning that trainers can interact with and support course participants throughout. The following table shows the correspondence between the CEFR levels and Learn English Pathways:

Table1 *The correspondence between the CEFR levels and Learn English Pathways*

CEFR Level	Level of Learn English Pathways
A0	Elementary 1
A1	Elementary 2
A2	Pre-Intermediate 1
A2	Pre-Intermediate 2
B1	Intermediate 1
B1	Intermediate 2
B2	Upper Intermediate 1
B2	Upper Intermediate 2

Each of the eight levels that make up LEP is divided into six themed units, where language functions, vocabulary, grammatical structures and ways of interacting are linked to the subject of each unit.

Description of the methodology, instructional design and program structure

LEP is built on the principles of constructivism pedagogy on which the Moodle learning platform is built. LEP conceives language learning as a series of successive approximations towards the goals of study, and through mediated interactions with others (tutors and students), increasing levels and depths of knowledge are achieved.

Figure1 The different Levels of LEB

LEP is based on British Council methodology, which includes elements of the communicative approach, and functional and theme-based learning. Each course consists of six units relevant to adults working in a variety of roles and contexts.

Description of the program

LEP provides a virtual English learning experience that will take learners from level A0 to B2 on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Course participants engage with online activities and resources (30-40 hours).

Delivering *Learn English Pathways*

Using the British Council's online learning system. Moodle is the name of a web platform specifically designed to deliver courseware.

Learners are provided with individual accounts. The system remembers where they are in the materials and allows students to their check progress and scores, which are automatically recorded in the system's grade book. Teachers/administrators are also able to check their progress. **http://courses.britishcouncil.org/LEpathways/**

Figure 2 A sample of LEP exercises

APTIS forward thinking of testing

Introducing Aptis

Aptis is a new and innovative global English assessment tool from the British Council. It is an English test for adults and young adults, which can be used to assess ability in all four English skills - speaking, listening, reading and writing. It also allows organizations and individuals to develop specific English skills, with the ability to test just one skill, e.g. listening only (combined with the core grammar and vocabulary component).

Aptis is usually taken on a computer, but the Core Test, the Reading Test and the Writing Test can all be taken using the more traditional pen & paper test.

Aptis Test Structure

Aptis consists of five components: Core (grammar & vocabulary), Reading, Listening, Writing and Speaking. Different clients decide which components are needed for their situation, so you, the candidate, may be preparing to take a single component package (e.g. Core + Reading) a two-component package (e.g. Core + Reading + Listening) a three component

package (e.g. Core + Reading + Listening + Writing) or a four component package (Core + Reading + Listening + Writing + Speaking).

Methodology

This section presents a description of the instrument employed to elicit data as well as a description of the population and the area where the study was conducted. It also specifies the procedures which were followed to carry out this study.

This study aimed at determining the effectiveness of the use of E- learning model, named Learn English Pathways, on the attitude towards English learning language of Delta university freshmen students. The study is trying to find out answers for the following questions:

1. Does using e- learning software program influence students' attitude towards learning English as a foreign language positively?

2- What are the advantages of e learning in improving English language skills among freshmen students?

Subjects: The population was consisted of freshmen college students in Delta University. The sample was made up of 100 students enrolled in the first level during the fall of 2015 and spring 2016.

Questionnaire: a questionnaire was distributed to students and it was the main tool of the study since it provided the researchers with data related to the students' actual attitudes towards accessing Learn English Pathways, while learning English as a foreign language. (Appendix A)

The questionnaire is distributed after the assigned treatment of e learning course during 3 months. The students was given ID access to LEP by the British Council. They have the opportunity to practice free exercises in their accounts. English Labs was assigned to provide them with suitable feedback.

The students' attitude regarding the e learning course was determined. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS in order to prepare descriptive measures which involved means and standard deviations using the non-parametric test of mean differences, One-Sample Test as shown in Table1.

Results: Students' Attitude Towards Learning English with LEP

The students' attitude towards LEP model was examined in this paper. The acquired values are presented in Table 1. A questionnaire with Likert-scale was used to t test and to better understand the students' attitude towards LEP in learning English.

Table 2: *Students' Attitude Towards LEP*

Statement	M	SD	T	Sig.(2tailed)
1- LEP is useful for self learning	4.400	.507	33.606	000
2- Feedback is applied in English Labs to correct any mistakes in e learning LEP	4.333	.617	27.191	000
3- LEP upgrade my knowledge and skills in English learning language	4.266	.703	23.482	000

4- Technology tools that I used in English class were friendly	4.333	.4787	34.395	000
5- Overall, learning English language by LEP is interesting	4.466	.639	27.033	000
6- use contents from the website as a part of my English lessons is more useful than books and traditional methods	4.533	.516	34.000	000
7- It is easy to use the online educational resources and to access	4.466	.516	33.500	000
8- using e learning increases my creativity	4.666	.617	29.283	000
9- using the computer to enhance my communication skills.	4.600	.507	35.133	000
10- I become familiar with the different types of questions	4.266	.457	36.101	000

There were five choice ranging from strongly agree (=5), No idea (=3) to strongly disagree (=1) in each statement. * z, p> 0.05 (not significant,), p<0.05 (almost significant), p<0.01 (significant), p<0.001 (very significant).

A Likert-scale instrument with statements, each with five choices ranging from strongly agrees to no opinion/do not know, was used to assess students' attitude about ELP usage. The question was closed-ended. The result of the study is presented in Table 1.

It is clear that statement 1 is highly agree. Many students, at the end of their experiment, were agreed that LEP helped them to learn overall English language skills (Statement 1). Moreover, many students had the view that The use of a LEP was easy, friendly and effective on their creativity (statements 3,4,7). It helped them also to improve their communication skills (Statement 8). students' need for continuous feedback, reflected the main role of teacher in this process (statement 2).

Discussion, conclusion and Recommendations

Discussion

Considering the implementation of LEP e-learning course among Delta University students in Egypt, the researcher recommends the use of e-learning models in EFL and ESP lessons. Though it cannot replace face to- face method of teaching, e-learning models can be blended with face-to-face methods.

According to Garrison & Vaughan (2008) integrated curriculum through e-learning and face-to-face teaching can make learning more participatory, interactive and student-centered. LEP e-learning model open opportunities for students to engage in learning activities outside the classrooms giving the more exposure to the use of English language resulting in increased language proficiency.

An Analysis of LEP implementation in Delta University

This section discusses the analysis of advantages and disadvantages of implementing LEP model of e learning from the literature review and the researcher's own experience of using it with his students.

E learning (model) LEP course: Advantages

- LEP model increases students' exposure to language learning over the period of time resulting in their enhanced linguistic proficiency.
- Different e-learning resources and activities of LEP improve students' language skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- According to (Wu et al., 2012), „an integrated learning environment" is created through E-learning where students engage in different tasks. Strong learners and slow learners can work according to their needs either faster or slower (Nedeva& Dimova, 2010) promoting learner autonomy.
- E-learning is an interactive and learner friendly medium of teaching and learning.
- Due to its connectivity and exposure to the World Wide Web, the learners are motivated as they are exposed globally (Meloni, 1998). E learning provides EFL learners to use the language in real-life situation across the globe.
- It appeals to students' different learning styles as they can choose from a variety of activities and resources.
- Teachers can save time in administering the course, reproducing the materials, and reducing cultural differences that happen during face-to-face teaching.
- Administrators can reduce the cost of the production of teaching materials.
- Students are trained on the forms of international exams like TOEFL and IELTS.
- LEP model improve students' autonomy and self education.

E learning (model) LEP course: Disadvantages

Despite the above advantages of e learning implemented model, but there are some noticed disadvantages as follow:

- Lack of body language and face-to-face relationship and direct feedback.
- The slow shifting of some students from traditional methods of learning.
- New learners who lack computer skills may not appreciate e-learning models as it is especially in the absence of teacher support (Nielson, 2011)
- The social relationship among students is negatively affected due to the virtual nature of e-learning models (Han & Johnson, 2012).
- E learning is unsuccessful in institutions which do not have enough computer labs and e-learning accessibility.
- The need for intensive training on self education for students.
- The private laws of every institution that is depending on traditional methods for learning and testing (printed papers and traditional method of teaching by teachers).

Conclusion

Despite the above mentioned drawbacks the recommendation of the author is that e-learning models therefore can supplement face-to –face classroom teaching in Delta University. Various activities and resource that are offered by e-learning model LEP can surely advance Egyptian ESP learners" English language proficiency. Moreover, the Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is fast growing, and students need to be equipped for the international technological and economic requirement. It has proved successful, as students reach the intended learning objectives by this blended type of learning in which the concept conveys the idea of "blend" and refers to different situations in which technology is used to complement classroom activities (Dziuban et al., 2004). Thus, it is via e learning that teaching and learning

could be enhanced and developed, as students work in and outside the class which makes modules "more participated, interactive and student-centered" (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). Working outside class encourages students to study independently using the E-learning interactive activities and thus spend more time engaged and immersed in the English language which improves their language proficiency.

Recommendations

E learning is an essential tool that should be used to supplement the EFL face-to-face class. It includes various activities and resources that if used by the students and monitored by the teacher could enhance the students' language proficiency and independent learning. The wide variety of activities and resources on the E-learning model (LEP) needs to be activated in the English language Modules to increase the time that students interact with the language and motivate them to work independently and thus eventually they become life-long learners.

Finally, It is recommended to Follow universities which have been successful in utilizing E-Learning systems. It is necessary that universities pay a lot of attention to more E-Learning in the framework of strategic planning, moreover, Building essential infrastructure in order to establish and utilize E-Learning at them.

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Appendix A

Students' questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire is formed to get data about the assigned course (LEP). It tries to acquire your attitude towards e learning experience at all, in order to meet your expectation regarding learning English courses.

Appreciate your faithful participation.

Dr. Abdelrahman Elsayed AlAdl, English Lecturer –Delta University, Gamasa, Egypt.

Items (1-25) Tick any one from the five options (1-2-3-4-5) given below

(1- Disagree 2- Disagree to some extent 3- No idea 4- agree to some extent 5- Agree)

Name: College:

Department: Level:

Items	Content	1	2	3	4	5
1.	LEP is useful for self learning					
2.	Feedback is applied in English Labs to correct any mistakes in e learning LEP					
3.	LEP upgrade my knowledge and skills in English learning language					
4.	Technology tools that I used in English class were friendly					
5.	Overall, learning English language by LEP is interesting					
6.	Use contents from the website as a part of my English lessons is more useful than books and traditional methods					
7.	It is easy to use the online educational resources and to access					
8.	Using e learning increases my creativity					

Items	Content	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Using the computer to enhance my communication skills.					
10.	I become familiar with the different types of questions					

Appendix B

LEP Sample Lesson

Activity 1:	**Introductions – Unit 2**
Time:	20-30 minutes
Aim:	Learn and practise language for introductions / Become familiar with the topics to be covered in Unit 2 of LEP

- Introduce yourself and find out the names of some or all of the students in the class, asking *What's your name?* Occasionally respond saying: *Nice to meet you, [name]!* Check they understand the meaning of *Nice to meet you!* using translation if necessary.
- If the students don't know each other, get them to turn to the students sitting next to them and to introduce themselves to each other: A: *Hello, I'm (Adam).* B: *Nice to meet you, (Adam)! I'm (Ana).*
- Show slide 2. Say: *This is Karen and Paul*. *Do you think they are friends? (No.)* Tell them it is the first time that they meet. Refer to the fact that they are shaking hands which is common at first meetings. Ask: *What do you think they're saying?* Elicit suggestions: *What's your name? Nice to meet you. etc.*
- Show slide 3. Read the dialogue and get the students to guess the missing lines. Click to show the responses. Then read the dialogue again line by line, getting the students to repeat as a class. Put the students in pairs and get them to read the dialogue aloud, first as open pairs and then closed pairs.
- Show slide 4. Say: *Now you. Introduce yourself to your classmates.* Choose two students, preferably students that don't know each other well, and get them to read the dialogue using their personal information. If appropriate, you could get them to mingle around the class talking to different classmates asking and answering the questions.
- Ask: *What information might you want to know when you meet somebody for the first time?* Use Kurdish/Arabic if necessary. Show slide 5 for suggestions, check they understand meaning and get them to say if they think it is okay to ask about these things at a first meeting or not. There are no right or wrong answers; this is just an opportunity for some discussion and to introduce the main topics discussed in Learn English Pathways Unit 2. Explain to the students that in the coming weeks they will learn how to ask and answer questions about the different topics on the slide.

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The Level of Anxiety among Jordanian EFL Undergraduates in Oral Communication Performance

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Abstract

The main aim of this study is to investigate the level of anxiety of Jordanian English as a foreign language (EFL) undergraduates in oral communication performance in Jerash University, Jordan. This study is significant in determining student's level of anxiety and find solutions for reducing their anxiety. The sample of the study consists of 351 students and five lecturers. A 33-item questionnaire adopted from Horwitz et al. (1986) was used to investigate student's level of anxiety. 35 students and five lecturers sat for interviews. SPSS 22 was used in this study to analyse the quantitative data while NVivo 10 was used for analysing the qualitative data. The findings revealed that 60.7 per cent of the respondents showed that they experience anxiety while speaking in English. Qualitative findings from respondents suggest having collaboration between parents, lecturers and students, departure from current teacher-centered approaches, providing stress-free and congenial exercise of public speaking and debates. Future researchers are encouraged to add another research instrument when conducting studies investigating foreign language anxiety such as include students' journals to get more accurate findings.

Keywords: anxiety, levels, students, oral communication, ESL/EFL.

Introduction

The significant role of the English language in today's world urged researchers to examine several issues concerning the language, particularly those that assist learners' effective communication. Some of these issues comprise of factors that result in better fluency in English speaking and hence better English language performance in the context of foreign language learning. In fact, some of the fact that have been postulated to impact the performance of language learners in turn effect English language acquisition and one of the important factors is anxiety to speak English (Al Shboul 2013; Krishnan 2013; Little, 2003).

Anxiety to speak English was postulated to be among the major antecedents of student's Second Language Acquisition (SLA) as it directly impacts the inclination of the learners to communicate (Horwitz, 2001; Zhao Na, 2007; Canessa, 2006). According to some researchers, language anxiety is among the main determinants of language acquisition and proficiency. Literature dedicated to language anxiety is rife with studies that revealed a consensus of the negative association between language anxiety and language performance especially in the oral context (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

Background of the study

Jordanians students are facing big challenges in the four English skills but the most challenging skills that the students face is the oral communication skill. One of the reasons behind that is that English is not the mother tongue of Jordanian EFL students in which Arabic is used as their daily language of communication. Another reason is the lack of exposure to the target language (English) taking into account that communication in English occurs only inside EFL classrooms. Apart from that, Jordanian EFL students prefer to use Arabic in EFL classrooms rather than English. An important reason behind the weakness of Jordanian EFL students in the oral skill is that the whole process of teaching and learning in the Jordanian higher institutions is exam-oriented in which the focus of teaching is on grammar and reading comprehension while conversation and communication topics are treated with marginal focus (Jdetawy, 2011).

Due to the lack of research in the Jordanian EFL context, not much is understood about the reasons why students in Jordan face oral communication problems. However, in the literature on foreign language acquisition in general and oral communication in particular, a number of factors have been hypothesized to influence the oral proficiency of foreign language students. One of the factors that affect student's oral communication is anxiety to speak in English (Krishnan, Al_Lafi & Pathan2013). Anxiety over speaking in ESL/EFL context was signified by Horwitz et al., (2010) as 'communication apprehension and defined as an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated oral communication with another person.

The present study aims at finding student's level of anxiety of Jordanian EFL undergraduate students while speaking in English in general (inside and outside English classroom).

Anxiety and Oral Communication

In general, anxiety refers to the state wherein feelings of fear, worry, uneasiness and dread arise in an individual's nervous system (Bouras & Holt, 2007). In the perspective of psychiatry, anxiety is described as a normal feeling which comes up in the face of stressful situations. It is also referred to as useful to people in that it assists in dealing with a difficult

situation via encouraging coping mechanisms. Nevertheless excessive anxiety may prevent people from functioning, particularly in very stressful situations (Bouras & Holt, 2007). On the other hand, in the perspective of medicine, according to The American Heritage Science Dictionary (2005) anxiety is a state of apprehension and fear that stems from the expectation of a threatening situation.

However, in the present study, focus is laid on anxiety in the context of oral communication, specifically in second/foreign language learning contexts. In this regard, anxiety in the field of second language acquisition is described as the worry and negative emotional reaction that surfaces during the speaking or using of a second language (MacIntyre et al, 1998, p. 27). On a similar note, anxiety related to foreign language was defined by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1991) as self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours linked with classroom oral communication that stems from the unique process of such learning.

Countless of studies have been carried out to investigate the anxiety-second language achievement relationship. The first of these studies was carried out by Scovel (1978) who noted that pioneering studies on language anxiety reported mixed findings and observations. In this context, Young (1994) also conducted a comprehensive review about the previous studies on language anxiety. The researcher noted that some studies on foreign language anxiety reported a negative language anxiety-language performance relationship (e.g. Aida, 1994; Coulombe, 2000; and Saito & Samimy, 1996), while other studied found positive or no correlation between the two constructs (e.g. Chaistain, 1975; Kleinmann, 1977). Young (1994) is an advocate of Scovel's (1978) study that linked studies' mixed results to the lack of a reliable and valid instrument that measures language anxiety. He adds that majority of the studies dedicated to language anxiety had varying goals, objectives, definitions, and conceptual schemata, which made comparisons quite challenging (Young, 1994, pg. 4). In other words, Scovel's (1978) attributes such discrepancy in the findings to lack of consensus on a single measure to test language anxiety as these previous studies utilized various instruments depending on their various objectives and contexts.

Another study was carried out by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) to address Scovel's (1978) contentions. From their study, they argued that foreign language anxiety should be separated from other anxiety types and as such it should be described as distinct fears transferred to foreign language speaking. In addition, they stressed that anxiety in foreign language learning is complex self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours that linked to classroom language speaking stemming from the distinct process of such learning (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Horwitz, Horwtiz & Cope (1986) minimize the gap in literature by providing a conceptualization of foreign language anxiety as a specific variable. They claimed that prior studies fell short of defining the term and describing eits effects on foreign language learning (p 125). According to them, the conceptualization of foreign language anxiety as a specific variable would enable teachers as well as learners to determine and recognize its symptoms and outcomes. As a consequence of their study, a standard measure has been developed to identify the foreign language anxiety levels known as the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS).

Horwitz et al. (1986) brought forward a theoretical model in order to examine foreign language anxiety. The model assisted in filling the gaps existing between the two former approaches. Advocates of this proposed model addressed L2-related anxiety and referred to it as a type of anxiety felt by foreign language learners when confronted by the distinct experience of learning and using language on their own (L1). This is consistent with Gardner's (1985) contention concerning language anxiety in the learning realm, where anxiety is differentiated from the typical anxiety trait experienced in different situations. The model posits that anxiety is primarily linked to performance evaluation in an academic and social context and has therefore created parallels between L2-related anxiety and other three related performance anxieties namely, communication apprehension, Fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety.

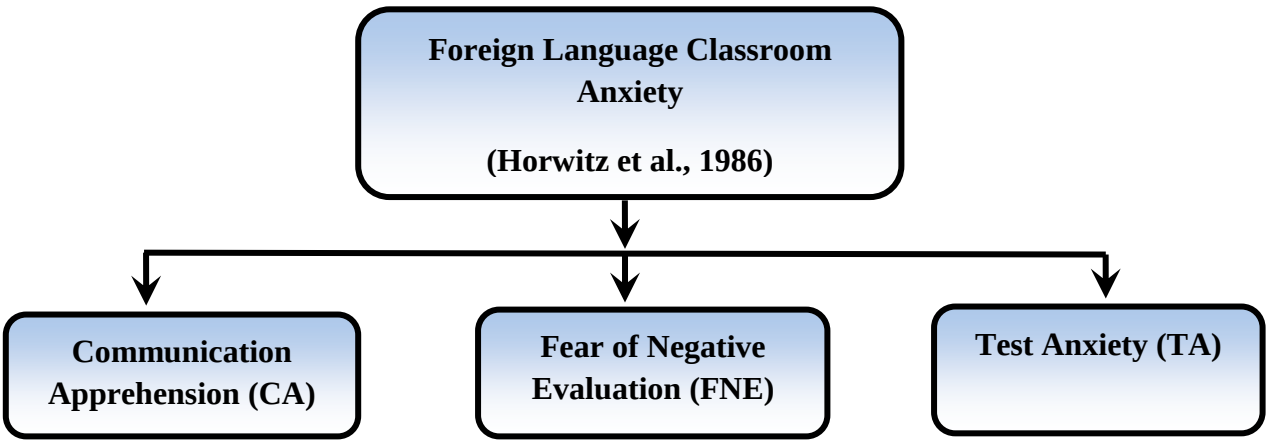

Figure 1: The Conceptual Framework of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Methodology

This study was carried out using qualitative and quantitative methods. The researcher employed an adopted questionnaire; 33-item questionnaire adapted from Horwitz et al. (1986), to obtain data regarding the students' Level of anxiety to speak in English (See Appendix A). The construct of anxiety contains of three dimensions, which are "communication apprehension", (CA), "fear of negative evaluation" (FNE), and finally "test anxiety" (TA). Added to this, the researcher also used the qualitative approach of collecting and analyzing data via semi-structured interviews with two groups (students and lecturers).

The sample of the study consists of 351 students taking English proficiency courses in Jerash University in Jordan. The qualitative components of this paper utilised semi-structured interviews with both; the students and their lecturers. A number of 35 students were randomly selected from the 351 students for the semi-structured interviews (focus groups) while five lecturers teaching these students were randomly selected for the individual interviews. Both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed in a particular order; first, the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was employed for the descriptive analysis of the questionnaire. The qualitative data from the interviews were analyzed thematically using NVivo software (Merriam, 1998; Erickson, 1986; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The Findings of the Study

The variable of student's level of anxiety experienced by Jordanian EFL undergraduate students was utilised on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree' (5) to 'strongly disagree' (1). In this study, the statistical analysis of the variable is grounded on this scale in which the overall judgment of the variable depends on the students' answers of the items. The following table (Table 1) shows the statistical analysis for the construct of anxiety.

Table 1

Statistical Analysis of student's level of Anxiety

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	14	4.0	4.0	4.0
	Agree	93	26.5	26.5	30.5
	Neutral	106	30.2	30.2	60.7
	Disagree	97	27.6	27.6	88.3
	Strongly disagree	41	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	351	100.0	100.0	100.0

It could be seen from table 1 that majority of the respondents answered the items of the construct of anxiety with 'strongly agree', 'agree', and 'neutral' with percentages of 4.0 per cent, 26.5 per cent, and 30.2 per cent, respectively. In other words and by calculating these percentages, this sums up to 60.7 per cent of the respondents showed that they experience anxiety, whether severe or moderate, while speaking in English. On the other hand, only 39.3 per cent of the respondents reported that they do not experience anxiety while speaking in English when 27.6 per cent responded with 'disagree and 11.7 responded to the items of the anxiety construct with 'strongly disagree'.

This finding seems to correspond with other findings from the literature regarding students' levels of anxiety. In this regards, Zreagat and Kaur (2014) conducted a study in Jordan on student's levels of autonomy and anxiety and the relationship between these two constructs with oral achievement. Their study showed that 70.62 % of the sample faces anxiety while they try to speak in English. Moreover, Muhaisen and Abed Al-Haq (2012) found that students face high anxiety when they try to speak in English whether inside or outside English classroom. The previous two studies were taken from Jordanian EFL students which in turn support the findings of this paper.

Previous studies are related to anxiety theory (FLA) by Horwitz et al (1986). In his theory, he stated that students face anxiety while speaking in English due to three main performance anxieties namely, "communication apprehension" (CA), "fear of negative evaluation" (FNE), and "test anxiety" (TA). In the excerpts below, the researcher used coding system. The following is the coding system was used: 'L' for lecturers, 'S' for the student, and 'FG' for focus group interviews.

Regarding the first components of this study; communication apprehension, students stated that they experience apprehension when they want to speak in English. The following excerpt addressing student's communication apprehension.

"I feel worried especially when my lecturer asked me to read or speak about something. I do not like to say something that others do not understand. So, I prefer always to remain silent"

[S5, FG2]

The student's excerpt above addresses the issue that he experiences anxiety when he attempts to speak in English. The student tends to avoid oral communication which means that this student experiences the first sub-variable of anxiety, communication apprehension (CA).

The second component is fear of negative evaluation. Most of students stated that they are afraid of being evaluated negatively by their lecturers if they commit mistakes while they try to speak in English. Students care about their marks so that they prefer to stay quiet and not speaking in front of their lecturers to prevent any negative evaluation. Students reported that their lecturers evaluate them negatively, however, their lecturers stated that they do not evaluate their students negatively if the commit mistakes during their oral conversations inside classroom. The following excerpt addressing student's fear of negative evaluation:

"I avoid speaking in English because I am afraid that my doctor will evaluate me negatively. Therefore, I prefer and chose not to speak"

[S3, FG1]

For the third theme of anxiety to speak in English, students stated that they experience test anxiety (TA) whether in their formal tests or when the lecturers asked them to provide answers for a questions that been asked inside their classrooms. Test anxiety refers to a "tendency to view with alarm the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluative situation" (Sarason, 1978, p. 214). The following excerpt was taken from one of the students addressing the third theme of anxiety:

"*I always keep thinking of what I want to say and this really makes me feel worried and in stress so I always tend to prepare for what I want to say so that others will not laugh at what I say"*

[S6, FG3]

In the above excerpt, the student has a feeling of anxiety connected with an evaluate situation. Therefore, students prepare what they want to say and tend to stay conscious of what they say because they are afraid of the consequences of what they will say inside their English classroom.

Similar results were taken from the lecturers to those generated from the quantitative results of the study (questionnaire) as well as from those generated from students' semi-structured interviews. Regarding the first component of anxiety, the data collected from the

lecturers reported that the respondents of the current paper do avoid communication in English. For example, a senior female lecturer reported that most of her students are afraid of communicating with her or with their classmates in English and only a few students participate inside the class. In this regards, she states:

"To be honest with you, most of my students do not speak inside the classroom and when I ask questions, four to seven students answer and the rest of them just keep quiet. Sometimes I ask those who keep quiet to answer and they do. They know the answer but afraid of speaking in English in front of their classmates. My students are anxious when they want to engage in any oral exercise. The students show some anxiety signs like trembling, speaking very fast just to finish answering the question. Also, some of the students they start to panic as you can see it on their faces".

[L4]

When the researcher asked one of the lecturers about whether students experience anxiety when they attempt to speak in English, a senior male lecturer answered:

"First of all my students rarely participate inside the classrooms. And when they do, they just give short and direct answers to the questions I ask. They do not answer the question if it needs long answer. Even when they do, they show sign of anxiety such as trembling voices, hesitation, and long pauses and many other signs. A lot of them feel shy or afraid of asking what I say even when they do not understand and prefer to remain silent. They do not have self-confidence in their ability so they remain silent"

[L1]

As far as CA is concerned, the lecturer stated that his students experience CA when speaking inside the classroom. For example, when the researcher asked a junior male lecturer whether students feel anxious when participating in the class, he responded as follows:

"Yes, my students show signs of anxiety and worry when participating inside the classroom. Our students feel afraid of speaking anything in public whether in front of their lecturers or in front of their classmates. They are afraid and worried"

[L3]

Another junior female lecturer reported that her students show physical signs of anxiety when they speak in English. Some of these signs are trembling voices, sweating, red faces, and hesitating. In the literature, these signs reported to be experienced by students who are anxious. Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) in their study about language anxiety reported that students develop physiological signs when they feel anxious while speaking in English. Some of these signs are an increase in heart rate, sweaty palms and foreheads as well as tension. Young (1994, p. 430) also reported that anxious foreign language learners may experience "distortion of sounds, inability to produce the intonation and rhythm of the language, 'freezing up' when called on to perform and forgetting words or phrases just learned or simply refusing to speak and remaining silent." The following quote was taking from a junior male lecturer addressing that Jordanian EFL students experience anxiety about communication:

"My students do not participate inside the classroom, It is obvious when I see their faces and the way that they responses when I asked them to participate. My students show signs of anxiety when they want to engage in any oral exercise some of them start to speak very fast just to finish answering the question. Others start to panic as you can see it on their faces"

[L5]

As for FNE, a senior male lecturer reported that Jordanian students in general tend to avoid speaking inside classrooms because they are afraid of being evaluated negatively by their lecturers. He stated:

"I think that many students avoid speaking inside the classroom because they are afraid that their lecturers will evaluate them negatively"

[L1]

He continue in saying that lecturers do not evaluate their students negatively and he keeps telling them that committing mistakes is the best way to learn to speak the language and if you do not commit mistakes you will never speak. The following quote was taking from him:

"Not at all, I always keep telling them that committing mistakes is the best way to learn to speak the language and if you do not commit mistakes you will never speak. I even tell them that I will evaluate you negatively if you do not talk"

[L1]

As for TA, a junior female lecturer reported that many of the students avoid participation inside English classrooms because they are afraid of the consequences of their participation. The lecturer explains that some students prefer to remain silent in order their lecturers will not form a bad impression about their English performance. In this regards, she states:

"I always keep telling them not to be afraid of committing mistakes or even being afraid of evaluating them negatively. I keep reminding them that inside the lecture, you speak whatever you want even if you commit mistakes as I am here to correct your mistakes to avoid them whether in their oral test or most importantly, when communicating in English outside classroom"

[L5]

Conclusions and Recommendations

The current paper reached a main conclusion which is Jordanian EFL undergraduate students in Jerash University in Jordan do experience anxiety when they attempt to speak in English whether inside or outside English classroom. This section is providing some recommendations that may help Jordanian undergraduate students to reduce their anxiety level.

One of the practices is that the lecturers use Arabic language (students' mother tongue) to communicate with their students. This practice was reported by the students as well as their lecturers. Experts advice teachers and trainers not to use the native language when teaching second/foreign language (Swain et al., 2011). In this case, Arabic can be used to bond the use of English language inside English classroom but cannot be used to replace it. This will backward

students' learning process and in turn make students anxious and not sure of themselves when attempting to speak English taking into account that students need to find the exposure to the target language and this exposure necessary to learn to speak the target language (Griffiths, 2008). Thus, this study recommended that the Ministry of Higher Education in Jordan should know that this phenomenon takes place for one of two reasons: lecturers are not aware of the issue of using the mother tongue and its impact on the learning process of second/foreign language acquisition or they abandon the process of learning due to the student's low oral communication levels. To overcome these problems, educational policy makers in Jordan should design and implement training courses for lecturers on the appropriate approaches of teaching English language for communication proposes.

Another important finding this study reveals that students tend not to participate inside English classroom because they are afraid of having clashes of ideas with their lecturers if they go against their lecturer's opinions. Some students reported that their lecturers take it personally when their students go against their opinion in specific issue. One of the students stated that he had encountered personal problem when she tried to question her lecturer about a particular issue. Lecturers should encourage their students to speak and discuss inside the classroom regardless this opinion goes with the lecturer's opinion or against (Aguirre, Haggerty & Linder, 1990).

The findings of the current paper also reported that lecturers do not concentrate on oral communication skills while their focus is more on reading, writing, and listening skills. The fact that lecturers are not aware of that English nowadays used by 1.5 billion people in the world for communication purposes more than using it for the other language skills (Graddol 2006). Focusing on conversation skills will develop student's communicative language skills and in turn reduce their level of anxiety. To achieve so, lecturers should focus more on oral communication and give their students the chance to speak and express their different views.

Most of the respondents; lecturers and students reported that the number of the students inside each class is big as most of the classes contain around 70 students in each class. This make it difficult for lecturers to give their students more oral communication activities, also, it makes it difficult to engage in communication between the students themselves. Thus and therefore, the researcher believes that the Jordanian Ministry of Higher Education should understand the importance of English language in helping the whole reform in Jordan whether economically, socially, and politically. Students in Jordan should get more opportunities to learn to speak in English. This can be done by making more efforts and among these efforts is increasing the assigned financial budget for teaching English especially focusing on the communicative part of it. By doing so, more classrooms can be provided which in turn make it easier for lecturers and their students to engage more in English activities, also, more lecturers will be recruited.

Hence, it is recommended that lecturers help their students to participate more inside their English classrooms. Moreover, policy makers and Jordanian Ministry of Higher Education should pay more attention on student's learning process by providing all the materials needed to come up with better English students. These changes will diffidently need a lot of money and time as it will be a big transformation of Jordanian EFL classrooms but the government of Jordan should keep in mind that education is the key for success of every aspect they seek. This

investment should become the priority over any other investment because communities developed and transcend through education. If the Jordanian government invested in this kind of investment, Jordanian students will have the opportunity to participate and play an important role in the future of Jordan.

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APPENDIX A

The Adopted Questionnaire on Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, adapted from Horwitz et al. (1986).

FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY

(Horwitz et al., 1986)

استبيان عن الرهبة والخوف لدى الطالب عندما يتكلم اللغة الانجليزية

No.	Items (العبارة)	SA اوافق بشدة	A اوافق	N محايد او اوافق بعض الشيئ	D لا اوافق	SD لا اوافق بشدة
1.	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English. لا اكون متاكدا من نفسي عند الحديث باللغة الانجليزية					
2.	I DON'T worry about making mistakes in English class. لا اقلق عند ارتكاب اخطاء داخل محاضرةاللغة الانجليزية للمحادثة					
3.	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.					

	ارتجف عندما يتم سؤالي داخل محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية					
4.	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the English language. يساورني الخوف عندما لا افهم ما يتكلم مدرس اللغة الانجليزية داخل المحاضرة					
5.	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English language classes. لا امانع من اخذ المزيد من محاضرات اللغة الانجليزية					
6.	During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course. اجد نفسي افكر بأشياء ليس لها علاقة بمحتوى الدرس خلال محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية					
7.	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am. تراودني دائما فكرة ان الطلاب افضل مني باللغة الانجليزية					
8.	I am usually at ease (comfortable) during tests in my English class. لا اشعر بالقلق واكون مرتاحا خلال امتحانات اللغة الانجليزية					
9.	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class. اشعر بالارتباك عندما اضطر للكلام بدون تحضير داخل محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية					
10.	I worry about the consequences of failing my English class. اشعر بالقلق من تبعات رسوبي في مادة اللغة الانجليزية					
11.	I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes. لا افهم لماذا يتضايق البعض من محاضرات اللغة الانجليزية !					
12.	In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know. اثناء محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية يراودني القلق لدرجة انني انسى اشياء اعرفها احيانا					
13.	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class. اصاب بالحرج اذا تطوعتبالاجابة في محاضرات اللغة الانجليزية (لذالك افضل عدم الاجابة)					

14.	I would NOT be nervous speaking the English language with native speakers. لا يراودني الشعور بالقلق او عدم الارتياح عند الحديث باللغة الانجليزية مع الاجانب الناطقين بها					
15.	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting. اشعر بالاستياء عندما لا افهم المدرس حينما يصحح الاخطاء لي او للطلاب الاخرين					
16.	Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it. اشعر بالقلق والارتباك في محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية حتى عندما اكون مستعدا بصورة مسبقة للدرس					
17.	I often feel like not going to my English class. غالبا ما يراودني شعور باني لا اريد حضور محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية					
18.	I feel confident when I speak in English in my class. اشعر بالثقة عند الحديث باللغة الانجليزية داخل المحاضرة					
19.	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make. اخشى ان يقوم مدرس اللغة الانجليزية بتصحيح اي خطأ ارتكبه عند الحديث باللغة الانجليزية					
20.	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class. احس بتسارع دقات قلبي عندما يتم توجيه سؤال لي في محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية					
21.	The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get. كلما درست اكثر لامتحان اللغة الانجليزية كلما احترت اكثر					
22.	I DON'T feel pressure to prepare very well for English class. لا اشعر بالضيق او الضغط عند التحضير لدرس اللغة الانجليزية					
23.	I always feel that the other students speak the English language better than I do. اشعر دائما ان الطلاب الاخرين يتحدثون اللغة الانجليزية افضل مني					
24.	I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of the other students.					

	امارس الرقابة الذاتية على نفسي خلال حديثي باللغة الانجليزية امام الطلاب الاخرين					
25.	English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind. اشعر بالقلق خوفا من عدم تمكني من متابعة محاضرات اللغة الانجليزية					
26.	I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes. اصاب بالقلق والعصبية داخل محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية اكثر من المواد او المساقات الاخرى					
27.	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class. اشعر بالقلق والحيرة عند التكلم داخل محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية					
28.	When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed. اشعر بالراحة والثقة وانا في طريقي الى محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية					
29.	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says. اشعر بالضيق او عدم الراحة عندما لا افهم كل كلمة يقولها مدرس اللغة الانجليزية					
30.	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak the English language. اشعر بالرضى عن عدد القواعد التي يجب ان اتعلمها للتحدث باللغة الانجليزية					
31.	I am afraid that the other students in the class will laugh at me when I speak in English. اخشى من ضحك الطلاب الاخرين عندما اتحدث باللغة الانجليزية داخل المحاضرة					
32.	I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the English language. اشعر بالراحة عند وجودي مع الناطقين باللغة الانجليزية (الاجانب)					
33.	I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance. اشعر بالاستياء وعدم الراحة عندما يسألني مدرس اللغة الانجليزية اسئلة لم احضر لها مسبقا					

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The Universal Nature of the Qur'an's Phonetics

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Abstract:
This study compares the phonetic rules of the Muslim's holy book, the Qur'an, to the phonetic rules of the English language in an effort to prove that the Qur'an's phonetic rules cannot be linked entirety to the holy Qur'an, nor the Arabic tongue; but rather they date back to the time the human tongue was created to function. The Qur'an's phonetic rules were discussed in detail under the subject known as "Tajwid" (pronounced "Tajweed") but were not compared to the natural speech mechanism in other languages. In doing so, this study demonstrates the common features in the phonetic environment of some Arabic and English speech sounds when they co-exist in a connected speech pattern. Based on the several examples this study illustrates, the author suggests that the differences between the Qur'an's phonetic rules and our innate speech mechanism are only some melodic touches that help differentiate reciting the Qur'an from other sorts of Arabic literature.

Keywords: Arabic phonetics, phonetics of the qur'an, tajwid

Introduction

In proving the innate and universal features of the Qur'an's phonetics, this paper will not explain manners or points of articulation, nor functions of the speech organs, as these aspects have already been fully researched. Because the Qur'an's phonetic rules have always been regarded as a difficult subject to learn and apply, this paper provides a new approach to the Qur'an's phonetic rules and invites speakers of other languages, who are interested in the subject, to look into their own languages and verify the universal nature of the Qur'an's phonetics by making similar comparison and see if they reach the same conclusion.

Discussion

An example of the public sources that connect the Tajwid rules to the Qur'an's recitation is the Encyclopedia Britannica (n.d.). It identifies the Qur'an and mentions its phonetics under the article on Impact of Qur'an in the Arabic Literature. It says that "the Qur'an is primarily an oral phenomenon, something to be recited and intoned (the latter involving a highly elaborated skill known as tajwid)." The Oxford Dictionary of Islam (n.d.) also identifies the phonetics of the Qur'an under the subject "Tajwid" as "the Art of Quran recitation. Also known as qiraah (reading, recitation)."

In order to prove whether the above statements are "*true or false*", this paper discusses the phonetic environment of four types of speech sounds when they co-exist in connected speech. These are:

1) Sounds that use adjacent points of articulation: the Arabic sources describe these sounds as"*الحرفان المتقاربان*". Letters /l/, /r/, the corresponding letters to /ل/ and /ر/ are good examples.
2) Sounds that use the same parts of our speech organs but differ in the manner they are articulated: the Arabic sources describe them as "*الحرفان المتجانسان*". Letters /d/ and /t/, the corresponding letters to /ت/ and /د/ serve as good examples.
3) Identical speech sounds: described in the Arabic sources as "*الحرفان المتماثلان*".
4) Independent speech sounds: described in the Arabic sources as "*الحرفان المتباعدان*". Letters /n/ and /h/, the corresponding letters to /هـ/ and /ن/ will be used as examples.

1) Sounds with adjacent points of articulation / In Arabic "Al-mutaqaribanˮ:

When one says: *already, all right, ball room or* ،*قل ربي* ،*بل ربكم*, s/he phonetically says: *arready, arright, baurroom.* ،قُـ رَبي ،بَـ رَبكم where the /l/ sound is involuntarily dropped from the pronunciation in both languages and the two sounds are pronounced with a single tongue motion as double /r/ in the middle in exactly the same speech pattern. This pattern takes place innately because the /l/ sound's pronunciation is not complete as the tongue moves up to pronounce it, but goes down pronouncing double /r/ instead. If we try to utter physically each letter (l and r) in the above examples by moving our tongues twice, one for each letter, our tongues will flutter and fail to speak correctly. Therefore, our innate nature interferes in no time and drops the /l/ sound without distorting the message.

The Arabic phonetic sources used in this study describe dropping the /l/ sound in the above examples and similar phonetic environments as "*إدغام متقاربَيْن*", (Assimilation of sounds that use adjacent places of articulation). This assimilation takes place innately without any conscious effort on our part no matter what language we speak.

In the above examples, the two sounds (l and r) co-existed with no vowel in between. If they co-exist in a vowel's environment, the /l// sound will not disappear in both languages in exactly the same speech pattern. This action takes place because the vowel's existence between the two sounds allows for a tiny period of time that gives a chance to the tongue to move smoothly between them in a manner permitting each letter to be comfortably pronounced and clearly heard. Therefore, if one says *naturally removed* or قولُ رَبي حق, the /l/ and /r/ sounds will be uttered clearly with a separate tongue motion for each in both languages.

2) Homorganic speech sounds /In Arabic "Al-mutajanisan":

The Arabic and English phonetic sources used in this study agree on the identification of the homorganic speech sounds in that they use same parts of our speech organs. Murray (1995, p.105) says that "Any two sounds (not just nasals and stops) occur next to one another and share the same place of articulation, they are said to be **homorganic."** In identifying the same sounds, Chalker & Weiner (1994, p.189) write: "**Homorganic:** Phonetics of two or more speech sounds: articulated in the same place. English /p/, /b/, and /m/ are **homorganic**, all three being bilabial sounds. Similarly, /t/, /d/, and /n/ are **homorganic**, since they are all alveolar." These sources grouped together speech sounds that use the same place of articulation, but differ in the manner they are articulated. This is also how the homorganic speech sounds are described in the Arabic sources. al-Ḥamad (1986, p.396) and al-Jarmi (2001, p.21) describe the homorganic speech sounds as sounds that use the same place of articulation but differ in the manner they are articulated.

Both languages classify sounds /t/ and /d/, the corresponding letter to / ت / and / د /; and letters /b/ and /m/, the corresponding letters to / ب / and / م / as homorganic speech sounds. When one says *sub marine*, s/he co-articulates the /b/ and /m/ in the middle with a single lips' occlusion. Similarly, when one says يا بني اركبْ مَعنا, s/he also articulates the / ب / and / م / in the middle with a single lips' occlusion. The Arabic phonetic sources used in this study describe this speech pattern as إدغام متجانسين, (Assimilation of homorganic speech sounds). This Arabic phonetic rule does not introduce a new speech pattern to our innate tongues. The same assimilative tendency exists in the English language and it is described by Abercrombie (1967, p.142) as *nasal plosion* which, he says, "takes place when a stop is immediately followed by a homorganic nasal (that is, a nasal made by the same articulators as the stop is). It is easy to observe, at the transition from the [b] of submarine to the [m] that no movement of the two lips, the articulators, takes place". Letters / t / & / d / the corresponding letter to / ت / and / د / are also classified as homorganic speech sounds in both languages. When one says: *a hot day*, and أُجِيبَتْ دَعوتكما, or *not dizzy*, and صامتْ دَهراً, s/he phonetically drops the /t/ sound and pronounces an additional /d/ in the middle without prior intention in the same speech pattern in both languages**.**

When the /d/ precedes the /t/ as in *hard times*, قدْ تبين الرشد, *Mac and Tom* or لقدْ تَقطَّعَ, we raise our tongues to pronounce the /d/ sound in the middle, but our tongues fail us and go down, against our wishes, pronouncing an additional /t/ sound instead, forcing us to utter the two different sounds with a single tongue motion as two t's in the middle in a timely manner.

In explaining the above speech pattern, Laver (1994, p.359-360) uses a phrase like *good times* to explain the tongue´s physical behaviour when uttering this phrase. He says that "in this example, both stops involved are incomplete, in that the [d] lacks an audible explosion, both

auditorily and articulatorily, and that the [t^h] lacks an onset phase, since the tongue tip/blade is already in a position of alveolar closure. The two stops here are **homorganic**– that is; they are made at the same place of articulation." About the same speech pattern, Kenyon (1940, p.53) says that this type of speech pattern exists when a voiceless + voiced, such as "td" co-exist, and the opposite where voiced + voiceless such as "dt" co-exist "there will be one closure and one release instead of two closures and two releases in which only one of the sound will be heard." Torres, (2001, p.21) speaks about this type of assimilation and describes it as "Voicing assimilation". He gives an example of which as in "*sit down*".

In Arabic, this speech pattern is described in Tajwid sources such as Al-Ḥamad (1986, p.396) and al-Jarmi (2001, p.20) as assimilation of homorganic speech sounds (*إدغام متجانسين*). This can be taken as an indication that the Qur'an phonetic rules do not introduce a new pattern to our speech mechanism as our speech organs apply this rule innately without any vocal intervention on our part, no matter what language we speak.

Table 1 illustrates the identical speech pattern where one of two co-existing homorganic sounds will be assimilated naturally in connected speech.

Table 1 *Assimilation of homorganic speech sounds co-existing with no vowel in between*

English examples	Arabic examples
Bent tie, sent torn, Kent told that. Pronounced: ben t^hie, sent^horn, Kent^hold that	"قامت طّالبة ، بغت طّائفة ، دعت طّويلاً Pronounced "قامَطّالبة ، بغَطّائفة ، دعَطّويلاً"
Blunt team, light teeth, salt tear Pronounced: Blunt'team, lit'teeth and salt'tears Note the remaining sound of the aspirated / t^h/ after being assimilated.	ضغطتّم ، بسطتّ يدي ، فرطتّ، أمطتّ اللثام Pronounced: ضغطُّم ، بسطُّ يدي فرطّ، أمطُّ اللثام Note the remaining sound of the letter /ط / after being assimilated
"Knock the earth this time once". Pronounced:"Knock the ear'this time once". "Beneath the roof" pronounced: "Benea'the roof"	لم أرث ذّياب ، يلهث ذّلك ، لا تنكث ذات يوم Pronounced: لم أر ذّياب ، يلهـذّلك ، لا تنكـذّات يوم

3. Identical speech sounds /In Arabic Al-mutamathilan:

In English, the identical speech sounds co-exist in the form of a same letter, such as the two t's in *a smart teller* and *a cat tail*. They may also co-exist as diagraphs, such as the /f/ sounds in *a graph face, a tough film* or a *cough phenomena*

When one says *a smart teller* or *a cat tail* and *إذا طلعتْ تـزاور* or *فما ربحتْ تجارتهم*, one stressed /t/ in the middle – that is pronounced with a single tongue motion and takes place unintentionally – is uttered and clearly heard in both languages. Similarly, when one says *an annual lease* or a *formal league* and *قلْ لهم* or *لم يجعلْ لكم*, s/he naturally and unintentionally pronounces one stressed /l/ in the middle with a single tongue motion in both languages. If phrases such as *a lab boy* or *إذهبْ بكتابي* are uttered, the /b/ sounds in the middle will be co-articulated at the same time with a single lips' occlusion in both languages. When the identical

sounds include a diagraph such as the /sh/ in *crush sugar*, they will also be pronounced with a single tongue's motion as the two /ش / sounds in عِشْ شَبابك تفياً in exactly the same speech pattern.

The pattern illustrated above is a phonetic rule described in the Qur'an's phonetics as إدغام متماثلَيْن (assimilation of identical speech sounds). We do nothing to apply the rule as it takes place innately without prior intention or any physical effort on our part. If the two identical sounds are nasals, such as the two /m/ in لهم مغفرة, or the two /n/ in من نذير, the Tajwid adds a melodic touch. The reader speaks naturally but elongate his /her nasal sound a little.

4) Independent speech sounds/ In Arabic "Al-mutaba'edan":

The Arabic phonetic sources used in this study describe this type of speech sounds as those sounds that use distant parts of the speech organs. Examples are sounds /n/ and /h/; and /n/ and /a/when they co-exist in all phonetic environments.

Table 2 demonstrates the identical speech pattern and clear pronunciation of two independent sounds when they co-exist in a connected speech:

Table 2 *The identical pattern of independent speech sounds co-existing with no vowel in between*

English examples	Arabic examples
Enhance, inhaul, inhale, manhole, Manhattan, ten habits, seven hats.	منهم ، منهل ، أنهار، إن هو ، كن هادئا ، من هفواتك
An apple, an argument, an ambition, an almond, an accent, in uttering, an umbrella.	"منأى ، أن أقيموا ، من ءامن ، من إذا

All the Arabic phonetic sources describe the above blue underlined speech sounds as الحرفان المتباعدان (al-mutaba'edan). When they co-exist in any context, no assimilation will take place. The Arabic phonetic sources refer to this rule as "الإظهار", meaning "manifestation" or "clear pronunciation". It also takes place innately with no physical intervention on our part in both languages.

Table 3 illustrates the clear utterance of the /n/ sound if it is followed by vowels o, i, and e, when they resemble a hamza-like pronunciation.

Table 3 *The identical pattern of independent speech sounds co-existing in a vowel environment*

English examples	Arabic xamples
In old days.An orange, an obstacle, an opponent.	إن أولئك ، أن أوذي ، كن أمة
An elephant, an element, an indemnity, an imagination	أن ائت، من إطعام، كن إماما

Assimilation - الإدغام

All Arabic sources dealing with the Qur'an's phonetics speak about two patterns of assimilation. Al-Ḥamad(1986, p. 395), al-Jarmi (2001, p.20) and al-Ṭawil (2000, p. 133-136) divide the assimilation into two types; إدغام كامل (a complete assimilation) and إدغام ناقص (an incomplete assimilation). The English phonetic sources also agree with that and divide the assimilation into complete and incomplete assimilation. Abercrombie (1967, p.137) writes "It is useful to distinguish complete assimilation from incomplete or partial assimilation; these latter also entail an economy of effort in the movements of the organs of speech, but to a lesser

degree". On the same subject, Kenyon (1940, p.71-72) writes: "All assimilation is based on the tendency of the organic positions for one sound to become the same in part or entirely as the organic positions for a neighbouring sound."

The English phonetic sources explain why we naturally assimilate. Below are some examples:

- Boggs (1927, p.21) says that "Forces causing assimilation are anticipation, inertia, and economy of movement."
- Abercrombie (1967, p.135) writes: "The result of assimilation is to reduce the number, or the extent, of the movements and adjustments which the speech-producing organs have to perform in the transition from one word to the next."
- Bauer...[et al.] (1980, p.155) say that "Assimilation can be viewed as a process which facilitates the pronunciation of a word or phrase by making adjacent sounds as similar as possible without distorting the message. It is one manifestation of the principle of least effort. This means that assimilation can be seen as a minimization of movements of the organs of speech."

The Arabic phonetics sources fully agree with the above justification in that assimilation makes it easy to pronounce any co-existing speech sounds that use the same or adjacent parts of the speech organs. Among those Arabic phonetic sources are Al-Ṭawil (2000, p. 131), al-Jarari (1981, p. 55), and al-Jarmi (2001, p.20).

The /L/ allophones in the name of Allah / In Arabic " Lamul-Jalalah":

The Qur'an's phonetic sources say that the /l/ sound in the name of the almighty God "*Allah* " has two vocal variations:

1) Lamul-Jalalah can be pronounced with the mouth open wide and the tongue assuming a spoon-like shape, as in أن يشاءَ اللّـه or يقولُ الله .
2) It can also be pronounced with a mouth not open wide and in a neutral tongue motion as in: بسمِ الله

In the course of proving the universal nature of the Qur'an's phonetics, one may ask whether the vocal variations of Lamul-Jalalah exist in other languages; or it is entirely confined to the Qur'an's phonetics?

The answer to the above questions can be found in some English phonetic sources. They refer to the /l/ vocalic variation as the "*L allophones*" and divide its vocal variations into "*Dark L*" and *"Clear L*". The difference between them can be felt in the pronunciation of the letter /l/ in *land* compared to its sound in *large*, where the mouth is open wider and the tongue is taking a different shape. The Encyclopaedia for Kids, K. (n.d.), describes the two types of the /l/ sound as follows:

> English has the alveolar lateral [l], which in many accents has two allophones. One, found before vowels (as in lady or fly), is called clear [l], pronounced with a neutral position of the body of the tongue. The other variant, so-called dark [l] (found before consonants or word-finally as in bold or tell), is pronounced with the tongue assuming a spoon-like shape (n.d.)

Roach (2009, p.13 & 17) also speaks about two vocal variations for the /l/ sound; "clear l" as in *lily* and "dark l" as in *help* and *hill*. Knowles (1987, p.77) writes that RP and Southern English have a clear [l] as in *leap* and *glue* and a dark [l] as in *will* or *ball.* Abercrombie (1967, p. 63) agrees with Knowles in that the pronunciation of people from the south of England has the two types of /l/ and gave the two /l/'s in *little* as examples, where the first /l/ is often described as a clear l, and the second as a dark l. In his description to the *dark l* and *clear l*, Abercrombie makes a special reference to *Lam uljalalah*. He says that "The Arabic language contains a number of pharyngalized segments. The l in the middle of the word *Allah* 'God' is an example of one of these¨.

This study suggests that our tongues assume the same spoon-like position if the "*Dark /l/"* is uttered when one says "*يقولُ الله".* In the Qur'an's phonetics, this /l/ vocal variation is described as "*لام مفخمة*" (lam mufakhama). The "clear /l/*"* described above in *lily* and *leap* is similar to the one mentioned in the Qur'an's phonetics as *"لام مُرَقَّقَة"*(lam muraqaqah), when one says *بسمِ الله*. Our speech organs do nothing to modify the tongue's behaviour when both types of /l/ are pronounced as explained.

Qalqala

The Qalqala (***القلقلة***) is a speech pattern discussed in the Qur'an's phonetics. It is also discussed in the English phonetic sources and described as "Plosion". Roach (1991, p.17) writes: "a plosive is a consonant articulated with the following characteristics:

- One articulator is moved against another, or two articulators are moved against each other, so as to form a stricture that allows no air to escape from the vocal tract. The stricture is, then, total.
- After this stricture has been formed and air has been compressed behind it, it is released, that air is allowed to escape.
- If the air behind the stricture is still under pressure when the plosive is released, it is probable that the escape of air will produce noise loud enough to be heard. This noise is called plosion.

The Oxford English Dictionary (1991, p.1056) also named it "Plosion" and described it as "the eruption of breath involved in uttering a plosive. Hence 'plosional a., of or pertaining to plosion."

Al-Ḥamad (1986, p.302) and Uthman (1987, p.115) divide the physical process of producing the plosive sounds into three stages in exactly the same manner described above by Roach in that the plosive sound's production goes through 3 stages; 1) a complete stricture; 2) voice's release; and 3) a sound following the release of the compressed air. What the Tajwid rules add to this natural plosion is a stronger puff of air to be exhaled when the plosive sound is uttered if not followed by a vowel or if it coincides with a pause in our connected speech pattern.

Rules of the /N/ sound. In Arabic "Ahkam a-noon a-sakinah" أحكام النون الساكنة***:***

The Qur'an's phonetic sources discuss four situations for the /n/ sound when it is not followed by a vowel:

A. It can be converted into another sound «إقلاب النون الساكنة».
B. It can be assimilated «إدغام النون الساكنة».

C. It can be concealed «إخفاء النون الساكنة».
D. It can be pronounced clearly «اظهار النون».

A. Conversion. In Arabic "Al-iqlab":

This conversion takes place when the /n/ sound is followed by /b/. The conversion will take place naturally no matter what language we speak. When one reads "*Unbelievable*", the word is phonetically articulated "*Umbelievable* ". When «*أنبـئوني*» is read, «*أمبئوني*» is uttered instead. In the Qur'an´s phonetics, this speech pattern is described as conversion of the /n/ sound into /m/ *الإقلاب*/ (Iqlab), إقلاب النون الساكنة إلى ميم. Pavlik, (1959, p.11) gives an example of this conversion in a phrase like "*on board* " and describes this speech pattern as "Auditory Assimilation". On the same topic, Fromkin & Rodman (1993, p.232) write "Another rule that occurs in the world's languages changes the place of articulation of nasal consonants to place of articulation of a following consonant. Thus, [n] will become [m] before 'p' or /b/".

This Qur'an's phonetic rule of *Iqlab* does not change our natural speech mechanism or introduce a new speech pattern. It only adds a musical touch. This can be achieved if the reader sings it by elongating his/her nasal sound a little to say "U....nbelievable " and «أ.. نبئوني». Our innate tongues take care of the physical manner of conversion but the reader beautifies his / her reciting by adding a little music. This is why the author of this paper suggests that the difference between Tajwid and our innate speech mechanism is not more than some melodic touches.

B. Assimilation. In Arabic "Al-idgham":

An example of assimilating the /n/ sound in a neighbouring consonants is clearly heard when it is followed by /m/. Abercrombie (1967. p.136), Bauer ... [et al.], (1980, p.154) and Wells (2006) say that when "*ten minutes"* is uttered the /n/ will change to /m/ and will be uttered "*tem minutes"*. The same speech pattern takes place in Arabic. When we say: *من مَال* or *مِنْ مَحيص* there is a tendency to raise the tongue to pronounce the /n/ sound, but the tongue fails to rise in such cases and the lips get naturally blocked-up to pronounce /m/ instead with a nasal sound heard for a tiny period in between. The tongue failure to rise in such cases is a Qur'an phonetic rule described as:" *إدغام النون الساكنة في الميم*", (Assimilation of the /n/ sound in a following /m/). The assimilation takes place without any forcible intervention on our part.

Table 4 *Conversion of /n/ to /m/ sound when they co-exist with no vowels in between*

English examples	Arabic examples
Environment, government, ten minutes Pronounced: Enviroment, goverment, temminutes	من مَّحيص ، من مَّال ، إن ملكت ، كن مُّطيعا Pronounced: مِـمَّحيص ، مِـمَّال ، إ مَّلكت ، كُـمُّطيعا

In reciting the Qur'an, the reader adds a tuneful touch to his/her natural, unintended assimilative pattern. This can be achieved by blocking the lips a little longer when uttering the /m/ sound in the Arabic phrases mentioned in the above examples and in other similar speech environment.

C. Concealment. In Arabic "Al-ikhfa'a":

C.1: /n/ followed by /k/:

When one says إنكر or *Incur* the tongue naturally fails to touch the /n/ point of articulation (at the alveolar ridge), but the /n/ nasal feature is produced smoothly in no time before the /k/ sound is uttered at the velar position in both languages.

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) describes this /n/ speech pattern as a "*velar nasal*". Clark (2007, p. 88) and Kenyon (1940, p. 97) indicate that the symbol in the IPA that represents this sound is ⟨ŋ⟩. In the Qur'an's phonetics, this speech pattern is described as *concealment* of the /n/ sound in a following /k/, (*إخفاء النون الساكنة في الكاف*). What the Qur'an's phonetics add to this natural change of sound is only some music. When reading the Qur'an, the reader should add a melodic touch to her/his natural concealment pattern by elongating the nasal sound a little to say: إ...نكر-I...ncur.

C.2.The /n/ sound followed by 'th' as in "anthem":

When we says *ten things - Anthem* الأنثيين- مِنْ ثَمره, our speech organs pronounce the nasal sound + 'th' in exactly the same speech pattern in both languages. The Arabic phonetic sources describe this pattern as *إخفاء النون الساكنة في الثاء* (concealment of the /n/ sound in a following "th" as in thump). This change of sounds is also a phonetic pattern that exists in the English language. Bauer...[et al.] (1980, p.154) refer to this change of the /n/ sound and give examples of which as in *anthem, enthuse*, and *tenth*. T. W. Hill (1821) as cited by Abercrombie (1967, p.113) refers to the same change of the /n/ sound as in *anthem* and describes it as *dental nasal*; and Pavlik (1959, p.14) describes it as *"Dental assimilation*". The Tajwid does not introduce a new speech pattern. It only adds some music to this natural speech pattern. The reader should elongate her/his nasal sound a little to add to their reading a tuneful touch that beautifies her/his reciting pattern.

C.3. Other concealment examples:

The concealment of the /n/ sound in which the /n/ is only present by its nasal feature but not the tongue motion also takes place when it precedes sounds j, z, g as in "strange", t as in 'tell' and 'tie', sh as in 'shine, th as in 'this'; 'thin'; and 'thy', s as in 'salt' and 'sell', d as in 'dill' and 'dull' and f as "famous" and "pharmacy", examples of which are shown in table 5.

Table 5 *Similarity of the /n/ concealment pattern in a following consonant*

English examples	Arabic examples
Faint,grant, broken toes, stolen toys	كنتم ، منتهى ، أن تقولوا ، إن تسألوا .
Injection, sponge, strange.	ينجي ، منجم ، من جاء ، عن جنب
Mandate, brand, , Indonesia, brain damage	مندوب ، عندنا ، من دساها ، إن دامت
It was eaten there. It was broken that day	من ذَا الذي ، منذر ، أنذرهم، إن ذللتم
Green zoo, enzymes, bronze, Tanzania.	أنزل ، تنزيل ، كنز ، من زكاها.
Insane, consent, fence, pence, urban sand	إنسَان ، إن سَألتم ، منسَأته ، كن سويا .
Sunshine, insured, French, mansion, Intention, in shelter.	أنشره ، أنشط ، من شاء ، من شر
African sun, urban soil, frozen sardine	أنصتوا ، من صلصال ، كن صبورا
Indulge, in darkness, broken dummy.	من ضل ، منضدة ، إن ضاع .
American tie, Asian tar, Urban tunnel.	من طيب ، إن طال ، كن طيعا

Strengthen thyself, the food eaten thus far.	إن ظلم ، أن ظلوا ، من ظمأ
Infinity, conference, urban pharmacy.	أنفسكم ، منفعة ، من فيها

In the above examples, the /n/ sound is present only by its nasal feature but no tongue motion was made to touch the /n/ point of articulation in both languages. The Qur'an's phonetics add some music to this natural speech pattern. In reciting the Qur'an, the reader needs to elongate her/his nasal sound a little when reading the blue underlined Arabic sounds in the above examples and in any similar phonetic environment.

C.4: Concealment of the /m/ sound:

Table 6 illustrates the similarity of the speech pattern in Arabic and English when the /m/ sounds precedes /b/ with no vowel in between. It is easy to feel during the transition from the [m] to the [b] in both languages that no movement of the two lips takes place.

Table 6 *Assimilation of the /m/ sound in a following /b/*

English examples	Arabic examples
Combine, embody, cucumber, embezzle. Call him by tomorrow, a dam barrier	أم به جنة، ترميهم بحجارة، هم بارزون، كلبهم باسط ذراعيه

The Qur'an's phonetic sources used in this study say that the above /m/ speech pattern is an application to the phonetic rule of *concealment* الإخفاء (*Al-ikhfa'a)*. According to the Arabic sources, the /m, م / sound is said to be concealed, not assimilated, because it is still represented in part by its nasal sound. When we block our lips to pronounce the /m/ sound, the voice released produces a /b/ sound in both languages with a nasal sound smoothly uttered in between.

Tamkeen elongation. In Arabic "Mad al-tamkeen":

In the Qur'an's phonetics, this is the type of vowel's stress and short elongation found in words and phrases such as *"الأميين"، "النبيين" "الذي يوعدون"*. When uttering words such as *kidney year*, *messy yield*, this study suggests that the pronunciation of the two vowels in the middle is made in the same speech pattern described in the Qur'an's phonetic sources as *Tamkeen Elongation* (مد التمكين).

Imala (*slanting or inclination).*

Imala is a widespread accent in the Arabic language. It exists in the Qur'an in one position in the word مجريها (Hood, 41). One may ask whether this speech pattern exists in other languages. This study suggests that the vowel following the /r/ sound in مجريها is similar to the one described by Roach (2009, p. 28) as a *hesitation sound*. He gives examples of which in words like *bird*, *fern*, and *purse* and says that it is the one used in most English accents as a hesitation sound (written 'er')". This study also suggests that the vowel sound in words like *rain*, *rail* or *rays* is slanted in the same speech pattern as that the word مجريها demonstrates.

Conclusion and recommendations

It remains to be discussed those letters that have no corresponding sounds in the English language. This study suggests that should they have existed in the English or any other

language, they most likely have been pronounced in exactly the same speech pattern whenever the vowels' environment is identical.

Elongation is also a subject that was discussed in all Arabic phonetic sources in detail. This study suggests that all elongations are not connected to the way we pronounce the speech sounds from a physical point of view, but rather to musical scale rules as the elongation does not change the physical behaviour of the articulators, it only adds some music to the way the sounds are produced.

The comparison can continue to include more aspects of the Qur'an's phonetic rules that apply to the English language, but still all public sources attribute those phonetic rules entirely to the Arabic language, and more specifically to the recitation of the holy Qu'ran. This study suggests that, based on the analysis presented, the Qur'an's phonetic rules are not connected to the Arabic tongue, but rather, it is the way the human tongue was created to function.

The writer of this study invites speakers of other languages, who are interested in the subject, to look into their own languages and make similar comparison in order to verify the universal nature of the Qur'an phonetics.

Note: The definitions and citations used in this paper were gathered from reliable phonetic sources on the internet, in addition to Arabic and English phonetic references available at the USA Library of Congress. More references on the subject can be found at the Library of Congress online catalogue at https://catalog.loc.gov/ .

About the Author:

Amina Amer is an independent researcher with a special interest in the Arabic phonetics. Her interest in the Qur'an's phonetics stemmed from her desire to help some non-Arabic speaking friends and family members understand the Qur'an's phonetic rules, who advised her to conduct her research in a scientific manner that can help any individual interested in the subject.

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The Use of Communication Strategies among Indonesian Young Learners of English in Early Total Immersion Program

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Abstract

This study aims at describing how Indonesian young learners of English act in responding to the interlocutor's move to keep a conversation going. The research questions are (i) what speech functions are involved in the kindergarten students' conversation; and (ii) what communication strategies are used by the learners? The participants of the research are kindergarten students of *Mondial School* of the Academic Year of 2015. The study uses descriptive qualitative research. The section of analysis is move(s). The learners' speech is recorded, transcribed and identified to figure out what speech functions are involved in the conversation. The data are then analyzed and interpreted to reveal what communication strategies are used by the learners. The findings suggest that the learners use communication strategies involving four major speech function choices: opening, continuing, react responding, and react rejoinder moves. The leaners produce initiation and react-responding the most. Opening in the form of demanding information and react responding in the form of replying answer moves are mostly realized through declarative clauses. Regardless the incongruent or congruent of mood types, it proves that they are able to sustain the conversation. The learners use three basic types of communication strategy: interpersonal negotiation, logico-semantic negotiation, and "channeling" negotiation. It is reasonable to argue that their conversation is natural. The conversation is also meaningful because the children are involved in the process of exchange. It is recommended that total immersion program can be applied in Indonesia as it provides precious opportunities for learners to speak.

Key words: communication strategies, move(s), negotiation of meanings, speech functions, text

Introduction

Being able to speak English is a dream come true for most Indonesian learners of English. Unfortunately, English has been considered as foreign language in Indonesia where English is taught as a school subject that makes it difficult for the learners to have access to spoken English outside the classroom. Kirkpatrick (2008) states that English is the second language of educated urban elites and the first foreign language taught at schools in Indonesia but with limited success. Equipping learners to carry out ordinary conversation in English is therefore a challenge to be faced by English teachers in Indonesia in order that learners are able to negotiate meanings. English teachers need to know what to teach so that learners are able to negotiate meanings. This study is aimed at describing (i) what speech functions are involved in the kindergarten students' conversation; and (ii) what communication strategies are used by the learners. Communication strategies here refers to the one which enables learners to keep a conversation going by relating the learners' contribution to what has been said previously by the other interactant(s). This study focuses on investigating communication strategies at the discourse semantic level.

Literature Review

A study conducted by Nguoi & Ahmad (2015, p.175-190) aims at exploring Limited English Language Proficiency (LEP) learners' meaning negotiation in communicative tasks. It is found that meaning negotiation can be a potential platform to facilitate language development among learners, particularly through clarification requests which can create the linguistic urgency to push LEP learners to expand their inter-language. This study implies that meaning negotiation strategies is an issue needs to be addressed further. The present study is similar in concern but distinct in the way that it focuses on young leaners and that the method used is discourse-semantic-oriented.

Edward (2009: 5) argues that the way teachers view young children tends to be influenced by early childhood education. Teachers' beliefs and values are in turn influenced by these views. The present study addresses the issue of early childhood education, particularly their language acquisition. She states:

> Early childhood education tends to influence the way teachers view young children, including the way young children learn and grow. These views in turn influence teachers' beliefs and values about how they can best meet young children's needs within an educational context (Edward, 2009: 5).

According to Rod Ellis (2006: 31) an attempt to explain L2 acquisition including the systematic development of the learner's language is the central issue of the study of learning foreign language. A mental system of L2 knowledge which is often referred to as inter-language is reflected in systematic development of learners' language. The present study is concerned with the issue of children's inter-language particularly their communication strategies to sustain a conversation.

Ortega (2009:2) argues that within a biological window of four to six year of age children acquiring their first language complete the feat. However, different L2 learners may begin learning the new language range wildly. The subjects of the present study are the children who

are exposed to English when they are two years old. It is likely that English is the first language they learn and speak. He states:

> Children acquiring their first language complete the feat within a biological window of four to six years of age. By contrast, the ages of which different L2 learners may begin learning the new language range wildly (Ortega, 2009:2)

Cremin (2009:1) remarks that teaching and learning English is developing children's competence and building positive attitudes of learning. Ignoring children's affective or creative development as language learners is therefore considered the poorest performance of teaching and learning the language. The present study is an endeavor to portray the process of teaching and learning English which is assumed to focus on developing children's competence and building positive attitude of learning. Cremin states:

> Teaching and learning English is, at its richest, an energizing, purposeful and imaginatively vital experience for all involved, developing youngsters' competence, confidence and creativity as well as building positive attitudes to learning. At its poorest, English teaching and learning can be a dry, didactic experience, focused on the instruction of assessable skills, and paying little attention to children's affective or creative development as language learners and language users (Cremin, 2009:1)

Anderson & Anderson (2003:1) state that a world of words is where we live. One is regarded to create a piece of text when he puts these words together to communicate a meaning. One constructs a text when he speaks and writes to communicate a message. The present study deals with how children are creating and constructing a spoken text.

Thornbury (2005: 6) points out that wherever we are texts are present. One among the significant units of language is text. The present study focuses on the text created by the children as a significant unit of language. He states:

> We live in a world of text and we are surrounded by text: in our homes, in the streets, at work and at school. From an aesthetic, social or educational perspective it is the text which is the significant unit of language. (Thornbury 2005:6).

Halliday (2004:3) suggests that the term "text" refers to any instance of language, in spoken or written form, which is meaningful to the interlocutors. One can focus on the text either as an object or an instrument to find something. He states:

> The term 'text' refers to any instance of language, in any medium, that makes sense to someone who knows the language Text is a rich, many-faceted phenomenon that 'means' in many different ways. We can distinguish two main angles of vision: focus on the text as an object in its own right; two, focus on the text as an instrument for finding out about something else (Halliday, 2004:3)

Celce-Murcia, et. al (2000, p.9) argues that in order to manage old and new information the speakers need to control turn-taking system. It is a feature of discourse in conversation. The present study describes how the turn-taking system of the children's interaction is at work. She states:

> In conversation, in addition to managing new and old information in a coherent way, the interlocutors also have to take stock of and constantly monitor each other to control the

> turn-taking system of the target language in question since this is another feature of discourse in oral interaction (Celce-Murcia, et. al., 2000, p. 9)

Although a turn is the most obvious unit of discourse it cannot be used to analyze speech functions of a conversation, since one turn may consist of more than one move. One move represents one speech function. Halliday (in Eggins & Slade, 1997.p.185) points out that the discourse patterns of speech function are expressed through moves. In other words, a move is a discourse unit. It can be defined that a move is a discourse unit through which a speech function is expressed.

As discourse units, the moves are expressed in language through clauses (Eggins & Slade, 1997: p.185). However, clauses are not discourse units. They are grammatical units. A clause is grammatical unit (which can be in the form of a sentence, a phrase or a word) through which a discourse unit (such as a move) is realized in language. A move and a clause are distinct units; a move is a discourse unit whereas a clause is a grammatical unit. Moves in a conversation (spoken discourse) are classified into four major categories: (1) Opening moves; (2) Continue sustaining moves; (3) Responding react sustaining moves; (4) Rejoinder react sustaining moves (Eggins & Slade, 1997: p.192)

Interpersonal negotiation occurs when the speakers are negotiating their feeling and attitudes. Eggins & Slade (1997, p.74) claim that interpersonal negotiation occurs when the speakers are negotiating the mood element in the clause. The mood elements, which are subject and finite make the interpersonal negotiation possible. Meanwhile, *Logico-semantic* negotiation occurs when the speakers are negotiating message or news. The speakers are negotiating the residue element in the clause. The residue elements, which are predicator, complement, and adjunct make the logico-semantic negotiation possible. The presence of complement in dialog enables the speakers to do the logico-semantic negotiation.

Method of Research

The objective of this study is to describe how Indonesian young learners of English at *Mondial School* act in responding to the interlocutor's move to keep the conversation going regardless the length of the exchange and what types of negotiation of meanings they demonstrate and prefer. This study uses a descriptive qualitative research. In enhancing the qualitative analysis in this study the quantity of the data are used as a means. The data are interpreted by drawing heavily on words to explain conclusions by using descriptive qualitative research. Conversation's transcriptions of kindergarten students of *Mondial School* in Semarang in the Academic Year of 2015 are used as the data of this research. One semester observation is conducted to take the data. The young learners' activities in some classes of Language, Mathematics and Dramatic Play are recorded to obtain the data. While the young learners are playing and having break time are also recorded.

The data collecting is conducted through a number of steps including exploring students' activities at school by observation; using audio and video recording as well as note-taking to obtain data; selecting and reducing the video recordings to get appropriate ones for the study; conducting video transcription into written form; and carrying out transcription documentation to be analyzed. Transcription key by Eggins & Slade (1997, p.2) is applied in transcribing the data.

A systemic functional perspective to see authentic discourse data is applied in this study as the type of analysis proposed.

Communication strategies at the discourse semantic level are the focus of the investigation in this study. It means that what has been said previously by other interactant(s) to be related to the learners' contribution to enable a conversation keep going are the communication strategies the author searches for.

The section of analysis of this study is move(s) considering that negotiation of meanings here refers to analysis on the relation between moves and speech function which indicates the function of the move(s). It is therefore the transcription of the learners' conversation is divided into move(s) to be analyzed further using speech function network of conversation proposed by Eggins & Slade (1997: 192).

Identifying turn-taking, identifying moves and clauses, and applying speech function classes to every move are the points of analyzing speech function network of conversation in this study. In order to produce descriptive qualitative analysis, the result of identification is interpreted.

Through the system of mood, analysis is conducted to figure out the types of negotiation of meanings of the data. The definition of mood elements (subject and finite), residue (predicator and complement), the adjunct (mood adjunct, circumstantial adjunct, and comment adjunct) belongs to the system of mood in this study. In analyzing the types of negotiation of meanings, this study focuses on moves.

This study adopted two types of analysis. First is the analysis based on speech function network of conversation as proposed by Eggins & Slades (1997); Second is the analysis based on the types of negotiation of meanings. The transcription is initially divided into moves. Using the Arabic numbers: 1, 2, 3 etc. each turn is numbered. One turn can commonly have more than one move. Greek numbers: i, ii, iii, etc. are used to label each clause. A speech function is assigned for each move once the transcripiont is divided into moves. Since it cannot be done in isolation the researcher needs to look at the relationship to prior moves. Quantifying all moves made by the speakers is carried out following the analysis on speech function. The pattern of relationship can be revealed into the words.

The type of negotiation of meanings demonstrated in the conversation is then analyzed by focusing on moves of the speakers and considering the system of mood covering the definition of mood elements (subject and finite), the residue (predicator and complement) and the adjunct (mood adjunct, circumstantial adjunct, and comment adjunct).

Research Findings

A number of tables are used to present the result of the study including speech function column, type of negotiation of meanings, turn/move, discourse which is broken down into speakers, clauses, text, and mood choices. The negotiation of meanings and speech function coded in conversation among kindergarten students of *Mondial School* of the Academic Year of 2015 is presented in Appendix 1. The discussion following the presentation of the result of

analysis is presented in tables and their interpretation. Related literature is matched with the findings.

Table 1: ***Summary of Meaning Choices Found in the Data***

Type of meaning	**Speakers**															**Total**
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15		17
I**NTERPERSONAL**																
Declarative																
Full	1	2	17	1	11	0	1	0	35	0	1	0	0	1		**70(41.67%)**
Elliptical	1	1	7	0	4	1	2	5	8	2	5	2	1	0		**39(23.21 %)**
TOTAL	**2**	**3**	**24**	**1**	**15**	**1**	**3**	**5**	**43**	**2**	**6**	**2**	**1**	**1**		**109(64.88%) out of 168 moves**
Polar interrogative																
Full	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0		**7(0.47 %)**
Elliptical	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0		**2(0.11 %)**
TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**2**	**0**	**4**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**		**9(0.58%) out of 168 moves**
WH-interrogative (Logico-semantic)																
Full	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0		**5 (0.30 %)**
Elliptical	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		**0 (0 %)**
TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**		**5 (0.30 %) out of 168 moves**
Imperative																
Full	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0		**5 (0.30 %)**
Elliptical	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		**0 (0%)**

TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**3**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**		**5 (0.29%)**
Minor clause																
Minor clause	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		**1 (0.6%)**
TOTAL	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		**1(0.6%) out of 168 moves**
LOGICAL																
Expansion																
Elaboration	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0(0%)
Extension	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0		2(0.12%)
Enhancement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0		3(0.18%)
TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**5**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**		**5(0.30%) out of 168 moves**
Projection																
Verbal	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		2(0.12%)
TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**		**2(0.12%) out of 168 moves**

Three different analysis including speech function analysis, the meaning recapitulation analysis and the types of negotiation of meanings are presented as the research findings of this study (see Appendix 2).

There are 14 speakers in six excerpts produce speech functions choices. This study focuses mainly on 14 students' production out of 15 speakers of which the other one is the teacher. Considering that it is useful to show the overall patterns of the data, regardless it is used or not by any of the speakers, all speech functions classes in speech function network are shown.

Feature by feature involving dominant and incidental participants, number of turns, number of moves and clauses, and categories of moves produced by the speakers are presented as the speech function analysis. The meaning choices produced by 14 speakers in six excerpts is summarized and presented in Table 1. Despite the fact that the speakers involve 14 students and one teacher, this study focuses mainly on the students' speech production. The meaning recapitulation analysis is presented section by section based on the types of meaning namely interpersonal and logical meanings.

The data show that interpersonal meanings seem to be the biggest number of types of meaning found in the data demonstrated in Table 1. Out of 168 moves this type of meaning emerge 124 times in the frequency of occurrence. It means 73.80% in figure whereas logical meaning occur seven times (or about 4.17%).

Full declaratives seem to dominate the occurrence of mood types. Out of 124 moves, full declaratives emerge 70 times (or about 56.45%) whereas elliptical declaratives emerge 39 times (or about 31.45%). Either full or elliptical, most speakers produce declaratives but I seems to dominate it by producing 35 declaratives out of 70 (or 50 %) whereas elliptical declaratives emerge eight times (or about 20.51%) out of 39 declaratives. Contrastively, C produces 17 full declaratives (or about 24.28%) out of 70 declaratives and seven elliptical declaratives (or about 17.94) out of 39 declaratives. Meanwhile, E produces 11 full declaratives (or about 15.71%) out of 70 declaratives and four elliptical declaratives (or about 10.25%) out of 39 declaratives.

Most speakers use full and elliptical interrogatives in the conversation. Full polar interrogatives, however, is the most frequently used by the speakers. The speakers use full polar interrogatives seven times (or about 0.41%) and elliptical interrogatives two times (or about 0.11%) out of 168 moves. Full polar interrogatives are equally used by C, E and I that is two times respectively. In contrast E produces elliptical polar interrogatives two times whereas H produces it once. C and I are the second most of producing elliptical polar interrogatives, that is two times respectively. In a casual conversation among close friends or family members polar interrogatives are common to use. When one intends to initiate an exchange he typically uses polar interrogative by requesting information from others.

The full WH-interrogatives are used by the speakers 23 times (or about 13.69%). Meanwhile elliptical WH-interrogatives are used by speakers four times (or about 2.38%). Full WH-interrogatives typically demand an active initiatory role of a speaker and are typically used to bring out additional circumstantial information. The speaker typically gets to initiate exchanges by demanding information more often than others.

Imperative mood types are used by the speakers five times out of 168 moves (or about 0.30%). All imperative mood types are in the form of full imperatives that is five times (or 0.30%). Demanding someone to do something is the function of imperative mood type. Imperatives, however, are usually used to negotiate action directly in casual conversation in the case of the function to encode advice.

Minor clauses typically function as prelude to negotiation in casual conversation. To the prior interaction it positions the speaker as a compliant support. Few speakers produce this mood types. The data show that minor clauses are used once out of 168 (or about 0.6%).

Logical meanings as another type of meanings emerge five times including extension two times (or 0.12%) and enhancement three times (0.18%). Meanwhile, projections emerge two times (or 25%). The expansion type is represented by extension two times (or about 0.12 %) whereas verbal is once (or about 0.6 %) produced by speaker 1.

Table 2: ***Frequency of Negotiation of Meanings Occurrence***

Types of Negotiation of Meanings	Occurrence
Interpersonal Negotiation	**118 (86.76%)**
Logico-semantic Negotiation	**18 (13.23%)**
TOTAL	**136**

Table 2 indicates that interpersonal negotiation is dominantly used in the conversation. It has significant difference. Interpersonal negotiation occur 118 times (or about 86.76%) whereas logical negotiation occur 18 times (or about 13.23%).

The data show that in the conversation the children exchange commodity namely information or goods and service. They take roles associated with exchange relation, either giving or demanding. According to Halliday in Eggins & Slade (1997, p.180) a conversation is regarded meaningful if there is a process of exchange. Definitely, the children in the conversation are involved in the process of exchange. It is reasonable to argue that the children's conversation is meaningful.

The data show that the speakers in the conversation produce almost all of the speech function choices in spite of different proportion. They produce opening, continuing, react responding and react rejoinder moves. Initiating by demanding information seems to be preferred by the young learners. They realize it with declarative mood types. Responding the initiation by providing information seems to be also preferred by the children. They realize it with either full declaratives or elliptical declaratives. In other words, negotiation takes place as evidenced by reactions or feedback in the conversation.

The learners in this study are found to make use of most of the strategies but the realizations of these, in detail, often prove to be problematic. The difficulties that hindered the learners have something to do with speech function choices of open-attend: continue-monitor-prolong-elaborate, develop-elaborate, develop-extent, develop-enhance, prolong-extent, prolong-enhance, register, engage, reply-supporting-affirm, reply-confronting-non-comply, reply-confronting-disavow, reply-confronting-decline, reply-confronting-withhold, react-joinder track-clarify, react-joinder track-check, react-joinder probe, react-joinder repair, react-joinder acquiesce, react-joinder challenge-detach, react-joinder rebound, react-joinder challenge-counter, react-joinder act-rechallenge. In terms of meaning choice, the learners find it difficult to realize logico-semantic negotiation in elliptical WH-interrogative (logico-semantic) and elliptical-imperatives.

Discussion

Referring to the fact that the children are able to produce most of the mood types without difficulty except local grammatical errors it is reasonable to argue that the children have

definitely achieved significant syntactic development. They do not find it difficult to ask questions, give commands, report real events and create imaginary stories. As Goh (2004, p.86) remarks, syntactic development is a gradual process and involves learning at different levels. It means the learners have developed the aspect of form of phrases, sentence types and overall sentence complexity.

In such an early age the children have acquired both interpersonal and logico-semantic negotiation in total immersion context. It was evidenced, however, that the children prefer to use interpersonal negotiation rather than logico-semantic ones. Table 2 indicates that out of 136 moves 118 moves are realized in the form of interpersonal negotiation.

The learners also enhance their expression considerably by using back-channeling expressions. Channeling devices such as 'right', 'yeah', 'I see' are demonstrated by the speakers F, L, J and K respectively in their conversation.

Regardless the length of the exchange the children are able to respond to the interlocutor's move to keep the conversation going. To some extends they are capable to create spoken texts without the help of the elder speakers. They can participate in the conversation independently.

Sufficient exposure of language use has been possessed by the children. They have acquired the moods in the form of declaratives, interrogatives, imperatives and minor clauses. The children chose the mood elements of the clause properly which consists of Subject and Finite. Grammatically, they have managed to convey negotiation of feelings and attitudes. Additionally, they are able to realize the negotiations of information or context by choosing to negotiate residue elements such as predicator, complement and adjunct.

The data show that in early total immersion program the children use the language naturally in spoken interaction. They negotiate meanings about what they think is going on in their world, how they feel about it, and how they feel about people they interact with in the conversation. The children's ability in negotiating meanings develops well in immersion context. The children get sufficient exposure in language use. In other words, immersion program could provide precious opportunities for the teachers and children to use the language naturally in spoken interactions. It is reasonable to argue that early total immersion is an effective way of developing communicative competence and foreign language proficiency in Indonesian context. It is in accordance with the objectives of communicative language teaching as pointed out by Richards (2006, p.2) that sets its goal the teaching of communicative competence that is knowing how to use language, knowing how to vary our message, knowing how to produce and understand different types of text and knowing how to maintain communication.

Conclusion

In the context of early total immersion program applied by *Mondial School* the conversation of kindergarten children involves four major speech functions: opening, continuing, react responding, and react rejoinder moves. Apart from producing initiation and react-responding, they produce opening in the form of demanding information and react responding in the form of replying answer moves which are mostly realized through declarative clauses.

Additionally, they produce opening in the form of demanding information and react responding in the form of replying answer moves which are mostly realized through declarative clauses.

The data show that the learners' communication strategies involve all types of negotiation namely interpersonal negotiation and logico-semantic negotiation as well as "channeling." It is, therefore, reasonable to argue that their conversation is natural. Precious opportunities to use English naturally in spoken interactions could be provided by the structured early total immersion program. In other words, in Indonesian context, this program is effective in developing communicative competence of the learners.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Negotiation of Meanings and Speech Function Coded in Conversation among Kindergarten Students of *Mondial School* of the Academic Year of 2015

Speech function	**Type of negotiation**	**Turn/ Move**	**Discourse**	**Mood choices**	
				Interpersonal	**Logical**
1	2	3	4	5	6
Data 1					
O:I:demand:info	Logico-semantic	1	Gaby : (i) What do you want?	WH-intro:full	
			(ii) Mango or strawberry?	WH:intro:ellip	
Rs:s:answer	Interpersonal	2	Hady : (i) I want orange juice	Decla:full	
O:I:give:opinion		3	Kenny : (i) Hey you should be vegetable seller.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:info	Logico-semantic	4	Randy : (i) What is this?	WH:intro:full	
Rs:s:answer		5	Gany : (i) This is crab.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:opinion	Interpersonal	6/a	Randy : (i) I want this.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:info	Logico-semantic	6/b	(ii) How much is this?	WH:intro:full	
Rs:s:answer		7	Gany : (i) One thousand.	Decla:ellip	
Data 2					
Rs:s:acknowledge		8	Kiki : (i) I see	Decla:ellip	
Rs:s:comply		9	Ainy : (i) One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight.	Decla:ellip	
Rs: register	Interpersonal	NV1	Trey : NV1 (Raising hand)	NV	
Rs:s: answer		10	Faris : (i) Four.	Decla:ellip	
Rs:s:answer		11	Berline : (i) Eight.	Decla:ellip	
Rs:s: answer		12	Rafi : (i) Seven.	Decla:ellip	

Rs: register		NV2	Kenny : NV2 (Selecting the letter A)	NV	
Rs: s: answer		13/a	Kenny : (i) A to apple.	Decla:ellip	
C:P: Extend	Logico-semantic	13/b	(ii) How about this?	WH:intro:full	
Rs: register		NV3	Faris : NV3 (Selecting the picture of cat)	NV	
Rs: register		14	Faris : (i) Cat	Decla:ellip	
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Data 3					
Rs: register	Interpersonal	NV4	Faris : NV4 (Collecting materials for the game)	NV	
O:I:give: fact		15/a	Faris : (i) I already make one		Expansion: Extension
		15/b	(ii) Now I take this one.		
		15/c	(iii) I get so many in my spoon.		Expansion: Extension
		15/d	(iv)Now I do this again.		
O:I:demand:service		15/e	(v) Just do it so fast.	Impera:full	
O:I:demand:service		15/f	(vi) You play with your partner.	Impera:full	
O:I:give: fact		15/g	(vii) I already make four..		Expansion: enhance
C:P: Extend		15/h	(viii) I have many than you.		
C:Append:extend		15/i	(ix) I help you, okay?	Polar:intro:elip	
Rs:register		NV5	Gany : NV5 (Shaking head)	NV	
R: joinder:refuse		16	Gany : (i) No, you done a lot.	Decla:full	
O:I:give: fact		17	Faris : (i) Oh, I got some here.	Decla:full	
O:I:give: fact		18	Gany : (i) I make a sand castle.	Decla:full	
O:I:give: fact		19/a	Faris : (i) We are make a sand castle.	Decla:full	
C:P: Extend		19/b	(ii) I can make it many than you now.	Decla:full	

O:I: demand: goods		20/a	Gany : (i) I want this.	Decla:full	
C: P: enhance		20/b	(ii) I just have one.		Expansion: enhance
O:I:give:opinion		21	Faris : (i) So, you can get the other.		
Rs:register		NV6	Gany : NV6 (Nodding head)	NV	
O:I:give opinion	Logico-semantic	22	Gany : (i) That's for me.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:fact	Interpersonal	23/a	Faris : (i) I will help you.	Decla:full	
Rj: s: track: confirm	Logico-semantic	23/b	(ii) But one by one.	Decla:ellip	
	Interpersonal	23/c	(iii) We cannot make it all of them.	Decla:full	
		23/d	(iv) Just make it one by one..	Impera:full	
O:I:give: fact		23/e	(v) I make an ice cream.	Decla:full	
Rj: s: track: confirm		23/f	(vi) I just make like this.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:info		24/a	Gany : (i) Are you said Kiki?	Polar:intro:full	
Rs:non-comply		24/b	(ii) I am not Kiki.	Decla:full	
O:I:give: fact		25/a	Faris : (i) I will help you.		Expansion: enhance
Rj: s: track: confirm		25/b	(ii) So you can do faster.		
O:I:give: fact		25/c	(iii) You need extra power.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:service		25/d	(iv) Put it here.	Impera:full	
O:I:give: fact		25/e	(v) I will put it all of them.	Decla:full	
			(vi) I just need one minute later.	Decla:full	
Rj: s: track: confirm	Logico-semantic	25/f	(vii) One more.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:give: fact		26/a	Gany : (i) This s my cup.	Decla:full	
C: P: enhance	Interpersonal	26/b	(ii) Don't take it.	Impera:full	
Rj: s: track: confirm		26/c	(iii) Promise?	Polar:intro:elip	
Data 4					

O:I: demand: info		27/a	Gany : (i) Do you have a robot at home?	Polar:intro:full	
Rj: s: track: clarify	Logico-semantic	27/b	(ii) How many do you have?	WH:intro:full	
O:I:demand: info		27/c	(iii) So, the robot is…?	WH:intro:ellip	
Rs: s: answer	Interpersonal	28	Faris : (i) My robot has a long ears.	Decla:full	
Rj: resolve		29	Faris : (i) Yes.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:give: fact		30/a	Gany : (i) My brother has a robot.	Decla:full	
C:Prolong: elaborate	Logico-semantic	30/b	(ii) It is transformer.	Decla:full	
O:I: demand: service		30/c	(ii) Cross your legs.	Impera:full	
O:I: demand: info	Logico-semantic	30/d	(iii) How many of you?	WH:intro:full	
Rj: s: track: confirm		30/e	(iv) One, two, three, four, five.	Decla:ellip	
O:give: fact	Interpersonal	30/f	(v) I have four groups.	Decla:full	
O:I: demand: service		30/g	(vi) I want you to make a robot.	WH:intro:full	
O:I:demand: info	Logico-semantic	31/a	Faris : (i) Where is the animal.	WH:intro:full	
O:I: give fact	Interpersonal	31/b	(ii) I need this shape.	Decla:full	
		31/c	(iii) I get so many.	Decla:ellip	
		31/d	(iv) I need it.	Decla:full	
O:I: give: info	Logico-semantic	31/e	(v) This is your hand	Decla:full	
Data 5					
Rs: s: agree		32	Kekey : (i) Yeah.	Decla:ellip	
Rs: register		33	Bernie : (i) Good morning.	Minor	
Rs: s: answer		34/a	Ainy : (i) I'm fine.	Decla:full	
Rs: register		34/b	(ii) Thank you.	Minor	
Rj: c: unresolved	Interpersonal	NV7	Ainy : NV7 (Shrugging shoulders)	NV	

Rs: s: answer	Logico-semantic	35	Trey : (i) Friday.	Decla:ellip	
Rs: s: agree	Interpersonal	36	Berline : (i) Yeah.	Decla:ellip	
Rs: s: comply	Interpersonal	NV8	Kenny : NV8 (Raising hand)	NV	
Rs: s: answer	Logico-semantic	37	Kenny : (i) Eleven.	Decla:ellip	
Rj: c: unresolved	Interpersonal	NV9	Berlina : NV9 (Shrugging shoulders)	NV	
Rs: s: answer	Logico-semantic	38	Rafi : (i) Ten.	Decla:ellip	
Rs:s: comply	Logico-semantic	39	Keny : (i) Today is Friday.	Decla:full	
Rs:s: comply		40	Hady : (i) It is a sunny day.	Decla:full	
Rs:s: comply		41	Gaby : (i) It is ten August two thousand and twelve.	Decla:full	
Rs:s: acknowledge	Logico-semantic	42	Rafi : (i) One two three four five six seven eight nine ten.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:demand: info	Interpersonal	43	Kenny : (i) Are you okay?	Polar:intro:full	
Rs: s: answer		44	Rafi : (i) Yeah.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:give:info		45	Kenny : (i) Miss, done.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:demand:service		46	Hady : (i) Press it.	Impera:full	
O:I:give:opinion	Logico-semantic	47/a	Kenny : (i) That is so big.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:info	Interpersonal	47/b	(ii) Like this.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:give opinion		47/c	: (iii) Wow, that broken.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:demand:info	Logico-semantic	47/d	: (iv) Where is the eyes?	WH:intro:full	
Data 6					
Rs:register		48	Berlina : (i) Good morning, teacher.	Minor	
Rs:register		49/a	Kenny : (i) I'm fine.	Decla:full	
Rs:register		49/b	(ii) Thank you.	Minor	

O:I:demand:info		NV10	Kenny : NV10 (Shrugging shoulders)	NV	
Rs:s:answer	Logico-semantic	50	Hady : (I) Wednesday.	Decla:ellip	
Rj: c: resolved		NV11	Kekey : NV11 (Raising hand)	NV	
Rs:s:answer	Logico-semantic	51	Kekey : (i) W-e-d-n-e-s-d-a-y.	Decla:ellip	
Rj:c:resolve	Logico-semantic	52/a	Rafi : (i) T-o-d-a-y.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:demand:info	Logico-semantic	52/b	(ii)Is it a cloudy day?	Decla:full	
Rs:s:disagree	Interpersonal	53/a	Gany : (i) No.	Decla:ellip	
Rj:c:resolve	Logico-semantic	53/b	(ii) It's a sunny day.	Decla:full	
Rs:s:answer		54	Gaby : (i) Eight.	Decla:ellip	
Rs:s:answer		55	Trey : (i) August.	Decla;ellip	
Rj:c:resolve	Interpersonal	NV12	Ainy : NV12 (Raising hand)	NV	
Rj:c:resolve	Logico-semantic	56	Ainy : (i) Eight August two thousand twelve.	Decla:ellip	
Rj:c:resolve	Interpersonal	NV13	Bernie : NV13 (Raising hand)	NV	
Rj:c:resolve	Logico-semantic	57	Bernie : (i) 'H'	Decla:ellip	
Rj:c:resolve		NV14	Faris : NV14 (Raising hand)	NV	
Rj:c:resolve	Logico-semantic	58/a	Faris : (i) Room.	Decla:ellip	
Rj: s: track: confirm		58/b	(ii) Living room.	Decla:ellip	
Rs:s:answer		59/a	Gany : (i) Chair, table, sofa	Decla:ellip	
C:append:enhance	Interpersonal	59/b	(ii) Do you see bed in living room?	Polar:intro:full	
R:c:contradict		60/a	Trey : (i) No.	Decla:ellip	
R:j:track: resolve	Logico-semantic	60/b	(ii) TV, telephone	Decla:ellip	
R:d:elaborate		61	Rafi : (i) Stove, pan, frying pan	Decla:ellip	
Data 7					
R:r:engage		62/a	Kenny : (i) Kenneth, I am with you, okay?	Decla:full	

R:j: track: clarify		62/b	(ii) I want with Kenneth.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:opinion	Logico-semantic	63	Faris : (i) This my King and this is the master.	Decla:full	
C: a: enhance		64	Kenny : (i) Rafi, Rafi with me	Decla:ellip	
C:p: elaborate	Interpersonal	65/a	Faris : (i) I need some more like this.	Decla:full	
C: p: enhance		65/b	(ii) Aha, I need that.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:service	Logico-semantic	66	Gany : (i) One more time.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:give:fact	Interpersonal	67	Kenny : (i) I want the square one.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:fact		68/a	Faris : (i) I get it	Decla:full	
C:pr:enhance	Logico-semantic	68/b	(ii)This is here	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:info	Interpersonal	69	Gany : (i) What should I do?	WH:intro:full	
O:I:give:info	Logico-semantic	70/a	Faris : (i) This is for the kingdom	Decla:full	
C:pr:enhance		70/b	(ii) It is not living room.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:info		71	Kenny : (i) This is only one.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:fact		72/a	Faris : (i) This is my king.	Decla:full	
C:pr:enhance	Interpersonal	72/b	(ii) I have a king here.	Decla"full	
O:I:give:info	Logico-semantic	73	Kenny : (i) One more this.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:opiniom	Interpersonal	74	Faris : (i) I think we don't need this.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:info	Logico-semantic	75	Gany : (i) Like this?	Polar:ellip	
R:s:acknowledge	Logico-semantic	76/a	Faris : (i) All of this is my animals.	Decla:full	
C:pr:elaborate		76/b	(ii) This is the master of the kingdom.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:fact	Interpersonal	77	Rafi : (i) I have this for you, Kenny.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:opinion	Logico-semantic	78/a	Kenny : (i) The beautiful one.		Projection: Verbal
C:pr:enhance	Interpersonal	78/b	(ii) I say the beautiful one.		
O:I:give:opiniom	Logico-semantic	78/c	(iii) That's so many.	Decla:full	

C:pr:enhance	Interpersonal	78/d	(iv) It should be living room.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:opinion		78/e	(v) You don't make living room.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:fact		78/f	(vi) Kenny don't want to listen me.	Decla:full	
C:app:enhance		78/g	(vii) It is for me and you, okay?	Polar:intro:full	
O:I:give:fact		79/a	Faris : (i) I need this.	Decla:full	
C:pr:extend		79/b	(ii) And this is already done.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:info		80	Gany : (i) Do you have another animal?	Polar:intro:full	
O:I:give:fact	Logico-semantic	81/a	Faris : (i) All the animal in my house.	Decla:full	
C:pr:elaborate	Interpersonal	81/b	(ii) I have many dinosaurous, lion, dog and tiger.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:opinion		81/c	(iii) It must be full.	Decla:full	
C:pr:extend	Logico-semantic	81/d	(iv) This here, for here, and then here.	Decla:ellip	
R:r:register	Interpersonal	82/a	Gany : (i) Thank you.	Minor	
R:r:dev:elaborate		82/b	: (ii) I need it.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:fact	Logico-semantic	83	Kenny : (i) Oh, it's my house.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:info		84/a	Trey : (i) Where's your house?	WH:intro:full	
C:pr:elaborate	Interpersonal	84/b	: (ii) Did you tidy up?	Polar:intro:full	
R:s:acknowledge		85	Hady : (i) Yes.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:demand:info		86	Faris : (i) We tidy up?	Polar:intro:elip	
R:c:contradict		NV15	Kenny : NV15 (shaking head)	NV	
R:c:disagree		87	Kenny : (i) Not yet.	Decla:ellip	
O:I:give:fact	Logico-semantic	88/a	Faris : (i) This helicopter is mine.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:info	Interpersonal	88/b	(ii) I want to make the biggest living room.	Decla:full	
C:pr:elaborate		88/c	(iii) I want to make again.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:ser		88/d	(iv) Can you give me one more?	Polar:intro:full	

vice					
O:I:give:info		89	Kenny : (i) I want to make again.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:info		90/a	Faris : (i) I have very big house.	Decla:full	
O:I:demand:info		90/b	(ii) Did you take my blocks?	Polar:intro:full	
R:c:contradict		NV16	Kenny : NV16 (Shaking head)	NV	
R:c:contradict		91	Kenny : (i) No, don't take it.	Decla:full	
C:pr:extend		92	Faris : (i) I need this.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:fact	Logico-semantic	93	Kenny : (i) This is mine.	Decla:full	
O:I:give:opinion	Interpersonal	94	Rafi : (i) It's easy, right?	Polar:intro:full	
C:pr:elaborate		95/a	Faris : (i) Right. We get this, this to get this.	Decla:full	
C:pr:extend		95/b	(ii) We gonna make the airplane	Decla:full	
O:I:give:fact		96	Kenneth : (i) It's falling down!	Decla:full	
R:s:register		97	Kenny : (i) Oh hate you.	Declare:full	
R:c:contradict	Interpersonal	NV17	Faris : NV17 (Shaking head)	NV	
R:c:contradict		98	Faris : (i) I don't want to tidy up.	Declare:full	

Appendix B: Summary of Speech Function Choices Found in the Data

No	**Speech Function**	**Speakers**														**Total**
		A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**	**I**	**J**	**K**	**L**	**M**	**N**	
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**
	Number of turns	3	5	19	2	16	1	1	3	5	27	3	8	1	3	**98**
	Number of moves	4	5	30	2	24	1	1	4	7	65	3	8	1	3	**168**
	Non-Verbal	0	0	4	0	2	0	2	1	4	1	0	1	1	0	**17**
	Number of Clauses	4	5	30	2	24	1	1	4	7	65	3	8	1	3	**170**

1	**Open**															
	Attend	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Open: **Initiative**															
	O:I:Demand Info	1	0	6	1	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	13 (12.92%)
	O:I:Demand Service	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3(1.76%)
	O:I:give: opinion	0	0	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	8 (4.60%)
	O:I:give: fact	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	1	13 (12.92%)
	TOTAL	**2**	**1**	**12**	**2**	**9**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**37** **(22.7%) out of 168 moves**
2	**Continue**															
	Monitor	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0(0%)
	Prolong: elaborate	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0(0%)
	Prolong: extend	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3(1.76%)
	Prolong: enhance	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3(1.76%)
	Append: elaborate	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	5(2.84%)
	Append: extend	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3(1.76%)
	Append: enhance	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3(1.76%)
	TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**4**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**13**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**17** **(9.88%) out of 168 moves**
3	**React:**															

	responding															
	Register	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (0.58%)
	Engage	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (0.58%)
	Develop: elaborate	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Develop: Extend	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Develop: enhance	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**3 (1.76%) out of 168 moves**
4	**Reply: supporting**															
	Agree	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	3 (1.76%)
	Answer	1	2	2	0	1	0	1	3	2	2	3	3	0	0	3 (1.76%)
	Accept	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Comply	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5 (2.84%)
	Acknowledge	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	4 (2.24 %)
	Affirm	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	TOTAL	**2**	**3**	**4**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**2**	**3**	**3**	**4**	**4**	**4**	**0**	**0**	**21 (9.17%) out of 168 Moves**
5	**Reply; confronting**															

	Contradict	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	7(3.6%)
	Non-comply	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Disavow	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1(0.56%)
	Decline	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Withhold	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**5**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**8(4.6%) out of 168 moves**
6	**React: joinder**															
	Track: clarify	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1(0.56%)
	Track: confirm	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	8(4.6%)
	Track: check	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Track: probe	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Track: resolve	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	2	0	6(3.52%)
	Track: repair	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Track: acquiesce	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Challenge: detach	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Challenge: rebound	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Challenge: counter	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	Act: unresolved	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1(0.56%)
	Act: refuse	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1(0.56%)
	Act: rechallenge	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**9**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**17(9.88%) out of 168 moves**

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Teachers' Perceptions of the Post-method Feasibility

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Abstract

The Second Language Teaching profession, seemingly, is an ongoing development. New theories, terminologies, and concepts turn into common themes of discussion and research. Yet, a plethora of terms and labels rarely facilitate teachers in the journey of professionalism. One of these conceptual shifts, which has left teachers uncertain to follow, is "the death of the method" (Allwright, 1991) and the birth of the post-method debate (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). With this thought in the researcher's mind the current qualitative exploratory study is concerned with English teachers' perceptions of these conceptual shifts. The aim of this study was two-fold: first, to reviews the theories of methods and post-method in second language literature; second, to explore teachers' perceptions of opportunities and barriers of the post-method. Research data collected through in-depth interviewing revealed the conflict between teachers' expectations and realities of classrooms for implementing the post-method. The study heightens teacher educators' awareness of the possible barriers of the post-method. It also provides them with some practical solutions to overcome those barriers.

***Key words*:** Pedagogic parameters, pedagogic indicators, and post-method pedagogy

1. Introduction

At the turn of the third millennium, post-method was born in the heels of the myriad shortcomings attributed to the then-in-the-fashion L2 methods and in order for the second language acquisition to keep abreast of the pedagogical advances in terms of incorporating socio-cultural and critical considerations into the context of teaching/learning. Rooted largely in an eclectic, context-based approach, post-method goes beyond method. It facilitates teachers to find out what works and what does not work in their classroom in accordance with their own experiential knowledge. Kumaravadivelu (2001) defines post-method pedagogy as consisting of three parameters, namely particularity (context), possibility (empowerment), and practicality (making a bridge between professional theories and those of the individual teachers).

As one of the key participants in second language learning and teaching is teachers, I conducted this study with the aim to get more familiar with their ideas and thoughts about post-method pedagogy.

The very two questions that served as my motivation to conduct this study have been:

- What is the perception of ESL teachers towards the post-method?
- What practical implications do they suggest on the post-method teaching and learning in ESL classrooms?

1.1. Statement of the Problem

The post-method discussion is a positive turn of events for a desirable learning context and the reality of learners. However, many critics of post-method rebut it as being not feasible (Akbari, 2008).

Language and ideology seemingly are inseparable when it comes to teaching languages. Since one of the barriers of applying strategies of the post-method is teachers' willingness for such a change that is always an issue. I attempt to address this issue by linking the two components of consulting the intellectual contents that scholars have provided us with and interacting with ESL teachers in order to analyze their perceptions regarding their role in the post-method era.

The present study aims to explore into three TESOL practitioners' perception of such a transition. The reason the researcher chose them to conduct her study on is the participants' familiarity with the concept of methods and post-method as well as methodology. She is hopeful that this exploratory practice might shed light on the path of those who are trying to overcome the "ideological barrier" of post- method. By means of interaction, the researcher has tried to portray the practitioners' inner thoughts regarding the features of the post method discourse. She has also tried to trace the participants' methodological views through an online discussion. That's why this study can be categorized as an exploratory practice.

2. Literature review

The early documented framework understanding the constituents of method can be traced back to what Antony (1963) represents as the elements that constitute language teaching: approach, method, and technique. He defines approach as "a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning". What he terms as a method is, "an overall plan for orderly presentation of language material." He terms "a

particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective" as a technique (p.63).

Since then, language teaching methods have developed overtime in terms of theories of language, language learning, and language teaching. In other words, a new method with a new label was born in the heels of the merit shortcomings attributed to the existing L2 methods.

One way of clearing the concept of the existing methods is to categorize the established methods based on their theoretical as well as practical orientation to L2 teaching and learning. Kumaravadivelu (1993b) classifies the methods into three categories; a) language –centered methods, b) learner-centered methods, and c) learning-centered methods.

However, by going through the literature, one can concludes that beside the great achievements of language-centered methods, learner-centered methods, and learning-centered methods they were not able to truly achieve the goals they set for themselves. As Kumaravadivelu (2006) claims "in all probability, the invention of a truly novel method that is fundamentally different from [the existing ones] is very slim, at least in the foreseeable future" (p.161).

In recent era when critical thoughts are popular, language-teaching practitioners need to be careful regarding their methodological choices. During the transitional time when dissatisfaction with one method results in the gradual development of another, scholars such as Allwright (1991), and Stern (1983) emphasize on unhelpfulness of the existing methods. The merits of methods encouraged Allwright (1991) to give the talk entitled "The Death of Method." He (1991) explains that a method provides teachers with "cheap" but "externally derived sense of coherence for language teachers, which may itself inhibit the development of a personally "expensive", but ultimately far more valuable, internally derived coherence" (p.7). Later, Brown (2002) uses the same expressions for "recently interred methods" (p.14). It seems that a method based teacher education may not be sufficient to meet the challenges of the classroom life. That is why teachers usually try to use different techniques at their avail based on their experiential knowledge in order to find out what works in their classrooms that is termed as "eclectic method." Yet, eclectic method has its own shortcomings. As Stern (1992, p. 11) points out:

> the weakness of the eclectic position is that it offers no criteria according to which we can determine which is the best theory, nor does it provide any principles by which to include or exclude features which form part of existing theories or practices. The choice is left to the individual's intuitive judgment and is, therefore, too broad and too vague to be satisfactory as a theory in its own right (p. 11).

Consequently, in this situation Kumaravadivelu (2006) presents the essentials of the post-method pedagogy in terms of pedagogic parameters and pedagogic indicators that will be define below.

2. 2. Post-method era

Kumarvadivelu (1994 b) presents post-method pedagogy in terms of "pedagogic parameters" and "pedagogic indicators" that shape the construction of a post-method pedagogy. He defines

post- method pedagogy as consisting of three parameters, namely particularity (context), possibility (empowerment), and practicality (making a bridge between professional theories and those of the individual teachers). The pedagogy of particularity aims to raise practitioners' critical awareness of individuals' social and cultural background. As Kumaravadivelu (2001) claims the post-method pedagogy "must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu" (p. 538). Parameter of practicality is intended to encourage practitioners to make a bridge between professional theories and personal theories. Edge (2001) makes it crystal clear when he argues that "the thinking teacher is no longer perceived as someone who applies theories, but someone who theorize practice" (p. 6). The parameter of possibility that has been rooted in Paulo Freire's educational philosophy is concerned with the issue of power and dominance, and is aimed at creating "the sociopolitical consciousness that students bring with them to the classroom" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b, p.59.) In other words, this parameter stresses the importance of acknowledging and highlighting students' and teachers' individuality and encourage them to question the status quo in order to " develop theories, form of knowledge, and social practices that work with the experiences that people bring to the pedagogical setting" (Giroux. 1998, p. 134.)

Although the post-method advocates show a willingness to promote reflective and self-exploratory desire among teachers and learners instead of imposing them a prepackaged and pre-sequenced body of knowledge that is based on the well-articulated theories, critics point out that in practice the post-method is more idealistic approach than the realistic one. As Akbari (2008, p.645) argues that

> "now that method is gone, the question is how teachers [without having the framework of method] are going to develop the competence demanded of them in dealing with pedagogical and social responsibilities assigned to them" (p. 645).

Akbari believes that post-method has ignored the constraining realities of the classroom in teachers' responsibilities. He brings into attention that in many contexts teachers have overloaded classrooms. So, the financial and occupational constraints they work within do not leave them with the time or the willingness to act autonomous. In addition, textbooks and tests can be counted as further constraints. Since, textbooks take care of all details of the classroom, life even they include quizzes and tests. Therefore, in such a situation even if teachers do not subscribe to a method, methods are imposed to them through the materials.

2.3. Theoretical Framework

What the aforementioned discussion shows is that post-method has been mainly criticized for ignoring the constraining realities of the classroom in teachers' responsibilities. Whereas, the advocators of the post-method claim that it is in method based pedagogy that "teachers find themselves in an unenviable position where they have to straddle two pedagogic worlds: a method-based one that is imposed on them, and a methodological one that is improvised by them" (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p. 170).

Clarifying teachers' perception regarding post-method pedagogy depends on what we know about teachers' cognition. In other words, teachers' cognition is the focus of this study to find out

how teachers interpret and evaluate transition of method based pedagogy to the post method one. Borg (2003) defines teacher cognition as "what teachers know, believe, and think" (p. 81). He believes that teacher cognition leads to the "greater understanding of the contextual factors which shape what language teachers do" (p. 106). To achieve this understanding, this study investigated if teaching English based on post-method is feasible in a real classroom from practitioners' perspective, and if it is not, what inhibits practitioners to adopt the post-method pedagogy.

3. Methodology and Method

The choice of method has a significant implication for the produced knowledge. Thus, this is one of the most important decisions that a researcher should make. In this study, *what* questions were not used in the sense of finding relationships existing between the phenomena but to explore the practitioners' points of view towards the post-method feasibility. In order to take sufficient account of this, two sources were used; scholars' intellectual content and the practitioners' views, working life, and experiences.

Participants

The researcher selected her sample based on intensity purposeful sampling paradigm for maximizing information with the emphasis on the quality of the information taken from the participants. Since, having access to all ESL teachers was impossible due to time and financial constraints. The researcher accessed participants from her immediately available colleagues at EdD program in TESOL. The reason that she chose her participants from EdD in TESOL students and professors was their familiarity with the concept of methods and post-method.

The researcher has not been looking for generalizability, but she was looking for the quality of the information that she could take from participants. In order to meet the ethic of the study, she sent an email to 53 EdD colleagues and professors and explained the purpose of her study along with a brief introduction of the concept of post-method. Three practitioners replied her back and expressed their willingness to share their thoughts and ideas. One of the participants whose thoughts are discussed here is a British native English speaker in his sixties who had been involved in TESOL industry for nearly 20 years. He worked in Africa, Latin America, Asia and Europe during his working life, in contexts where English was variously a foreign language, a second language, a medium of instruction, and a language for 'specific purposes'. In addition, He published regularly (books, papers, editing), primarily on language teacher education and associated topics. The other one is a recently graduated practitioners in EdD. He is originally from Egypt who has worked as an English teacher for over 15 years. And the last one is a native English speaker who is currently studying EdD in TESOL, he has worked as an English instructor, syllabus designer, and writer of ESP textbooks for nearly 30 years. Here after, I would recall them Kevin, James, and Joseph respectively.

Ethical dimensions

After the participants had accepted the first participation request, the researcher assured them via an email that they were free to withdraw from the project at any time. Also, In order to meet the participants' right to know how the data would be interpreted and reported, member checking was conducted. To do so, a table was created displaying the participants' put down information

checked with them in the course of the study. In addition to ensure confidentiality, male pseudonyms were given to all 3 participants.

Data Collections

For data collection, the researcher chose interviewing via email as a method to obtain the data that she believed would suit her research questions and the knowledge they produce later on. This was meant to meet the "logic of appropriateness" (Greener, 2011. P. 1). Here, the data is mutually created by the practitioners and the researcher to figure out a better understanding of a phenomenon through interviews. The interview schedule contained open ended questions on two central themes of finding out a practical solution for implementing the post-method in actual classroom environment, as well as their possible suggestions. The interview sessions availed the researcher with an interpersonal connection. Therefore, she had a chance to monitor and modify the questions for better understanding. In order to apply research related side comments, the comments were written down in the margins of the interviews transcriptions so as to lead the questions towards the theme of the study. This approach was really helpful to make clear the ambiguous points. On the other way round, this approach was challenging as the researcher needed to avoid being subjective in raising the follow up questions.

For weighting the data and increasing the credibility, detailed information was provided about the participants and the researcher depended on triangulation by using the spiral technique via collecting information at different times to support findings of the study. In the beginning, the resulting themes were affected by the research questions. However, later on the categories were redefined along the course of the interview sessions. Themes and interpretations emerged from the input through the transcripts, coded and categorized themes. The researcher used the technique of constant comparison starting with a particular episode in the data from the interview and comparing it with a similar episode that was gathered through literature.

In the same vein of credibility, rich, thick description of the participants and content are provided by adding excerpts from the collected data.

4. Data analysis

Hereafter, the themes that were emerged throughout 3 practitioners' interviews via emails will be discussed. Findings illustrate the participants' vision on the feasibility of post-method as well as their suggestions for any possible ways of applying this theory in the classroom.

The process of determining the issue was recursive; the researcher worked through the transcripts, wrote the initial draft of the article; and then returned again to the data to check if she had accurately represented the participants' concerns.

To present a balanced argument, the first part of this analysis gives an account to acknowledge some contribution of post-method to English language pedagogy from the participants' perspective. The second part deals with what inhibits teachers to apply the post-method pedagogy in their classroom as well as the features the post method discourse needs to take into account for it to move towards feasibility. Three main themes emerged in the course of the interviews including the participants' views towards post-method pedagogy, materials, and teacher education.

The analysis of data revealed that even if the teachers want to adapt post-method pedagogy in their classrooms, there are some barriers that would not allow them feel secure to apply the post-method strategies.

4.1. Post-method pedagogy

One of the participants emphasized that "the key advantage of post-method pedagogy is the increase of learner agency that it might bring about" (Kevin). This perspective is in line with what Breen and Littlejohn (2000) term as "proper learning". They claim

> a pedagogy that does not directly call upon students' capacities to make decisions conveys to them that either they are not allowed to or that they are incapable of doing so; or it may convey that the more over struggle to interpret and plan is not part of proper learning (p. 21).

Another participant preferred to apply "eclecticism and communicative language teaching approach". He believed that there is "only little difference between Communicative Approach and post-method" (Joseph). However, other participants recognized the post-method as a positive turn of events with the potential for some practical outcomes. James and Kevin like what they called as a freedom that post-method pedagogy provides teachers and learners with.

The similarities between post-method pedagogy and CLT have been a controversial issue in the literature. For instance, Bell (2003) indicates the similarities between CLT and the post-method strategies. Yet, when it comes to the term context, one can see the main difference between CLT and post-method. Context in CLT is an umbrella term for who is talking to whom, about what and where. However, post-method goes beyond it and touches the aspects of the real sociopolitical live. Besides, as Akbari (2008) says

> "CLT does not have a critical appreciation of the classroom because for CLT, negotiation of meaning and interpersonal communication are the two basic objectives envisaged by its proponents, and no effort is made to link L2 teaching practice to social change" (p.644).

4. 2. Materials and test

All three participants believed that *the materials and tests* that they use, provide them with a working plan that has been subscribed to a method. As Kevin said " syllabus design, teaching and learning, classroom activities, language assessment and teacher education all seem to be clouded both by the past different methods in the last 50 years and by the present fog of SLA research related or unrelated material available". James also mentioned that in his context teachers have to "sticks to the script". In addition, achievement tests can be counted as an administrative barrier in English foundation classes from the participants' perspective. James mentioned that they are held back from an entirely post-method approach since they are expected to help learners to reach at a "fixed set of learning outcomes".

Hutchinson and Terres (1994) see the textbooks as an agent of change because they provide us with the condition of a long lasting and smooth change. As they note one of the advantages of textbooks is that textbooks get the support of the group behind the individual teacher, and thus

relieves the teacher of much of the burden of responsibility for introducing changes. Seemingly, then, textbooks can provide the teachers and learners with the level of needed structure to adopt change.

4. 3. Teacher Education

Another critical aspect of post-method, from the participants' angle, is the mainstream teacher training programs. The participants believed that effective and reflective teachers' training may open the door to the post-method pedagogy. It seems that teachers prefer to be exposed to knowledge rather than finding it out. They expect teacher educators to take the first step. During our online discussion James raised a question that "how do the current teacher training courses, and Master's courses present the post-method world of ELT to its trainees?" He believed that it is teacher educators who play the significant role to help post-method to move from the realm of ideas to that of practice.

It is clear that teacher educators play a significant role in clarification of the concept of the post-method as well its emergence to ESL pedagogy. Having considered the L2 literature as well as the comments made by the participants, the researcher found no evidence of appropriate inquiry- oriented teacher education that is one of the post-method indicators in the current teacher training courses, and Master's courses. In other words, teacher education is an essential part of L2 teaching and learning, as it would help teachers to articulate their thoughts and experiences with one another. According to Kumarvadivelu (2006),

> the task of the post-method teacher educators is to create conditions for prospective teachers to acquire necessary authority and autonomy that will enable them to reflect on and shape their own pedagogic experiences, and in certain cases transform such experiences (p. 182).

Now the question that might arise is that when current teacher education is based on the mainstream approach, how L2 teachers can recognize the short comings of these programs through dialogic approach? In other word, the post-method teacher educators need to do walking rather than do talking in order to create such a condition for L2 teachers to expose them to "pedagogy of possibility".

In other words, clarification of the concept of the post-method pedagogy is not something to be overlooked. It means even if the post-method pedagogy aims not to expose teachers with the prepackaged and pre-sequenced body of knowledge, neglecting real needs of introducing the concept of the post-method pedagogy to teachers in teacher training courses may not be a good idea.

5. Discussion

Before seeing the post-method pedagogy as an alternative to make effective changes, advocators of post-method need to create suitable conditions for effective changes. It is clear that making change is one issue but accepting change is something else. The main challenging point of change is that individuals feel secure within the existing context and they usually resist the change. Akker (1988) claims the fundamental requirement in the process of change is security

(cited in Hutchinson & Terres, 1994, p.322). In his study on written materials and their helpful role in the implementation of a new curriculum, he concluded that the highly structured approach is more effective in getting curriculum change into the classroom. Akker (1988, p.54) adds

> "certainly, if early experiences have been satisfying and yield positive results (both in teacher's performance and in students' learning) there seems to be more chance of commitment to a program and of stable and substantial changes in the direction of proposals for an innovation" (p. 54).

Yet, the situation even gets worse when the post-method pedagogy aims to change the highly structured method based pedagogy to the post-method macro strategies. As the participants mentioned the current materials and teacher education create constraints to apply the post-method strategies in the classroom. Teachers likely prefer textbooks that have laid down the framework within which they can operate.

The findings of this study suggest that the key factor in adapting post-method pedagogy in an actual classroom is not teachers' willingness for such a change. But there are some other barriers such as the mainstream teachers education, materials, and tests.

5.1. Teachers' perception towards the post-method

It was found in the course of interviews that the participants believed that the post-method pedagogy increases the agency of both learners and teachers that is counted as the key advantage of post-method. That is what Kumaravadivelu (2006) terms as *academic autonomy* that enables learners to gain a sense of responsibility for their own learning. The participants of the study also believed that in the post-method pedagogy a teacher has more freedom to develop their own curriculum and vary their classroom approach. According to Freeman (1991) method-based pedagogy "overlooks the fund of experience and tacit knowledge about teaching which the teachers already have by virtue of their lives as students" (p. 35). On the other hand, if teachers have a desire to acquire a degree of autonomy, post-method pedagogy encourages them to develop a reflective approach to their own teaching. As Kumaravadivelu (2006) asserts post-method pedagogy "recognizes the teachers' prior knowledge as well as their potential to know not only how to teach but also how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula, and textbooks" (p. 178).

5.2. The participants' practical suggestion

Although teachers may find themselves autonomic in the post-method pedagogy, there are some constraints that do not let them to apply post-method strategies in the classroom such as materials and tests. The current textbooks provide teachers with the framework that defines how languages are taught and learned, leaving little room for teachers' reflection. In addition, in many contexts teachers are evaluated based on the students' achievement in their tests. As Shohamy (2004) mentions teachers "view test not only as testing the language performance and proficiency level of their students but also as assessing or testing their own performances" (p. 107).

It seems that the advocators of the post-method pedagogy might need to design some effective theory-neutral materials and tests in order to introduce changes gradually within a

structured framework enabling the teachers and learners to develop in harmony with the introduction of new ideas.

In addition, teacher education can play the significant role to help post-method to move from the realm of ideas to that of practice by clarifying the concept of the post-method and creating conditions that enable teachers to reflect on and shape their own pedagogic experiences. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), " it becomes necessary to have teacher education that does not merely pass on a body of knowledge, but rather one that is dialogically constructed by participants who think and act critically" (p. 182).

5. 3. Implication

This study can be an example of that the main barrier of applying the post-method pedagogy is not teachers' ideologies. But for the post-method to take hold, change should begin with teacher education which lays the foundations of norms of practice, teachers' evaluation, and choosing standardized textbooks and tests. Because notions of the post-method can remain just a topic for academic lectures, explicit opportunities need to be provided in which teachers can go through self-exploratory practice. Professional development program or academic discourse community could offer such opportunities.

5.4. Limitation

This study has two conceptual limitations. First, since the participants were chosen from EdD program in TESOL, they were more interested in exploring new issues in the L2 literature than teachers who might have to work overload to earn living and they do not have enough time to adapt any new strategies. Second, all the data were collected via email. Therefore, the researcher could not gather in-depth information about the participants' context such as (place, level, age group, and culture).

6. Concluding Remarks

This research is a preliminary work to portray the perception of English Language teachers regarding post-method pedagogy. The researcher tried to find out L2 teachers' perception of the current debate in TESOL via going through a set of interviews to delve into 3 practitioners' inner thoughts regarding the post-method pedagogy. Having considered the scholars' chapter of mind that was being reviewed as well as the collected data from, it has been concluded that,

1. Post-method was born in the heels of the myriad shortcomings attributed to the then-in-the-fashion L2 methods and in order for the SLA to keep abreast of the pedagogical advances in terms of incorporating socio-cultural and critical considerations into the context of teaching/learning. Clearly, the current textbooks cannot meet the learners' and the teachers' needs within the post-method pedagogy domain as they still emphasize the method based approach and ignores "competence in terms of social interaction" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b, p. 60).

2. Since making change is one issue but accepting change is something else, the post-method pedagogy needs to take into account some specific features in order to move from the realm of ideas to that of practice. Two factors that prohibit teachers to apply the post-method pedagogy are textbooks and tests. As Akbari (2008) points "even if teachers do not openly subscribe to a method, the textbooks they use provide them with a working plan that defines how languages are

taught and learned" (p. 646). The participants of this study also believed that in order to involve L2 teachers in the post-method debates, the textbooks and tests requires the modification in order to provide the teachers and learners with the level of needed structure to adopt change.

3. It was found out within the course of the study that teacher education can play a significant role in L2 teaching and learning. The existence of an appropriate teacher education is essential for the post-method pedagogy to expose teachers to an inquiry based program. In addition, the realization of the post-method pedagogy needs an appropriate teacher education program to clarify the concept of the post-method pedagogy as well as to distinguish it from the method based approaches such as CLT. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006) it is necessary " to have a teacher education that does not merely pass on a body of knowledge, but rather one that is dialogically constructed by participants who think and act critically" (p. 182). To sum up, If and only if teachers educators stop transmitting a set of prepackaged body of knowledge to teachers and create a "dialogic" (Bakhtin, 1981) and "inquiry-oriented" program then teachers might feel more secure to accept such a change.

This paper tried to present some possible strategies, based on the scholars' chapter of mind that was being reviewed and what the participants expected, which hopefully can make a practical change to the mainstream teacher education and the textbooks in order to meet the teachers' needs to adopt the post method pedagogy.

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Teaching American Civilization Effectively: A Melange of Professional Development Procedures

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Abstract

In today's technology driven-world, professional development affirms that it can open-up channels of communication, assure collegiality among peers, help gain practical classroom ideas, and result in attaining higher levels of learning among the students. A closer inspection of English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching at the University of Oran -2- reveals that such opportunities are not offered and mainly in the teaching of American civilization, which remains till present times covered in the traditional way and is described as being inadequate. This digest proposes an intervention that seeks to redress this situation through the implementation of professional development procedures within classrooms of a population of 2nd year EFL learners furthering their studies under the Licence-Master-Doctorate (LMD) system. This research work aims at proposing a teaching based on professional development strategies that may enable instructors to reflect on their own behaviours and classroom practices, as well as better detect their learners' motivations and expectations. As a major research question, this study focuses on the effects perceived by EFL teachers when incorporating these strategies in their classrooms. To gather convenient information, a case study is carried out based on a triangular approach encompassing questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation. Results show that the integration of these initiatives helped teachers better liaise with their learners, maintain high professional standards, and ameliorate their students' academic deficits. Given their strengths, EFL teachers are then recommended to include these professional methods in their syllabuses and put them into action.

***Keywords*:** American civilization teaching, EFL learners, LMD environment, Professional development

Introduction

It is clearly evident that the major role of teachers is to prepare their learners for today's scenario when they have to study hard and compete. To perform such a task, instructors need to be strongly aware of the elemental aims of education as highlighted by Rogers (1969):

> The goal of education, if we are to survive, is the facilitation of change and learning. The only person who is educated is the person who has learned how to learn; the person who has learned how to adapt and change; the person who has realised that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security. Changingness, a reliance on process rather than on static knowledge, is the only thing that makes any sense as a goal for education (p. 152).

Producing change is then at the heart of the objectives of education, and one of the basic ways through which change can occur in educational settings is professional development. Correspondingly, in today's increasingly digital and challenging context, the need for an enduring professional development in language teaching circles has become strong. In the area of foreign language education, many teachers declare that they need to take on their job-related responsibilities within their workplace and outside their classrooms. They claim that they desire to reflect on their own pedagogical decisions and discover particular areas where there is a mismatch between their own teaching methods and better practices. Being convinced that professional development has to be an ongoing process that is "not limited to any space, institution or diploma" (Cobo, 2013, p. 83), ELT practitioners view it as a process that should comprise acquiring new abilities and information as well as exploring assumptions, attitudes and approaches and the way they affect teaching.

In common parlance, professional development signifies the training required for staying current with changing technology and practices in a profession through ongoing education, and enables practitioners to deliver science education. In the field of teaching, this process can be provided and supported both at the institutional level and through teacher's own personal endeavours. Richards and Farrell (2005) believe that professional development is this educational philosophy which is:

> based on the belief that knowledge is actively constructed by learners and not passively received. Learning is seen as involving reorganisation and reconstruction and it is through these processes that knowledge is internalised. In teacher education, this has led to emphasis on teachers' individual and personal contributions to learning and to understanding of their classrooms, and it uses activities that focus on the development of self-awareness and personal interpretation (p. 6-7).

Moreover, the General Teaching Council for England (GTC) draws up a list of recommendations for ongoing professional development in the field of teaching, which focuses on "engaging the individual teacher in reflection and action on pedagogy, the quality of learning, setting targets and high expectations, equal opportunities, planning, assessment and monitoring, curriculum and subject knowledge, and classroom management" (GTC, 2000, p. 5). Similarly, the Association for Science Education (ASE) (2000) proposes a framework which categorises seven domains for development:

- Subject knowledge and understanding
- Pedagogical content knowledge
- Development of teaching and learning
- Understanding teaching and learning
- The wider curriculum and other changes affecting teaching
- Management skills: managing people
- Management skills: managing yourself and your professional development (p. 10).

According to ASE, these seven areas that they named 'Professional Development Matrix' should be the focus of teachers to enhance their instruction and to create a more supportive environment that promotes students' learning.

Professional Development: A Literature Review

It should be recognized that in the field of language teaching professional development constitutes a platform for ongoing learning and significant positive effects on teachers' abilities, attitudes, knowledge and changes in their instruction. It is a process which is characterized by a number of core strengths and features, among which the following can be cited:

Basic Strengths of Professional Development

Investing in each of the teachers offers them the possibility of becoming more proficient at their tasks and helps them better prepare their learners for promising future careers. Therefore, supporting professional development initiatives presents multiple rewards including the following:

- Establishing a Sense of Community Between Peers:

Implementing professional development strategies helps teachers develop a better working rapport with other colleagues. It also allows ample opportunities for instructors to acquire new knowledge, launch debates, share viewpoints, identify different aspects of their own teaching, and therefore build up strong bonds that may be of a lasting value.

- Exploring a Series of New Teaching Strategies:

Teachers can gain a lot from the process of meeting together, exchanging ideas and discussing their own experiences. In this regard, James (1996) contends that: "The person using group solidarity to support others and to be supported then becomes empowered to act productively elsewhere" (p. 94). Through professional development activities, language teachers can get acquainted with new teaching methods, learn from them and try to improve their own instruction.

- Raising Awareness:

It should be acknowledged that teachers learn better from exploring and understanding the nature of teaching experiences (Schon, 1983; Wallace, 1991; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Thus, by exchanging and sharing their instructional practices teachers develop greater awareness of the most common and difficult problems and barriers that can be encountered in the process of language teaching.

- Increasing Motivation:

Professional development is a process that is intended to serve as a source of motivation that helps the teachers reawaken their desire to produce some directions in their classroom practices and to lead future teacher learning initiatives and projects. Conducting professional procedures on a regular basis allows the teachers up their motivation and enables them to perform their tasks with an avid frame of mind.

Distinguishing Features of Professional Development

Stressing the importance of professional development, Harwell (2003) recapitulates its main features and the key factors that contribute to its success:

Table 1. *Characteristics of Effective Teacher Development*

Context (or setting) • Supports professional development and the changes it is intended to bring about • Is characterized by a shared sense of need for change • Its teaching professionals agree on answers to basic questions regarding the nature of learning and the teacher's role in the classroom • Its teaching professionals consider learning a communal activity
Content • Deepens teachers' subject matter knowledge • Sharpens classroom skills • Is up to date with respect to both subject matter and education in general • Contributes new knowledge to the profession • Increases the ability to monitor student work • Addresses identified gaps in student achievement • Centers on subject matter, pedagogical weaknesses within the organization, measurement of student performance, and inquiry regarding locally relevant professional questions • Focuses on (and is delivered using) proven instructional strategies
Process • Is research based • Is based on sound educational practice such as contextual teaching • Supports interaction among master teachers • Takes place over extended periods of time • Provides opportunities for teachers to try new behaviors in safe environments and receive feedback from peers

(Harwell, 2003, p. 3)

The current research seeks to help teachers profit from the merits of incorporating professional strategies in their context. Targeting essentially the teaching of American civilization and in collaboration with instructors covering this module at the University of Oran-2-, the researcher proposes the following professional strategies to be integrated in the classrooms to get the teachers' responses about the suggested approach's impacts on their professional growth.

The Suggested Types of Professional Development Procedures to be Implemented

Two types of procedures were carried-out at the individual level (Self-monitoring) and another based on collaborative activities (Teacher study groups).

- Self-Monitoring:

Being described as a useful professional procedure to the observation, evaluation, and management of one's own behavior in order to achieve a better understanding and control over the behaviour (Armstrong & Frith, 1984; Koziol & Burns, 1985), self-monitoring has been undertaken through the use of questionnaires and audio-recording. To better document what happened throughout the lessons, teachers were advised to design collaboratively questionnaires to track their teaching with purpose to share their results. They were also asked to activate and place tape recorders in a location where they can record the exchanges which take place during the lessons including critical incidents and the interaction of the class.

- Teacher Study Groups:

Viewed as a collaborative problem-solving instrument used by a community of teachers engaging in reflection in that it plays a key role in "providing opportunities for teachers to validate both teacher knowledge and teacher inquiry" (Lieberman & Grolnick, 1998, p.723). This strategy has been incorporated through the organisation of reading groups and topic-based groups. To gather useful information then to apply it in their classrooms to better serve their students' needs, 'American civilization' teachers were required to select articles and professional books to be read and analysed. They were also asked to choose and discuss particular topics of interest in order to determine how content can be changed and improve therefore their classroom practices.

The Research Context and Participants

This research took place at the university of Oran in Algeria, where "the existing arrangements of teacher education are not producing teachers who meet the expectations of insuring both excellence and equity for all students" (Beauchamp & Clarke, 2016, p. XI). This study targeted 2nd year LMD students majoring in EFL. This population was made up of 415 learners (male and female). Five teachers covering the module of American civilization took part in this research work being the field specialists and the people directly concerned with this teaching.

Data Gathering and Analysis

A deep insight into the reality of teaching American civilization to 2nd year EFL students reveals a series of inadequacies that manifest the existence of real problems which call for real solutions. As far as this teaching is concerned, students show noticeable reluctance and a lack of enthusiasm for the courses, they find them annoying and not interesting since they see their

classrooms spaces where traditional lecturing and note-taking are the norm. The teachers complain about the absence of collegiality among peers. They explain that their learners are demotivated, the teaching materials are dated, and the institution does not provide any kind of improvement or continuing career development programme.

To examine the problematics posed here, a major research question is addressed:

- What impacts do EFL teachers perceive by implementing professional development procedures in their classes?

To better explore the situation, a case study approach is adopted in this research to collect useful data through the use of many tools of investigation including questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation procedures. This approach is utilized because it is considered as a powerful research means that: "investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context: when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources evidence are used" (Yin, 1984, p.23). It is therefore, a research method that enables the researcher to look at the subject from various and different perspectives (Thomas, 2016).

A questionnaire was given to 2nd year EFL students (male and female). This data collection tool sought to get an overview about the students' needs, the importance of American civilization in their academic achievements, and the changes that may be made to improve the current situation of its teaching. Another questionnaire was addressed to the teachers in an attempt to find out the main difficulties encountered by American civilization teachers when covering the module, as well as their need for professional training to overcome these predicaments. The participants were asked to fill it anonymously offering them a wide room for freedom to express themselves. Pre- and post- interviews were conducted with these teachers before and after the integration of the professional development strategies to get a thorough picture of the current status of instruction, better identify the changes that have occurred after the incorporation of the suggested professional procedures and to determine whether assumed objectives of this study have been achieved or not.

Being a strong data collection instrument used to get a good grasp of the context under study, the researcher undertook the process of observation, since it has been very often used as a method of assessment and an important tool for nurturing key pedagogic skills and teacher learning (O'Leary, 2014). It also helps to get an objective view of the lessons and to record different aspects of teaching practices. The data analysis comprises the learners' questionnaire, the teachers' questionnaire, classroom observation reflection. These data gathering means can offer an insightful picture of the encountered difficulties faced by the teachers in their classrooms. The analysis includes also, the transcripts of the teachers' pre- and post- interviews conducted with American civilization teachers that highlighted the differences observed between the phase that preceded the implementation of the suggested approach and the stage during which professional development procedures were undertaken. The in-depth examination results in three major themes concerning the impact of the professional development approach.

To answer the key research question of this research, the main themes are explained as follows:

1- Building a Strong Classroom Community:

Training in the use of the suggested professional procedures offered the teachers the possibility to find out more about their learners' own wants and expectations, and allowed them to gain an insightful understanding of their differences in terms of learning styles and strategies which urged them to use a variety of teaching materials taking into account the different types of learners. The teachers reported that they noticed an increased participation translated into a higher level of involvement among their students. By introducing their new content enthusiastically, debating some key issues related to the American culture, showing interest in their classes, they could create a more supportive atmosphere and a kind of trusting rapport that is basic in promoting academic success.

2- Teachers' Development of Analytical and Reflective Skills

The teachers declared that all the types of professional strategies they tried to integrate in their classroom were beneficial and helped them reflect critically on their own pedagogical decisions and discover particular areas where there is a mismatch between their own teaching methods and better practices. They revealed that they became capable of identifying their learners' progress and achievements and developing analytical and reflective competences. They recognized that this suggested approach based on professional growth helped to build self-confidence, and to improve their intellectual ability for independent learning.

The following vignette is an expressive illustration of a teacher's personal feelings and thoughts:

> "I feel so glad to notice positive effects on my own classroom practices and a sense of professional identity. I want to encourage other peers to try these strategies and engage in more research"

3- Tangible Results in terms of Students' Outcomes:

Before the integration of professional methods in American civilization classes, the teachers noticed a passive absorption of information by the learners. Being guided and equipped with their own acquisition of knowledge, the instructors become more engaged and capable of orienting their students towards a more active learning experience. Thus, as teachers showed transformations, and modified their classroom practices, the whole process has shown noticeable change. This has offered them opportunities to practise collaborative learning and group dynamics. The teachers revealed that their learners have shown good achievement in their written abilities and a better fulfilment orally when tackling key topics on American culture and life.

Moreover, these positive impacts can be observed beyond the teachers' workplace, that is through their participations in international conferences and their researches that appear in a variety of publications. It's worth noting that officials and decision makers have also to be aware of measurements that should be taken to encourage such fruitful initiatives and to sustain teachers' professional growth.

Conclusion

As concluding remarks, the findings reflect a consistency with the reviewed literature that accentuates the merits of professional development in that it allows teachers to identify their knowledge weaknesses and gaps and address them. Further, it sees it as a contributing tool to personal career aspirations and learners' better achievements. This research calls also for a commitment and prompt action from teachers to further continuing professional progress, even if

no assistance is provided, bearing in mind that teaching is a profession that should be motivated by pure altruism and that caring about the best for our learners should be our priority.

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Exploring the School Improvement Specialist Coaches' Experience in Coaching English Language Teachers

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Abstract

Having School Improvement Specialist Coach to support English language teachers is one of the most recent efforts taken by Malaysian government to improve the standard of English in the country. This paper aims to provide insights into the coaching process as perceived by the coaches. In-depth semi-structured interviews were carried out with two coaches where they were asked to share their coaching experience. Specifically, this paper addresses the coaches' perceptions on the professional and personal qualities required in order to be a good coach; their challenging and successful experiences; and their overall views of the effectiveness of the coaching programme. Data analysis reveals that coaching, as part of a professional development programme, is perceived by the coaches to have a significant impact on the enhancement of overall teaching practices. This paper offers valuable insights into the coaching process which are hoped to be beneficial to SISC+, teachers and other stakeholders in education sector.

Keywords: Coach, English language teachers, Malaysia; SISC+, teacher professional development

Introduction

Education has always been one of the highest priorities in Malaysia as it strives to attain the status of a developed nation (Jamil, Razak, Raju, & Mohamed, 2014). It is seen as the basis in producing high quality human capital towards achieving the nation's vision. In order to produce excellent human resources, comprehensive and practical strategies are needed. Tackling and strengthening the education system of a nation will later produce well equipped students who can contribute to the development of the nation by working productively. In the dynamic context of the Malaysian education system, our policies on education are changing rapidly and seminally to cater for the salient national need of producing not only good but quality citizens (Albury & Aye, 2016). The educational goal, as in the economic-philosophical sense, is that in years to come, our young generation will no longer hunt for jobs instead they should be able to create jobs for the country. In such relentless effort, the changing in the education policies have been happening for decades in order to improve the quality of education, teachers, and student learning.

Literature Review

SISC+ programme

School Improvement Specialist Coach (SISC+) programme was introduced in year 2012 to support teachers in translating written curriculum into classroom teaching. The roles of SISC+ encompass the responsibilities of taking new curricula and assessments to the classroom, coaching teachers on pedagogical skills, and monitoring the effectiveness of the implementation (Ministry of Education, 2012). The introduction of the SISC+ is hoped to reduce the number of tiers involved in curriculum and assessment delivery and provide on-the-ground training to teachers. The coaching is hoped to tailor to the teachers' needs as SISC+ observes teachers in classrooms and provides instant feedback. It is expected that more than 60% of the SISC+'s time is spent on coaching activities (Ministry of Education, 2012) as teachers' quality is one of the most significant factors in student learning (DuFour & Mattos, 2013).

Teachers are required to deliver the existing syllabus in a manner that emphasizes skills and competencies critical for the 21st century (Ministry of Education, 2012). Pedagogical skills are boosted to improve student-centred teaching. The focus of SISC+'s coaching sessions are on the mastery of key pedagogical skills in developing higher-order thinking skills, teaching children of different abilities, and assessing students effectively. Therefore, SISC+ does not have direct contact with students in the classroom as SISC+'s clients are teachers.

Coaching versus mentoring

The terms coaching and mentoring tend to be used interchangeably in a great deal of literature and it is very difficult to be conclusive about the differences as writers proposed many different views or ignore the issue of definition altogether. However, in general, mentoring is conceived as a long term relationship which focuses not just on setting and achieving goals, but also on developing the whole person. Law, Ireland and Hussain (2007) describes it this way:

> Mentors are regarded as trusted guides who understand the theory of personal development and are experienced in translating it into practice. Mentors do not simply provide mentees with a road map and travel tips, but also walk some of the journey with them. The collaboration (co-journeying) enables mentors and

> mentees to develop and experience a new journey that is full of surprises (p. 13).

Rogers (2008) and Weiss and Kolberg (2003) agree with this view when they point out that mentoring and coaching are very similar activities, which use very much the same skills and competencies. The only real difference suggested, is that, the coach focuses on building mentee's ability to accomplish specific tasks, whereas the mentor has a wider perspective. The mentor generally has a longer-term relationship with the mentee, and focuses on a broader range of issues at any given time (Rogers, 2008).

A mentor can play an important additional role, which in business is sometimes described as sponsorship mentoring. This is when the mentor acts as an advocate or sponsor for the mentee within the organization (Weiss & Kolberg, 2003). In this situation, a mentor goes beyond merely suggesting ideas for development but actively opens doors for the mentee, for example, suggesting his/her name when important opportunities arise (Rogers, 2008). In summarizing the differences between mentoring and coaching, Rogers (2008) suggests that, in practice, mentoring does have overtones of implying that the older and wiser mentors will pass on their advice.

What clearly emerges in educational literature is that the term coaching is a metaphor used to describe a supportive, working relationship between two (or more) people for the purposes of creating changes in practice through the development of individual capacities (Robertson and Murrihy, 2005). Robertson and Murrihy (2005) define coaching in the following way: "Coaching, as presented in this book, is a special, sometimes reciprocal relationship between (at least) two people who work together to set professional goals and achieve them" (p. 24).

Though coaching can be a one way process with one person always being the coach and another person is always the one being coached, Robertson and Murrihy (2005) argue that:

> the term coaching depicts a learning relationship, where participants are open to new learning, engage together as professionals equally committed to facilitating each other's leadership learning development and wellbeing (both cognitive and affective), and gain a greater understanding of professionalism and the work of professionals (p. 24).

In Robertson and Murrihy's (2005) coaching model, it is assumed that the two partners will gain equal, though perhaps different, benefits "from working with each other as they develop and implement their professional and personal goals" (p. 30). Robertson and Murrihy (2005) promote a peer coaching model in which, at different times, one partner is the coach and another one is being coached and vice versa. This model proposes that there is mutual recognition of their need to grow and develop as leaders and educators as well as the recognition that they can assist each other in this process.

Sociocultural theory

Sociocultural theory is a theory of the development of higher mental practices which regards social interaction as the core of communication and learning process. It is derived from

the sociological and economic writings of Marx and Engels in eighteenth-and nineteenth century. The theory emerged from the work of the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1978), Leont'ev (1981), and Wertsch (1985).

One of the outstanding features of sociocultural theory is considering learning as social in nature where meaning is derived through language use within the social context. Contrary to the followers of cognitive theories who believe in mediation between stimulus and the response, Vygotsky's (1978) investigates the context of the behaviour or the social situation where the action occurs. The basic assumption in Vygotsky's theory is the idea that psychological structures do not exist in the individual's mind; rather, they are formed as a result of interaction with the social context. In other words, the emergence of mental functions depends on social interaction.

According to Mitchell and Myles (2004), sociocultural theory views learners as active constructs of their own learning environment. Confirming Mitchell and Myle's (2004) viewpoint, Guoxing (2004) states that learners in this sense are responsible for their own learning environment and the environment can nurture and scaffold them. Accordingly, teachers are seen as active constructors of their own teaching environment. Whatever teachers think of learners' language learning will definitely affect their constructions of teaching environment, though learners are the main focus of the teaching activities. Teachers will reconstruct their perceptions of L2 through practice and progress in language learning and teaching.

Sociocultural perspective of learning

The main focus of the sociocultural of learning is not on the individual but on the individual's surroundings. Claiming that learning is a social activity, sociocultural experts, such as Cole and Engeström (1993), Van Lier (2000), and Lantolf (2000) made a shift in their attention from individual cognition into mental activity of members of the same social community. Wertsch (1991), for example, emphasizes that sociocultural point of view should be distinguished from the other perspectives (e.g., constructivism) based on the context or surrounding of the learners. Learning is considered as the product of shared activity and the traditional teacher-student relationship should be changed to one that leads to collaborative learning (Zhang, Fanyu, & Du 2013). In this sense, solutions to learners' problems are gained through the involved participants' or members' behaviours in a shared context.

The 'expert' member or knowledgeable other assists other members who need help in the learning process. This guidance is stopped when the members who need help can act independently. This problem-solving process is accomplished by two learners who possess different levels of knowledge and experiences. In other words, as a result of this guidance, a novice gradually becomes the effective member of that community. While Vygotsky's (1978) research was derived from working with and observing children, the important idea of the interrelationship of the outside and the inside, the social and cognitive processes, remains valid in adult learning. Without social and cultural interaction, meaning of context and content would not exist.

As Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) state, "successful learning involves shifting control within activities from the social to the individual, from the external to within self" (p. 232). This is evident in Vygotsky's (1981) description of cultural development, that:

> any function in the child's development appears twice or on two planes. First it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. First it appears between people as an interpsychological category, and then within the child as an intrapsychological category (p. 163).

Expressed differently, the most significant contribution of sociocultural perspective to learning and consequently decreasing learners' problems is providing a supportive environment for cognitive development. Thus, for any learner to be successful in language learning, during social interaction within a classroom, it is necessary to change his/her learning status from first dependent other-regulation to subsequent independent self-regulation.

Teacher support and professional development

A number of education systems around the world are engaging in serious and promising educational reforms. One of the key elements in most of these education reforms is the professional development of teachers (Rashid, Rahman, & Rahman, 2016). It has been widely accepted that teachers are only one of the variables that need to be developed in order to improve their education systems, but they are also the most important change agents in these reforms (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Villegas-Reimers (2003) points out that there are many hard-working teachers and educators who need professional development opportunities, not only because they promote the recognition of their work as professionals, but also because of new opportunities for growth, exploration, learning, and development. This double role of teachers in educational reforms – being both subjects and objects of change – makes the field of teacher professional development a growing and challenging area, and one that has received major attention during the past few years (Rashid, 2016).

The professional development of teachers is a broad area which "includes any activity or process intent on improving dexterity, attitudes, understanding or involvement in current or future roles" (Fullan, 1990, p. 3). It also refers to "the professional growth the teacher acquires as a result of his/her experience and systematic analysis of his/her own practice" (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.88). Glatthorn (1995) defines teacher professional development as the professional growth a teacher accomplishes as a result of gaining increased experience and examining teaching systematically. Other researchers, such as Heideman (1990) emphasizes that the professional development of teachers goes beyond a merely instructive stage. Heideman (1990) asserts that teacher professional development implies "adaptation to change with a view to changing teaching and learning activities, altering teacher attitudes and improving the academic results of students" (p.4). Day (1999) puts forth a similar perspective that:

> it is the process by which teachers, whether alone or accompanied, review, renew and further their commitment as agents of change, with moral teaching aims. Moreover, they acquire and develop knowledge, competencies and emotional intelligence that are essential to professional thinking, planning and practice students throughout each stage of their teaching lives (p. 4).

The term continuing professional development (CPD) has been widely used to refer to the ongoing education and training for the professions (Blandford, 2000). Teacher development, staff development and professional development are associated concepts related to continuing professional development. Day (1999) clarifies the distinction between these terms and continuing professional development. He states that most definitions of professional development stress the acquisition of subject or content knowledge and teaching skills as the main purpose. He argues that the emphasis should be on the nature of CPD as a continuing process for improvement in addition to the knowledge and skills gained. This ongoing process can be of any kind; education, training, learning or supportive activities engaged in by teachers alone or with others. In short, CPD focuses on fostering individual competence to enhance practice and to facilitate dynamic changes in education (Blandford, 2000).

Methodology

Semi-structured interview

A qualitative research method is chosen for this study in order to gain insights into the personal views of the coaches. This research is not aimed for proving anything or comparing one thing with another to determine the best possible findings. It is meant to explore the views of the coaches on their roles in coaching English language teachers. A total of two School Improvement Specialist Coaches took part in this study. They were chosen based on purposive sampling. Purposive sampling refers to using personal judgment to select a sample who is knowledgeable in providing data for the study (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2009). For this study, the participants were experienced coaches from two different states in Malaysia.

The two coaches were interviewed face-to-face by the researcher. A recording device was used with prior consent obtained from the participants. While these two interviews varied in length, they were generally forty to fifty minutes in duration. Additionally, it should be noted that given the potential sensitivity of the study, pseudonyms have been allocated to the coaches in an effort to ensure their privacy and to preserve their anonymity. They are referred to as SISC+ A and SISC+ B in this paper. Upon completion of the data collection, the data were arranged according to plausible denominations which allowed for easier management.

Analysis and Discussion

The interview data were examined to gain insights into the coaches' views on their roles in coaching English language teachers.

The coaches reflected on the following points:

i. The professional and personal qualities of a coach
ii. Challenging and successful experiences.
iii. Overall views on the effectiveness of the programme.

The professional and personal qualities of a coach

In order to become a good coach, SISC+ A and SISC+ B agreed that the coach must possess certain qualities. Excerpts 1 and 2 present their views on the qualities of a good coach.

Excerpt 1:

> For me, a good coach must be understanding, non-judgemental, and a very good listener. Besides, a coach also needs to be knowledgeable and experienced. The coach should also never give up even though the teachers hardly show any improvement. These are the qualities that I think every coach must have in order to become a good coach.
>
> (SISC+ A)

From SISC+ A's point of view, the coach needs to let teachers know that he/she understands their efforts and struggles. This is consistent with the literature on coaching. For instance, Knight (2005) points out that coaches who are positive, understanding and non-judgmental is essential in building teachers' trust. This is also supported by McLymont and da Costa (1998) who suggests that acting "non-judgmentally is the grounding for trust in the network of relationships" (p. 34). Knight (2005) argues that coaches need to have an "infectious personality" along with content knowledge in order to inspire and motivate teachers to change their classroom practice. Coaches who have teaching experience at school will be perceived as credible by the teachers. If teachers feel that coaches have little or no classroom experience, they are less likely to believe what the coaches tell them.

Previous research suggests that district and school administrators need to carefully select coaches who demonstrate strong pedagogical knowledge, content expertise, and the interpersonal skills to carry out their responsibilities (Knight, 2005; Steiner and Kowal, 2007). Coaches need to be experienced teachers who have shown success in the classroom. Successful coaches understand how children and adults learn and what instructional strategies can best address the individual needs of students. Coaches also need to be able to develop and implement strategies that can help teachers with their instructional approach and classroom management. SISC+ B put forth other characteristics of a good coach:

Excerpt 2:

> In order to become a good coach, the coach needs to have high energy level, sense of humour, honest, and the most important thing is being professional. These are the qualities that I personally practise in becoming a good coach.
>
> (SISC+ B)

SISC+ B emphasizes that a coach needs to always be on her toes. If teachers feel that the coach is just sitting back relaxing, she may do the same. As pointed out by Knight (2005), the personal qualities of a coach are as important as their expertise in instructional techniques. SISC+ B also maintains that the coach should possess a high-level of energy and a positive outlook. Apart from that, the coach also should not take herself too seriously that she needs to be able to laugh at herself and her mistakes. A sense of humor will often diffuse a tense situation (Rashid, 2016). A coach must be someone with "a little bit of humor" so that teachers "feel relaxed" when they are being observed. This helps teachers to be more genuine and less likely to be "putting on a show" for the coaches.

Lastly, the coach also needs to be ethical and honest in what he/she says and does; anything less will lose the teacher's respect. If the coach is not professional, teachers will not

follow his/her suggestions and will disregard what he/she says. The personal and professional qualities of the coaches have a significant impact on how they approach their jobs, how seriously they took their roles, and how effective they are in helping teachers to make changes in their classroom practice.

Neufeld and Roper (2003) argue that a coach should not only be knowledgeable in the content area, but also of: school district reform goals, achievement standards, and adult learning. In order to meet these expectations, coaches must have strong communication and interpersonal skills. They must be able to offer consistent support to the teachers, and be willing to listen and learn. Their professional and personal skills have a significant impact on: i) how they go about interacting with teachers and the principal to establish trust; ii) in setting the tone for what the professional development and coaching would entail; iii) in the type of feedback they give to teachers and how they facilitate the feedback teachers give to one another; iv) in creating a supportive and nurturing environment; and v) in motivating teachers.

Challenges and successful experiences

SISC+ A and SISC+ B view their roles as challenging in coaching the teachers. This can be seen in Excerpt 3 below.

Excerpt 3:

> Ermm, teachers started to feel anxious when they know someone is coming to their classroom. They seemed to believe that I was there to judge them tormented me. But I couldn't blame them. In every human relationship, there's always at one point we could get comfortable with each other.
>
> (SISC+ A)

SISC+ A pointed out that teachers are often not prepared to be coached and they feel that there are 'eyes' looking at them at the back of the classroom. Thus, they need to think of the solutions to the problems that arise during the coaching session. Excerpt 4 presents the SISC+ A's view on ways to tackle the problem:

Excerpt 4:

> Communication plays a vital role here. Rather than positioning myself higher by labelling myself like "I'm here to judge you", I take another way by approaching the teacher in a friendlier way. The feedback and suggestion given are also in a presentable way - using the right intonation, and proper sentences without letting the teachers feel inferior. In spite of using "… you should do...", "… you must …" I decided to hear what they prefer to do on their own first, only then I give my suggestion. In this way, I believe the teachers would feel comfortable and hence the teaching could be improved.
>
> (SISC+ A)

SISC+ A highlighted the importance of establishing trust in order to change teacher practice. Trust is the key in overcoming resistance. McLymont and da Costa (1998) assert that establishing trust will allow people to take risks. In order to establish trust, it is important to establish credibility. The coaches need to provide some background information about their professional experiences in order to establish credibility in the beginning and to gain the trust

from the teachers. Coaching, in many cases, is about trust and building relationships. Several studies have shown the importance of trust in the coaching relationship (e.g. Kowel & Steiner, 2007; Brady, 2007; Neufeld & Roper, 2003; Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990). For instance, Brady (2007, p.47) states that coaches have to learn to communicate with teachers in a way that is "non-threatening or offending" when they are providing feedback; and they have to be able to establish and maintain the trust and respect of everyone involved at the school. Teachers have to be able to work with their coach "without fear of punitive reporting to the principal" (Brady, 2007, p. 47). Hargreaves and Dawe (1990) describe coaching as a form of training with an "intensive relationship" between the coach and teacher that has a "high practical focus, is intensive and enduring in application, and depends on the development of strong and trusting collegial relationships" (p. 230).

Excerpt 5 below presents one of the challenging experiences faced by SISC+B.

Excerpt 5:

> Sometimes there are teachers who have a "negative attitude" when it comes to change. Some teachers feel that they know what is best for their students, regardless of scientific based research or other evidence that the 'change' is going to improve student performance. Also, some teachers want to teach the way they were taught. These teachers have the mindset that "if it worked for me, it should work for everyone". We need to consider how coaches can inspire teachers to try something new. What factors are going to influence change or be a part of that change? What are the barriers in creating change?
>
> (SISC+ B)

SISC+B's experience resonates with Louis and Marks (1998) who point out that there could be "subtle resistance by teachers when another adult comes in, because classrooms are typically very isolated" (p. 539). Despite this challenging experience, there are also successful experiences that give the greatest moments of satisfaction for the coaches, as shown in Excerpt 6.

Excerpt 6:

> Well, I think most Malaysian school are well known of using chalk and talk method in previous years. As I was observing the teachers, I could see there were few teachers who started to show improvement on their teachings. The teaching and learning process were more interactive as the teachers involve group work, discussion in the classroom. Even their lesson deliveries were improved with the integration of ICT. This is one of my greatest successes as a coach.
>
> (SISC+ A)
>
> There was a teacher who was so used to the old style, one way interaction. After a close guidance, she started to use both teacher's and pupils' centred teaching approach and thus able to address the problems that her pupils faced in the lesson. As a coach, I need to make them aware that they need to be creative in catering the different styles of learning among the pupils thus need to integrate the 21st century learning style in the classroom.
>
> (SISC+ B)

SISC+ A and SISC+ B managed to make the teachers apply the newly transmitted knowledge in the classroom. This is a meaningful success as Kruse (1996) highlights that teachers who extend themselves professionally to improve their practice will become more effective teachers. Working together in professional communities to improve instruction and share expertise through collaboration increases teachers' sense of affiliation with each other and with the school (Louis, 1992). This is where the coach plays the vital role in improving teacher professional development. Teachers are valuable resources in education, and high quality performance in teaching is an essential ingredient to educational improvement or reform. Studies have shown that teachers' success in changing their practice often mirrors the work of the coaches (e.g. Neufeld & Roper, 2003). To assist the teachers, it is necessary to support their performance in the classroom. Support in the form of well-designed coaching programmes can be pivotal in enhancing teacher professional development.

Overall views on the effectiveness of the programme

Excerpts 7 and 8 present the coaches' overall views in describing the effectiveness of the coaching programme.

Excerpt 7:

> I could say it is effective and a very good programme as the teacher has someone to refer to regarding their teaching practices. This effectiveness can only be achieved when there is a mutual agreement between the teachers and me. When the teachers are ready to change and willing to follow my opinions, that's when I will offer suitable guidance to the teachers.
>
> (SISC+ A)

SISC+ A felt that the coaching programme had made significant and positive impacts on teachers. Similar to Guskey (2003), SISC+ A held the opinion that, to be effective, any coaching program needs to be developed in a way that takes into account the complexity, process and function of the programmes. SISC+ B agrees with SISC+ A that the program is effective. However, SISC+ B highlighted some problems with the implementation of this programme, as shown in Excerpt 8:

Excerpt 8:

> The programme is really good as it aims to strengthen our education system by improving teachers' classroom practices. However, in every programme, there are always drawbacks. I was a little bit upset with the budget that was cut down this year by the government in enhancing this programme. Consequently, there are several issues regarding the claim of the travel cost by SISC+. I haven't received my travelling claim for a few months already. Nevertheless, it's not a really big issue as I am ready to sacrifice and I am sincere in doing my job.
>
> (SISC+ B)

Despite not getting his travelling expenses, SISC+ B reported that he did not feel discourage from coaching the teachers. This suggests that the success of this program so far does not only rely on the mutual understanding between the coaches and the teachers being coached, but also the high level of tolerance possessed by the coach in the coaching process.

Conclusion

This paper examines the views of School Improvement Specialist Coach (SISC+) on their roles in coaching English language teachers in Malaysian primary school. Overall, the findings of this study show that coaching, as part of a professional development programme, is perceived by the coaches to have a significant impact on teaching practices and teacher professional development. The changes that have taken place could not have happened without the support from the coaches who are experienced and committed in supporting the teachers.

While this study puts forth the perspectives of the coaches involved in SISC+ programme and contributes to the body of knowledge about the coaching of English language teachers, there are still many questions which merit further exploration. It is recommended that future research examines the views of the teachers who are being coached so that their views can be compared with the coaches' views. It is hoped that the findings of this study will add to the body of knowledge besides providing useful insights into the needs of the coaches and the English language teachers involved in the coaching programme. The views shared by the coaches are also hoped to be useful for policy makers in designing, developing, implementing, and evaluating SISC+ programme to enhance the professional development of English language teachers in the country.

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The Effect of Reading-To-Write Approach on EFL Undergraduate Essay Writing

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Abstract
This paper attempts to investigate the effect of pre-writing reading on the undergraduate English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' performance in academic writing. Specifically, the main aim of the study is to examine whether the employment of 'reading-to-write approach' improves the university learners' essay writing at home situation. It also tries to check if the suggested approach makes any difference in the target group's writing. Control group and experimental group research design was used to examine the difference between the two groups and to determine if the suggested approach could make any significance statistically. The two groups sat for pretest and posttest in cause and effect essay writing. To compare the performance of the two groups in the posttest, an Independent Sample T-test was used. The results of the posttest indicate that there is a noteworthy improvement of the experimental group's essay writing. In addition, the study used grading rubric as criteria to assess the population's performance in the major components of academic essay writing. The study findings show that the learners' literacy is a major concern for the students as evident in the lack of reasonable ideas in their writing. Additionally, the paper is a genuine call to foster reading habits that would eventually develop academic writing.
*Keywords***:** directional model, integration, literacy, motivation, pedagogy

1. Introduction

Academic writing has long been a serious problem for (EFL) university students at home situation. This is evident in the low performance in their writing tasks, basically essay writing, which are prescribed in their English courses outline. The difficulties our students encounter in essay production range from their inability to elicit ideas, lack of literacy, wrong word choice, and major writing mechanics. This paper deals with an approach used to teach essay writing as a core skill in an advanced English course (ENGC 231) to 67 Palestinian university students. This course is usually given to all university students regardless of their specializations. The suggested approach which is called Reading-to-write (RTWA) has largely been employed in many EFL teaching writing settings (e.g. Heeney 2015; Boudersa 2013; Chuenchaichon 2011; Delaney 2008; Olson 2002; Grabe & Kaplan 1996). However, this paper will address how pre-writing reading activities improve our students' essay writing. It will also focus on the effect of reading on the students' learning styles when approaching essay writing. To apply the RTWA, the researchers will use the control and experimental group method.

It should be admitted that learning writing through reading is not new in EFL; still examining various approaches to learn essay writing at our home situation needs to be evidently tested.

2. Aims of learning English at university level at home situation

All undergraduate students are given the opportunity to develop their English language communication skills through being offered different English courses for all levels. These courses aim to provide students with a strong basic foundation in pre-academic English to better enable them function within the university requirements. At home situation, we have three basic levels of English categorized in accordance with the students' scores in the University English Placement test, which is part of Birzeit University admission requirements (see Birzeit University website - admission).

The target population of the proposed read-to-write approach will be the A level (ENGC 231- Advanced) students in the second semester of the academic year 2015-2016. In accordance with the course description, the students are expected to write and revise several essays. In this course, the students should be able to refine their prewriting and revise strategies to produce focused and detailed essays on different topics.

In short, the main objective of writing is to consolidate and foster the learners' language competence and their language material learnt by reading. Teachers should pay attention to the fact that writing, which is considered a long process, must be taught in a graded manner.

3. Research questions

This paper tries to answer the following questions:

1- How can reading-to-write approach (RTWA) make a difference in the undergraduates' essay writing skills?
2- To what extent can guided pre-reading activities improve the undergraduates' essay writing?
3- Can reading-to-write approach be a driving force towards fostering reading habits among EFL learners?

4. Significance of the study

Essay writing is a serious problem that our students encounter at the university level. It has been noted that our students' results were the lowest in the writing component of any of EFL communication courses, particularly in essay writing. This paper is a genuine attempt to handle this problem through teaching essay writing through reading, in a straightforward and precise pedagogical approach. Not only is the suggested approach expected to improve EFL learners' ability to write good essays, but it will also motivate them to develop good reading habits.

5. Literature review

5.1. What is writing?

Writing is a basic language skill that aims to consolidate and foster the learner's language competence and the language material learnt through other skills, basically reading. Like other language skills, writing is a long graded process that includes learning sub-skills such as pre-writing activities, handwriting, copying, dictation, constructing sentences, and guided composition. In discussing learning model, Emig (1977) clarifies, "Writing represents a unique mode of learning- not merely valuable, not merely special, but unique." (p.122). Nunan (1999) admits that writing is a difficult process that involves a continuous knowledge gathering over a long time. Therefore, learning to write academic essays by our EFL learners is considered a challenging task that requires introducing and addressing other important sub-skills that would help learners produce well-structured pieces of writing. Brown (1987) confirms the previous argument when stated, "Written products are often the result of thinking, drafting and revising procedures that require specialized skills." (p.335). Similarly, Zamel (1983) clarifies that the writing skill should be viewed as a reproductive method that involves realizing and expressing ideas in meaningful context.

5.2. Pre-writing reading affects students' essay writing skills

EFL courses often tend to integrate the four language skills. However, classroom practices may encounter difficulties in fully applying this trend in actuality, if not failing to do so. Research in TEFL and linguistics confirms that reading influences learners' ability to produce good pieces of writing as reading is simply considered as a utility to writing (e.g. Brown 1987; Byrne 1988; Escribano 1999; Murcia & Olshtain 2000; Delaney 2008; Heeney 2015). Not only does reading give the learners the chance to see how others write, but it also exposes them to a wide range of language spectrum usage. In addition, reading can broaden the learners' literacy, among other areas, about topics they are asked to write about. Tierney et al (1989) emphasize the need to combine reading and writing to activate and motivate critical thinking. At home situation, our learners have always voiced that eliciting ideas is a major problem in their essay writing. This should never imply that other difficulties in writing, such as word choice, clarity, flow of ideas and cohesion, are less important. Therefore, pre-writing reading activities, be in-class or out-class or be intensive or extensive, are expected to help learners learn writing styles, new vocabulary, writing structure and techniques, readability, informative ideas, etc. When writing, learners may also like to set what they read as models, both in structure and content. This explains that reading needs to be considered as an essential element that develops and improves learners' ability to write well. Langer & Flihan (2000) summed up the similarities between reading and writing processes:

> [T]he work on reading and writing processes indicates that writing and reading are

> deeply related activities of language and thought that are shaped through use. The structures and strategies that writers and readers use to organize, remember, and present their ideas are generally the same in writing and reading. (p.121)

5.3. Why reading-to-write?

Although approaching writing tasks through reading is not new in EFL pedagogies (e.g.Hirvela 2004; Brown 1987; Krashen 1984; Smith 1983), applicability in learning essay writing at our home situation is still in question. Researchers highlight the importance of learning writing through reading under different pedagogical names, for example, reading-to-write construct (Delaney, 2008), the role of reading in writing (Plakans, 2009), what is good writing?(Peha, 2003), genre-based pedagogy (Hyland, 2007), and reading-to-writing directional model (Chuenchaichon, 2011).

However, the scope of implementing this approach in our EFL writing classes is still confined to writing tasks that focus on reading with comprehension, analysing reading passages, summary writing, acquiring new vocabulary, writing reflections to written texts, and paragraph writing. When teaching essay writing, say cause and effect, our EFL teachers may use reading articles as models of writing for the identification of essay parts, cohesion in writing, and cohesive devices. But, when it comes to in-class essay writing practice, learners are asked to use essay writing techniques to write essays on a given topic. At this stage, our learners tend to write essays that lack important elements of good academic essay. Basically, essay components such as presenting genuine ideas, the flow of ideas, appropriate word choice, exemplification, reasoning, clear claim, and correct writing mechanics are likely to be problematic in their writing. In order to handle such difficulties in essay writing, there is a need to effectively implement reading-to-write approach in our writing classes. The points remain in question in this respect are: how can this approach be applied in essay writing class? To what extent does it work? Does it have any significance on improving essay writing? These themes will be discussed in detail later in this paper.

It is naïve to claim that these pedagogical assumptions are taken for granted in addressing essay writing problems. Surprisingly, Tuan (2012) claims that research fails to provide a clear-cut practical demonstration of the effect of reading on writing. In short, evidence is needed to prove that reading-to-write works in our essay writing classes.

6. Methodology

6.1 Student sample

The student sample consisted of two ENGC 231 course classes of 67 regular students from different faculties at Birzeit University in semester II, in the academic year 2015-2016. This course is an obligatory advanced EFL course for all university students. All students of the sample took ENGC 141 course, which focuses on reading comprehension and paragraph writing, as a pre-requisite to their ENGC 231 course. The sample students were taught ENGC 231 course by the same teacher. Class 231/division 23 was randomly selected as control group and Class 231/24 as experimental group. Table 1 shows the details of the sample groups.

Table 1: ***The sample Details***

Number of control group by		Number of experimental group by	
Year Level	Sex: Male = M Female= F	Year Level	Sex: Male=M Female= F
1 freshmen	14 M 11 F	1	11 M 11 F
2	3 M 1 F	2	4 F
3	1 M 1 F	3	3 F
4	1 M 3 F	4	2 M 1 F
Total	35	Total	32

6.2 Pretest and posttest

`The control and experimental groups were given the same pretest and posttest as research instrument. The study sample sat for the pretest in the eighth week of the 16-week semester, after the essay writing component was introduced in accordance with their course outline. The results of the pretest would determine if the two groups' level of English essay writing would be the same. The two groups were asked to write a five-paragraph essay of about 300 words on a topic chosen randomly by the teacher. The topic was: **Why do some people prefer not to carry mobile phones?** The time allowed for each test session was 90 minutes. (see Appendix E). The above topic was an example of a cause and effect topic which was meant to prepare students to write on any topic in the same category.

As for the posttest, the two groups were asked to write an essay on the same pretest topic with the same directions, time allotment, and the classroom setting. This test was given after seven weeks of learning cause and effect essay writing. The purpose of the posttest was to check if pre-writing reading-to-write approach, which was used in the experimental group classes, can help improve our learners' English essay writing.

6.3 Instruction approach: procedure

The control group's learning material was chapter 6 (pp. 94-110) of the writing textbook, *Introduction to Academic Writing (Level3)* (Oshima & Hogue, 2007). This chapter presents a graded way of learning cause and effect essay. Specifically, it introduces the cause and effect pattern of essay, its ways of organization, alongside exercises on the identification of essay parts of this pattern through two model essays, essay analysis, transition signals and essay production activities. The students were asked to do all the exercises of the chapter as in-class activities which were checked and corrected by the teacher. The chapter was covered in seven weeks.

While part of the experimental group's learning material was selected from the above textbook, particularly the organisation of cause and effect essay, other learning material was added. For example, reading articles related to the posttest essay topic were used as pre-writing reading-to-write activities. During a seven-week instruction, the procedure followed in the experimental group's writing classes could be summed up in the following steps:

- Learners were introduced to the essay organization presented in chapter 6 of the above textbook. (p.95).
- Learners were taught how to identify essay parts: introduction and thesis statement, body and conclusion. Teacher used the model on p. 96 from the above textbook.
- Learners were trained on writing thesis statements of different essay patterns. Teacher elicited learners to think of cause and effect essay topics and to write thesis statements.
- Learners were trained on outlining, writing introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.
- Learners were asked to use cause and effect transition signals in meaningful contexts. Learners were asked to refer to these markers on p. 101 of the same textbook.
- In class work, the learners were asked to brainstorm ideas on the essay topic: **Reasons that make some people choose not to carry mobile phones.**
- The teacher wrote the learners' frequent ideas on the whiteboard. These ideas were:

✓ Expensive devices
✓ Health reasons
✓ Maintaining privacy.

- Then, the teacher chose reading articles that would largely cover the learners' above ideas. The articles were adapted to meet the academic essay format. They were:

a. Kwan (n.d.), *What are the Disadvantages of Mobile Phones*
b. Greenspan (2011), *Why I Don't Have a Cell Phone*
c. James (2011), *My Life Without a Cell Phone: an Amazing Tale of Survival*

- Learners were asked to read the three articles at home for in-class discussion.
- In the coming class, the teacher received the learners' feedback on the articles and checked reading comprehension.
- The teacher warned the learners of the serious consequences of plagiarism, and explained the University's strict laws in this respect.
- One week later, the students were asked to write a five-paragraph essay on the same pretest topic in the posttest session. At that time, no article of the three and/or any was allowed in the test.
- Teacher collected the posttest papers for grading.

In short, the learning procedures in the experimental group's class work included word listing, word mapping and clustering, word categorizing, and guided pre-writing reading of three articles on the essay topic within a limited period of time. The whole process took seven weeks before writing the essay final draft.

6.4 Essay Evaluation

The pretest and posttest papers (134) were graded by the same teacher. Each essay in both tests was corrected out of 100 points. However, the total mark breakdown matches the essay assessment which was adapted from ACE/ESL 49, 2014 files Cause and Effect Grading Rubric. Using this grading scale stems from the fact that it is designed to assess the major components in any academic essay, particularly cause and effect. Additionally, writing assessment scales are expected to reflect the objectives of learning essay writing. One of the Assessment Scales that matches the rubric used in this study is what Hamp-Lyons (1987) presented as the Revised Assessment Scale and the Global Method in which the writer layout her criteria for what to be

assessed in writing. According to Hamp-Lyons, a very good writing, for example, should include basic elements such as its ability to convey the writer's message, its logical division of ideas, its ability to present clear ideas and its correct writing mechanics.

7. Results and discussion

As the focus is on the effectiveness of (RTWA) to essay writing, the results of the posttest performance of the control and experimental groups were highlighted. To ensure statistical significance, the researchers conducted an Independent Sample T-test. The results of the two groups were reported in the tables below, where table 2 shows the groups statistics (see Table 2) in terms of the group's number of students, mean value, standard deviation (Std), and std error mean.

Table 2: ***Control group and experimental group statistics***

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	control	35	60.7143	11.63810	1.96720
	experimental	32	71.6875	10.97339	1.93984

The results of the t-test for independent samples, as shown in Table 3 (see table 3), indicate a statistically significant difference, t (65) = -3.961, p = <0.001, between control group (M = 60.7143, SD = 11.63810) and experimental group (M = 71.6875, SD =10.97339).

Table 3 : ***Results of independent samples test***

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95 % Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed score	.200	.656	-3.961	65	.000	-10.97321	2.77015	-16.50558	-5.44084
Equal variances not assumed			-3.972	64.933	.000	-10.97321	2.76276	-16.49094	-5.45549

In order to assess the students' performance in the different components of the essay, an adapted format for cause and effect grading rubric was used. (see Cause and Effect Grading Rubric under Appendix A). When asked about the major problems in essay writing, most learners stated that they lack reasonable and genuine ideas on the essay topics. Definitely, there are other difficulties in cohesiveness, logical division of ideas, in addition to writing mechanics. The results of the

experimental group's posttest (see Appendix D) show that 51.43 percent of the learners were very good in stating clear causes of the given essay topic, '*Why do some people prefer not to carry mobile phones?*', whereas 31 percent of the control group failed to do so (see Appendix C). For example, the first group presented their reasons on the topic that included ideas such as interruption, expensive gadgets, hacking, radiation, annoyance, no real life relationship, distraction, etc. In fact, these ideas were elicited from the pre-writing articles they were asked to read; however, the wording of the learners' essays was clearly different from that of the articles. It should also be clarified that literacy and ideas taken from the pre-writing readings were used as prompts and stimuli for writing. No plagiarism or copying has been noted in the writing. Our university has very strict laws concerning plagiarism and academic integrity that should literally be observed.

The experimental group ability to restate the thesis and summarize the main points is evident, where 40 percent (see Appendix D) of the students in this group managed to do so, whereas 22.86 percent (see Appendix C) of the control group did so.

At the paragraph level, 54.29 percent of the experimental group gave very good specific reasons in their topic sentences, supported with details and examples in the posttest (see Appendix D). On the other hand, 28.57 percent of the control group learners were unable to present clear supportive reasons or ideas. Apparently, the gap between the two groups in terms of presenting ideas is a wakeup call for the question of literacy of our learners.

While there is a significant difference in the results of the pretest and posttest of both groups in presenting clear topic sentences (see Appendixes A,B,C & D) , the experimental group's posttest results have shown a percentage of 23.47 percent higher when compared to those of the control group (see Appendixes C & D).

Surprisingly, the word choice and mechanics item of both the experimental and control groups has shown a slight difference between the two who scored the percentages of 31.25 percent and 28.57 percent respectively. This fact spotlights that writing mechanics should be approached from another perspective, other than pre-writing readings. However, it may be assumed that word choice might have benefited from such readings.

It must be clarified that the study has ignored the variable factor which assumes that the sample students' results might have been affected due to the fact that the students are from different colleges. However, this assumption has no effect on the experiment as the reference of the students' level of English is the same.

8. Conclusion

The significance of using pre-writing reading activities, either in-class or out of class, is evident in presenting sensible and reasonable ideas that reflect the learners' literacy. However, it looks naïve if assuming that guided reading is the only feasible and applicable learning strategy to improve essay writing. The paper results indicate that it is pedagogically valuable to foster good reading habits among our learners and to help them shift from exam-oriented writers to writer-based writers who could be able to select their own readings and enrich their writings with knowledgeable thoughts. Another indication of the research is that teachers are invited to foster

the relationship between reading and writing skills in a way that shows a *real* integration between the two. For example, at an early stage of learning essay writing, teachers can ask learners to write a paragraph on a topic derived from a reading passage they have read and analysed. Literacy, then, is an issue EFL teachers at home should prioritize when teaching essay writing.

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Appendixes:

****Appendix A :** ***Grading results of control group (35 students) pre-test essay writing by item, number and percentage***

	Item	Needs improvement	OK	Very good	Excellent

	Content (30%)	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**
1	Clear Thesis Statement and Introduction	**18**	**51.43**	**12**	**34.29**	**5**	**14.29**		
2	Overall Clarity of ideas States clear cause and effect ideas	**20**	**57.14**	**9**	**25.71**	**6**	**17.14**		
3	Conclusion Restates the thesis and summarizes the main points.	**22**	**62.86**	**9**	**25.71**	**4**	**11.43**		
	Organization (30%)								
4	Body: Clarity of Topic Sentences (Each body paragraph includes a topic sentence that connects to the thesis)	**19**	**54.29**	**12**	**34.29**	**4**	**11.43**		
5	Paragraph-level (Transitions, cohesiveness of main ideas, reasons, supporting points and specific detail connect directly to topic sentences. Each reason is supported by facts, examples, or descriptions.)	**23**	**65.71**	**7**	**20.00**	**5**	**14.29**		
	Language (30%)								
6	Grammar (Correct form and usage and cause and effect collocations)	**14**	**40**	**12**	**34.29**	**9**	**25.71**		
7	Word Choice and Mechanics (demonstrates accuracy, control of spelling, punctuation, capitalization,)	**19**	**54.29**	**9**	**25.71**	**7**	**20.00**		
	Formatting/Writing Process (10%)								
8	Essay is double spaced Essay has a title page that is formatted correctly Essay is neat and presentable	**6**	**17.14**	**7**	**20**	**17**	**48.57**	**5**	**14.29**

	/100								

**Source: adapted from . Cause and Effect Grading Rubric. Retrieved 12 Dec. 2015 from: https://canvas.instructure.com/courses/871041/files/30662753

Appendix B: ***Grading results of experimental group (32 students) pre-test essay writing by item, number and percentage***

	Item	**Needs improvement**		**OK**		**Very good**		**Excellent**	
	Content (30%)	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of**	**%**	**Number of**	**%**	**Number of**	**%**
1	Clear Thesis Statement and Introduction	**16**	**45.71**	**13**	**37.14**	**3**	**8.57**		
2	Overall Clarity of ideas States clear cause and effect ideas	**18**	**51.43**	**9**	**25.71**	**4**	**11.43**		
3	Conclusion Restates the thesis and summarizes the main points.	**20**	**57.14**	**9**	**25.71**	**3**	**8.57**		
	Organization (30%)								
4	Body: Clarity of Topic Sentences (Each body paragraph includes a topic sentence that connects to the thesis)	**17**	**48.57**	**10**	**28.57**	**5**	**14.29**		
5	Paragraph-level (Transitions, cohesiveness of main ideas, reasons, supporting points and specific detail connect directly to topic sentences. Each reason is supported by facts, examples, or descriptions.)	**21**	**60**	**7**	**20**	**4**	**11.43**		
	Language (30%)								
6	Grammar (Correct form and usage and cause and effect collocations)	**13**	**37.14**	**11**	**31.43**	**8**	**23**		
7	Word Choice and Mechanics (demonstrates accuracy, control of spelling, punctuation, capitalization,)	**12**	**37.50**	**12**	**37.50**	**8**	**22.86**		

	Formatting/Writing Process (10%)								
8	Essay is double spaced Essay has a title page that is formatted correctly Essay is neat and presentable	**3**	**8.57**	**6**	**17.14**	**17**	**48.57**	**6**	**17.14**
	/100								

Appendix C : ***Grading results of control group (35 students) posttest essay writing by item, number and percentage***

	Item	**Needs improvement**		**OK**		**Very good**		**Excellent**	
	Content (30%)	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**
1	Clear Thesis Statement and Introduction	**7**	**20**	**15**	**42.86**	**9**	**25.71**	**4**	**11.42**
2	Overall Clarity of ideas States clear cause and effect ideas	**11**	**31.43**	**17**	**48.57**	**5**	**14.29**	**2**	**5.71**
3	Conclusion Restates the thesis and summarizes the main points.	**15**	**42.86**	**10**	**28.57**	**8**	**22.86**	**2**	**5.71**
	Organization (30%)								
4	Body: Clarity of Topic Sentences (Each body paragraph includes a topic sentence that connects to the thesis)	**11**	**31.43**	**14**	**40**	**8**	**22.86**	**2**	**5.71**
5	Paragraph-level (Transitions, cohesiveness of main ideas, reasons, supporting points and specific detail connect directly to topic sentences. Each reason is supported by facts, examples, or descriptions.)	**10**	**28.57**	**15**	**42.86**	**7**	**20.00**	**3**	**8.57**

	Language (30%)								
6	Grammar (Correct form and usage and cause and effect collocations)	**6**	**17.14**	**16**	**45.71**	**8**	**23**	**5**	**14.28**
7	Word Choice and Mechanics (demonstrates accuracy, control of spelling, punctuation, capitalization,)	**6**	**17.14**	**14**	**40.00**	**10**	**28.57**	**5**	**14.28**
	Formatting/Writing Process (10%)								
8	Essay is double spaced Essay has a title page that is formatted correctly Essay is neat and presentable			**4**	**11.43**	**9**	**25.71**	**22**	**62.86**
	/100								

Appendix D : ***Grading results of experimental group (32 students) posttest essay writing by item, number and percentage***

	Item	**Needs improvement**		**OK**		**Very good**		**Excellent**	
	Content (30%)	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**	**Number of students**	**%**
1	Clear Thesis Statement and Introduction	**4**	**11.43**	**6**	**17.14**	**15**	**42.86**	**7**	**20**
2	Overall Clarity of ideas States clear cause and effect ideas	**2**	**5.71**	**6**	**17.14**	**18**	**51.43**	**6**	**17.14**
3	Conclusion Restates the thesis and summarizes the main points.	**3**	**8.57**	**9**	**25.71**	**14**	**40**	**5**	**14.28**
	Organization (30%)								
4	Body: Clarity of Topic Sentences (Each body paragraph	**3**	**8.57**	**12**	**37.5**	**13**	**40.62**	**4**	**11.42**

	includes a topic sentence that connects to the thesis)								
5	Paragraph-level (Transitions, cohesiveness of main ideas, reasons, supporting points and specific detail connect directly to topic sentences. Each reason is supported by facts, examples, or descriptions.)	**3**	**8.57**	**3**	**8.57**	**19**	**54.29**	**8**	**22.85**
	Language (30%)								
6	Grammar (Correct form and usage and cause and effect collocations)	**4**	**11.43**	**8**	**22.86**	**18**	**51**	**2**	**5.71**
7	Word Choice and Mechanics (demonstrates accuracy, control of spelling, punctuation, capitalization,)	**4**	**12.50**	**12**	**37.50**	**10**	**31.25**	**6**	**17.14**
	Formatting/Writing Process (10%)								
8	Essay is double spaced Essay has a title page that is formatted correctly Essay is neat and presentable	**1**	**2.86**	**1**	**2.86**	**15**	**42.86**	**15**	**42.86**
	/100								

Appendix E : Essay writing : Pre-test /Post-test

Name:……. Time allowed: 90 minutes

Write a five-paragraph essay of about 300 words on the following topic:

Why do some people prefer not to carry mobile phones?

Remember to:

1. Brainstorm ideas before writing.
2. Write an outline for your essay.
3. Use the essay structure i.e. Introduction- Body - Conclusion
4. Write a clear thesis statement.
5. Use appropriate transition signals.
6. Pay attention to the writing mechanics.

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The Effect of Metacognitive Strategy Instruction on Moroccan EFL Learners' Strategy Use and Reading Achievement

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Abstract

The intent of this quasi-experimental study is to investigate the impact of explicit metacognitive reading strategy instruction (RSI) on Moroccan English as a foreign language (EFL) university learners' strategy use and reading achievement. It reflects whether this sort of instruction can make of learners strategic and critical readers. In this regard, a pre-post-test design involving the administration of reading comprehension pre- and post-tests to both the control and the treatment group was used. Two research questions were addressed: To what extent does explicit metacognitive reading strategy instruction influence Moroccan EFL university learners' strategy usage? To what extent does explicit instruction in metacognitive reading strategies impact Moroccan EFL university learners' reading achievement gains? A total of 113 participants were targeted in an attempt to reveal the perceived correlation exiting among the variables of strategy training, strategy use and reading achievement. The elicited data were collected by means of the reading comprehension texts, 'self-report questionnaire' and reading comprehension tests (e.g., pre-test, post-test). The findings unveiled that, through exposure to reading strategy training, as an effective medium of enhancing the learners' reading potential, the experimental group (N=63) reflected a more significant improvement at the level of strategy usage and reading performance than their counterpart, the control group (N=50), did at post-testing. Finally, the study concludes with some recommendations relatable to pedagogy and research.

Keywords*: metacognition, reading achievement, reading strategy instruction, strategy use*

Introduction

The cognitive approach, as noted by Samuels (1983), has had a great impact on the reading act. In fact, with the advent of this approach in the sixties, reading has been deemed as a "perceptual and cognitive process" (Rumelhart, 1977, p.573) in which readers, as active, dynamic learners, are highly expected to make use of a wide repertory of strategies for achieving an efficient understanding of the written input. This cognitive approach, an alternative type to the 'behaviourist' one, places much emphasis on the thinking processes and mental mechanisms and puts forth a broader view of reading by typically characterizing it as a "process in which knowledge held by the reader interacts with textual information in the construction of meaning" (Dole, et al., 1991, p.249).

Given both the complexity of conducting the cognitive act of reading among English as a foreign language (EFL) university learners and their exposure to a large body of written discourse throughout their academic studies, it is evident that reading strategy instruction can contribute to reading development. Basically, though learners possess some basic reading skills and capabilities to understand the incorporated content, they seemingly lack awareness and sufficient use of the efficient reading strategies. In other words, most of the written discourse dealt with at the university level requires, at times, a sophisticated kind of critical, effective reading on the part of the EFL learners. In effect, it is the proper use of reading 'tactics' that can guarantee for learners an efficient way of approaching a given text, and thus accomplishing the positive outcomes (Huang, Chern, & Lin, 2009).

Further, most EFL learners tend to process and synthesize any written discourse by resorting to more cognitive than metacognitive strategies (MSs) for the attainment of effective comprehension. This has been substantiated and reported by many researchers (e.g., Tabataba'ian & Zabihi, 2011) who claim that EFL learners reflect insufficient reliance on metacognitive strategic moves during the act of reading. It is deduced, indeed, that learners lack some reading efficiency and proficiency as to coping with EFL written texts. Thus, the present study seeks to address this issue in its entirety by providing a sample of Moroccan EFL first-semester university learners with a comprehensive instruction in a repertoire of reading strategies (i.e., cognitive, metacognitive) in approaching textual input with the hope of improving their reading achievement.

Metacognitive Theory

The term metacognition, as a process of conceptual and critical thinking, dates back to the period of the seventies and eighties in which Flavell (1976) focuses on the study of human memory. It apparently reflects an awareness of the mental processes and strategies required for performing any cognitive endeavour (Schmitt & Newby, 1986). It is the potential capability of the learner to think critically and methodically in the act of coping with a given cognitive task (e.g., textual reading). This reveals that it is through metacognitive thinking and reflection that learners can shape and direct the course that they undertake in analyzing and processing the written discourse for attaining an optimal comprehension.

Two major interrelated constituents, as stated by many researchers (e.g., Schmitt & Newby, 1986), underlie the concept of metacognition. They are manifested in knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. The first component "is concerned with what a person knows about cognitive abilities, processes, and resources in relation to the performance of

specific cognitive tasks" (Lester & Garafalo, 1985, p.164), whereas the second component, regulation of cognition, pertains to the regulatory procedures used to cope with the comprehension process during reading (Griffith & Ruan, 2005). These two metacognitive constituents play an indispensable role in enabling an effective conduct of textual processing .

Further, in seeking to differentiate between cognition and metacognition, Garner (1987) maintains that "if cognition involves perceiving, understanding, remembering, and so forth, then meta-cognition involves thinking about one's own perceiving, understanding and the rest" (p.16). This, in effect, reflects that metacognition assists readers, as potential learners, to regulate their thinking processes and engage in self-control with the primary purpose of achieving successful performance in a particular cognitive task. It is a process of 'thinking about thinking' with a view to facilitating the act of learning and understanding.

Metacognitive Reading Strategies

As claimed by Lawrence (2007), metacognitive strategies (MSs) involve self-reflection and thinking about reading. This demonstrates that the use of this type of strategic 'heuristics' by EFL learners can enable them to comprehend what the writer/author intends to convey in the text. Granted that cognitive strategies can facilitate the process of tackling learning tasks (i.e., reading), MSs are deemed as "actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process" (Oxford, 1990, p.136). Indeed, learners make use of MSs with the intent of ensuring that text comprehension is sufficiently attained. These strategies allow learners to assess their cognitive progress while being engaged in the process of text reading. By utilizing MSs, learners can define the goals of the assigned task, question the intended meaning, monitor their ongoing understanding and evaluate their mastery of the overall content under study.

In essence, it can be pointed out that MSs can be classified into planning, monitoring and evaluating. These three major steps formulate the solid baseline for reaching an adequate understanding of the core text content. Clearly, implementing MSs requires learners to be more 'self-regulated' and 'self-directed' in an attempt to effectively undertake the reading process. This is illustrated in what follows.

-Planning: refers "to the cognitive processes that function to control information processing or task performance from the outset" (Schmitt & Newby, 1986, p.30). As an efficient metacognitive strategic move allowing learners to organize the way of tackling a given task, planning is viewed as a solid foundation upon which the reading process is predicated. It is through planning that learners pinpoint the major goals and define the strategies that are to be used to achieve a sufficient understanding.

-Monitoring: "aids students in keeping track of ongoing cognitive processes and using regulatory strategies to solve problems" (Nietfeld et al., 2005, p.9). It significantly assists learners not only to check their understanding of the text's content, but also to tackle the reading task with greater effectiveness and more accurate efficiency.

-Evaluating: constitutes a paramount strategy via which learners metacognitively and critically reflect upon the processes of planning and monitoring that are involved in tackling different

academic reading tasks. Indeed, this strategy enables EFL readers to measure the extent to which the comprehension process is attained.

Thus, it is assumed that MSs occupy a great part in making the reading process more successful and efficient at the level of content analysis, meaning synthesis and comprehension construction. The usage of this typology of strategies in concert with cognitive strategies by learners predicts an efficient reading achievement. This can be put into effect through the procedure of reading strategy instruction.

Reading Strategy Instruction (RSI): Importance & Typologies

RSI can be an indispensable requisite that assists learners to adopt and apply the most effective strategies while coping with written texts. This has been proven by a large corpus of studies reflecting that instruction in comprehension strategies is effective in helping students learn strategies and improve their reading ability (Swason, 1989; Kern, 1989; Williams, 2007). In fact, RSI helps learners to be aware of the process of conducting an efficient reading in which they critically think and reflect upon the text content. This critical thinking and reflection implemented by readers can be incarnated in their planning how to approach the text under analysis, monitoring comprehension and evaluating the conducted reading process. Thus, it can be claimed that, upon receiving training in reading strategies, learners can be "purposeful, thoughtful, and reflective about the reading process" (Dole, et al., 1996, p.66).

Notably, training EFL learners in the use of reading strategies can be performed through diverse instructional approaches. The latter, given their tremendous worth and higher significance in any academic context, are likely to enable learners to be potentially dynamic participants in the process of making sense of written materials. In effect, there is a wide variety of approaches pertaining to RSI. However, some of them have proved to be worthwhile in that they can improve the student-readers' way of handling the text content in various ways and to differential degrees.

To start with, explicit strategy instruction (ESI) is an effective approach of directly instructing learners in the use of (meta) cognitive reading strategies. A number of researchers (e.g., Derry & Murphy 1986; Jones et al. 1987) grant strong support to the prime importance of this kind of instruction. They state that strategies should be taught separately and explicitly in order to increase the readers' metacognitive knowledge. Thus, raising the EFL learners' overall awareness of the reading strategies can be a foundational principle that sturdily underlies ESI. This evinces that explicit training in the use of strategies is of utmost import in that it assists EFL learners, in their endeavour to comprehend the text input, to plan, direct, monitor and evaluate the course of undertaking the reading process.

Implicit strategy instruction (ISI), another instructional approach, is conceptualized as an effective way of implicitly teaching learners a series of potential strategies. This type of training is also referred to as 'embedded instruction' (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) or 'blind training' (Cohen, 1998) because learners can internalize the target strategies that aid in the act of text comprehension without being aware of the strategy application process. This reflects the basic view that an implicitness-oriented instruction helps learners utilize reading strategies in a spontaneous, unplanned manner. Yet, Brown et al. (1986) admit that 'embedded' instruction does not allow learners to maintain the learnt strategies and apply them to other new tasks. In

other terms, it is assumed that, unlike ESI, ISI cannot assist the learners to further develop and strengthen their metacognitive knowledge as regards strategy use.

Reciprocal teaching (RT), as an alternative type of strategy training, essentially aims at teaching learners reading comprehension strategies in an interactive way. It was developed by Palincsar & Brown (1984) with a view to improving the learners' techniques in understanding the written text. In implementing the instructional approach of reciprocal teaching, the 'expert' reader (instructor) can perform many strategic steps that are intended to enhance the 'novice' readers' abilities in processing any written discourse. These underlying steps are manifested in (a) making predictions about the text by eliciting them from novice learners, (b) asking questions in the course of reading the text, (c) leading efforts to seek clarifications, especially when learners find some difficulties in comprehending text sections and (d) leading the construction of a text summary after reading (Pressley, et al., 1992). This, in fact, encourages learners to take an active part in the reading process.

In this undertaken empirical study, explicit strategy instruction was opted for by the researcher as an effective means to the end goal of enabling the target subjects to internalize and put into play the metacognitive strategies (MSs) while being exposed to textual input. Thus, it is assumed that the adoption of this type of instruction (ESI) is highly likely to assist learners to be both 'self-directed' in terms of the use of strategic moves and successful at the level of reading performance. In this respect, the findings of this conducted experiment will attempt to support this postulated claim.

Experimental Studies on Strategy Instruction

It is posited that a substantial amount of experimental studies have been undertaken by many reading researchers (e.g., Carrell, et al., 1989; Boulware-Gooden, et al., 2007) with the objective of instructing learners in the deployment of some reading strategies. These experiment-based studies were intended not only to raise the learners' awareness of the crucial strategic mechanisms that facilitate the comprehension of the written discourse, but also to enable the learners to approach the content in an efficient, constructive manner.

For instance, Kern (1989) undertook a training 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, by virtue of the conducted strategy training, that the experimental group considerably improved in terms of text comprehension and meaning inferring.

From a different angle, Carrell, et al. (1989) conducted an instructional study in which they focused on training FL students in the use of two MSs: 'semantic mapping' and 'experience-text-relationship'. The subjects consisted of twenty-six students. They were divided into an experimental and a control group. Prior to receiving the instruction, both groups were assigned a pre-test with a view to measuring the students' differences in terms of reading

abilities. The first metacognitive strategy, 'semantic mapping', was taught to students by activating their schemata to enable them to understand the text under analysis. Concerning the second strategy, 'experience-text-relationship', it includes three steps: the experience step (subjects' knowledge of text content), the text step (the subjects' exposure to text reading) and the relationship step (the linkage of text content to prior knowledge). To reveal the extent to which the instruction had a positive effect on the experimental group, Carrell, et al. (1989) administered a post-test to both groups. The findings unveiled that the experimental group outperformed the controls at the level of the post-test score.

Lauterbach & Bender (1995) undertook an experimental treatment with three students who were identified as being deficient in reading skills and abilities. The main impetus for this experiment was to enhance the target subjects' paraphrasing techniques and increase their reading comprehension. The subjects were instructed in paraphrasing the main ideas and supporting details included in texts. They were exposed to the significance of paraphrasing, how and where it should be utilized and the basic steps that ought to be pursued. Then, after the target strategy is extensively modeled, the subjects were encouraged to paraphrase some assigned paragraphs. The findings revealed that the subjects reflected an increased improvement both in paraphrasing use and in textual comprehension.

Boulware-Gooden, et al. (2007) conducted an experimental study with third-grade students. The rationale behind this study was to instruct the subjects in some metacognitive reading strategies in order to improve their comprehension of written texts. The subjects included 119 students who belong to two different academic settings. In the experimental setting, the subjects, after being pre-tested, were assigned some expository passages and instructed in background knowledge building, vocabulary items, thinking aloud, summarizing and questioning. In the control setting, the subjects were pre-tested and not instructed in these variables. Afterwards, a post-test was administered to test the students' developmental progress as to vocabulary acquisition and reading improvement. The results revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control one at the level of reading comprehension.

Rahmani & Sadeghi (2011) carried out a study in which Iranian EFL learners were trained in note taking while processing written texts. The subjects were made up of 108 intermediate undergraduate students. The experimental group, consisting of 48 students, was instructed in how to take notes via graphic organizers, whereas the control group, including 60 students, did not receive any training. The treatment lasted for eight sessions during which the instructors enlightened the learners about the significance of note taking. Then, they were assigned the written text and asked to locate the important ideas via underlining, or using symbols. At the end of the experiment, both groups were given a post-test and asked to take notes in order to answer the comprehension questions. One month later, the same reading texts were assigned and it was found that the treatment group outperformed the controls in terms of ideas retention, question answering and content comprehension.

These reported experiments were conducted by reading researchers who endeavoured to inculcate learners with some effectual strategies that develop the reading ability and enhance the comprehension process amongst learners. In view of this, and based on the instructional design adopted by some of these training studies, the current study attempts to instruct a sampled group of EFL university learners in a repertory of cognitive/metacognitive strategies in approaching written texts for a semester-long period (14 weeks).

Research Objectives & Questions

The current quasi-experimental study has a two-fold purpose. It uncovers the impact of explicit reading strategy instruction (RSI) on Moroccan EFL university students' strategy use during textual reading. As a second purpose, the study seeks to reveal whether EFL learners' reading achievement gains can be improved through exposure to RSI. In this sense, for the sake of eliciting quantitative and qualitative data, a range of research instruments were employed by the researcher: Reading comprehension tests, 'self-report questionnaire' and strategy training. Thus, the following two research questions were brought forward:

a- To what extent does explicit instruction in metacognitive reading strategies influence Moroccan EFL university students' strategy usage?
b- To what extent does explicit instruction in metacognitive reading strategies impact Moroccan EFL university students' reading achievement gains?

Method

Participants

A sample of one hundred and thirteen Moroccan EFL university students took part 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, which both include students of differing language proficiency and different reading capacities, were randomly selected and the gender issue was not controlled. One group, which consists of 63 students, was assigned to the experimental treatment and the other group, consisting of 50 students, received no treatment. The subjects belonging to these two groups are not repeaters.

The plausible impetus behind addressing EFL first-semester university students in this study is that the effect of reading strategy instruction (RSI) can be more observable and fruitful at the first-semester level since most EFL learners struggle with the difficulty in attempting to achieve reading proficiency which is a precondition to undertaking their academic studies. On this basis, first-semester EFL learners were centrally targeted as the main subjects in this experimental case study.

Procedure

Given the quasi-experimental nature of the study, it was planned that the study be based on a pre-post-test design which involves the administration of reading pre- and post-tests to both treatment and control groups. The experimental group received thorough instruction in metacognitive strategies (MSs) pertaining to textual reading and meaning construction for a semester-long period. The control group remained intact since it did not receive any (meta) cognitive reading strategy training. This group was only exposed to the 'traditional' reading comprehension course without any strategy instruction. Following this, both groups were post-tested and given the 'self-report questionnaire'.

The assignment of the reading test and the 'self-report questionnaire' to the participants extended to a two-hour period which could be judged sufficient. Each group was administered a reading test and a questionnaire at both pre-testing and post-testing stages. Granted that the reading comprehension test can be regarded as an effective diagnostic tool that can measure the learners' reading abilities and comprehension performance, it was required that both groups be

tested. In this regard, the designed reading tests (i.e., pre-test, post-test) comprised four tasks (wh-questions, meaning-inferring, paraphrasing, summarizing). Each task was accurately measured in accordance with a set scoring rubric.

The adopted 'self-report questionnaire' serves as an efficient means to the end goal of obtaining adequate, if not complete, knowledge about how the reading act is undertaken by EFL learners in constructing the meaning inherent in the text. In effect, though the 'think-aloud technique' has been used by many reading theorists, it actually breaks up the continuity of the reading process (Bereiter & Bird, 1985). Thus, unlike the 'think-aloud protocol', which implies that learners are expected to report on their thinking processes and the used strategies while reading the written discourse in a simultaneous manner, the 'self-report questionnaire' can be completed shortly after the accomplishment of the reading process. In this way, the target subjects can have an ample opportunity to think reflectively about their conducted reading behaviour, and thus report their invoked strategies and analytical skills by means of which they have attained comprehension.

The obtained data were treated by means of both the Excel Software Program (version 2007) and the SPSS Software Program (16.0). More specifically, the scores of the assigned reading comprehension tests (e.g., pre-test, post-test) were submitted to statistical analysis through the usage of the independent samples t-test in an attempt to define the means, standard deviations and mean differences, whereas the data reported in the 'self-report questionnaire' were computed through the Excel software Program to reflect the frequency of strategy usage among the target groups.

The Strategy Intervention

The intervention was conducted for a semester-long period (Fall Term/ 2012). It comprised 12 sessions allotted to strategy training. In the first session, the target EFL groups were pre-tested. Upon finishing the reading test, they were required to fill out a 'self-report questionnaire' in order to explore the strategies that they utilize in the course of processing and developing sense of the textual content. After diagnosing the learners' reading potential and strategy use by means of the reading comprehension pre-test and the questionnaire, the experimental group was instructed in metacognitive strategies (MSs) that are part and parcel of the achievement of efficient text understanding.

Hence, subsequent sessions were devoted to initiating the target treatment subjects into the treatment during which they were explicitly exposed to the metacognitive reading 'heuristics' used in constructing the text meaning. After that, the treatment group was supposed to apply the initiated strategies to the written texts assigned throughout the strategy training period. The instruction addressed cognitive/ metacognitive text-processing strategies (i.e., planning, inferring, paraphrasing, monitoring and evaluating). As to the comparison group, it was merely exposed to the 'traditional' reading comprehension without any strategy instruction.

At the conclusion of the strategy training intervention, a post-test, alongside the 'self-report questionnaire', was assigned to the participant EFL groups (control & experimental). Indeed, the post-test is regarded as the determining factor of whether the conducted intervention had any marked effect on the EFL learners' reading efficiency and performance. Further, the assignment of the 'self-report questionnaire' at post-testing allowed for an overview of whether

the treatment group had acquired and used the strategies under focus as effective means of attaining a thorough understanding of the discourse content.

Findings & Discussion

As it is displayed in Figure 1, the use of cognitive reading strategies amongst the control group is largely dominant. According to the data elicited through the 'self-report questionnaire', the strategies, which were reported by the subjects under the control condition at pre-testing, seem to be somewhat recurrent at post-testing. In other terms, most of the reading strategies used in pre-testing were repeatedly used by the participants of the control group at the post-testing stage.

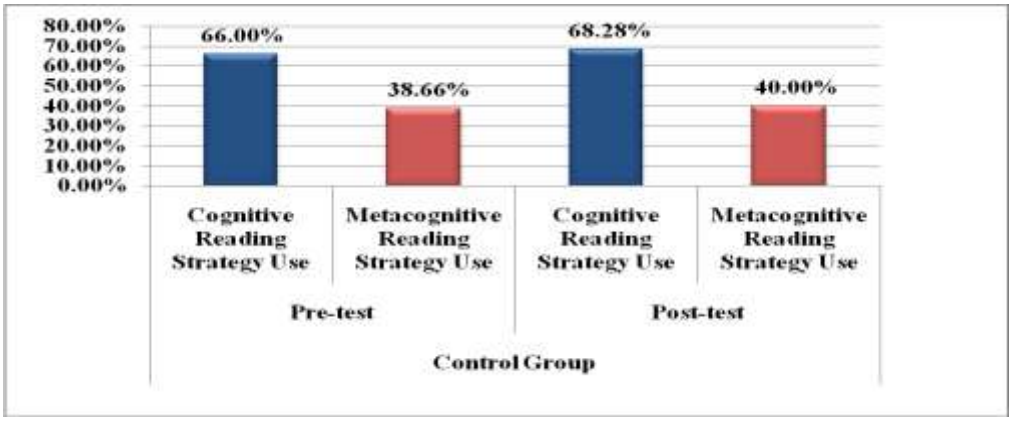

Figure 1. **Frequency of control group's reading strategy use at pre- and post-test level**

A close analysis of the data in Figure 1 reveals a certain degree of constancy at the level of strategy usage among the control EFL participants in their attempt to develop adequate sense of the text content included in the administered reading tests (pre- and post-tests). A higher proportion of the cognitive strategies and a small number of metacognitive strategic reading moves were depended upon by the control subjects to analyze and synthesize the textual input. As a case in point, at the pre-testing stage, the implementation of cognitive techniques seems to be largely predominant with a frequency of 66% as compared to metacognitive strategy use. Similarly, at the post-test stage, the control group maintained almost the same cognitive strategies which they recruited while coping with the reading text at the pre-test with a percentage of 68.28%. Generally, only a slight increment in terms of cognitive strategy use frequency was observed at the post-test level.

As for the metacognitive strategy usage, there was a remarkable insufficiency in terms of using this typology of strategies in analyzing the content of the reading texts included in both pre-and post-tests. As the findings display in Figure 1, the control group utilized MSs in synthesizing the written texts with percentages of 38.66% and 40% at the pre- and post-test respectively. What is noteworthy is that, though the control group's metacognitive strategy use slightly increased from 38.66% to 40% in processing the assigned written text, this does not represent any statistical significance in terms of the reading strategy application.

Hence, it can be postulated that the written texts of both the pre- and post-test were approached and analyzed by the participants belonging to the control group by means of a set of

cognitive strategies and invoking a limited number of MSs. This reveals that, given the absence of the exposure of the comparison group to the reading strategy intervention across the pre- post-test stage, no significantly substantial increase in the acquisition and deployment of (meta) cognitive reading 'heuristics' was found among the group in this study.

On the other hand, the sampled EFL student-readers exposed to the experimental treatment did achieve a stark improvement in terms of the application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In fact, the set of strategies that was reported to be implemented by the target EFL learners in processing the content of the written discourse at the pre-test stage was supplemented by other potential strategies, namely metacognitive ones, at post-testing. The results relatable to the difference in the strategy usage frequency from pre-testing to post-testing are reflected in Figure 2.

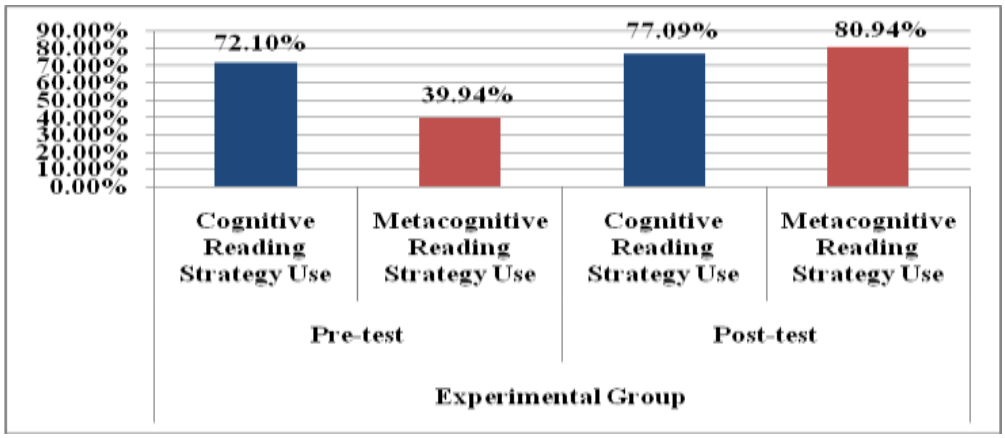

Figure 2. **Frequency of experimental group's reading strategy use at pre- and post-test level**

Based on the attained findings, it can be stated that the positive impact of the reading strategy training on the sampled EFL learners was prevalent at the level of strategy deployment. In effect, by drawing a certain comparison between the data obtained at the pre-test level and post-test level, it appears that the conducted strategy intervention did play an eminent role in enabling the target EFL student-readers to cognitively and metacognitively 'strategize' their reading of the assigned written texts. The frequency of cognitive strategy use from the pre- to the post-test increased to a significant level (see Figure 2). In a parallel fashion, MSs, which were employed by the treatment subjects to a minimal degree on the pre-test with a proportion of 39.94%, were increasingly implemented by the strategy-trained group on the post-test with a percentage of 80.94%.

From the elicited findings, one can notice that after receiving an adequate instruction in cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies, the experimental group took a developmental path towards improving their reading performance by having recourse to these text-related 'heuristics'. This indicates that increased awareness of cognitive/ metacognitive strategies can be the determinant element for effective reading strategy use amongst the EFL participants. The evidence accounting for this high strategy consciousness is the increasing frequent use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in coping with the textual input at post-testing.

Overall, despite the view that the targeted learners' cognitive strategy repertoire (control & experimental) was somewhat adequate at the pre-testing stage, it is of higher importance to posit that the experimental group enhanced at the level of the applicability of this type of

strategies more significantly at post-testing. As to MSs, it was apparent that learners of both groups did not manage to extensively apply this typology of strategies at the pre-test level. However, substantive improvement was exhibited in terms of the use of these strategies at post-testing among the experimental group. Therefore, the enhancement of MSs among the experimental group can be ascribed to the strategy instruction they received. This is in concordance with the findings attained by previous related research (e.g., Paris, et al., 1984; Boulware-Gooden, et al., 2007).

Further, in an attempt to gauge the plain significance of the existing difference between the control and experimental groups at the mean score level at pre-testing, recourse to the independent samples t-test, as an efficient statistical measure, was performed. Table 1 provides the resultant output pertaining to the t-test conducted.

Table 1. ***EFL learners' achievement on reading comprehension test at pre-testing***

Groups	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Mean dif.	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control Group	50	5.96	3.273	1.110	1.826	0.71
Experimental Group	63	4.84	3.161			

P< .05

Considering the unequal sample sizes of the control group (50) and the experimental group (63), the statistical analysis exhibits that the difference between the two sampled group means is (1.110) with a t-value of (1.826). This yields a manifest insignificance level of (0.71) which falls beyond the rejection realm of the probability value of (.05). Whereas the controls attained a mean score of (5.96), the experimental subjects reached a mean of (4.84). This shows that the treatment group did not outperform its counterpart, the comparison group, on the pre-test. This is testified to by the significance level which is higher than the set criterion (.05) for the reading test (0.71).

At the post-testing stage, it is conspicuous that the treatment group participants did score highly on the reading comprehension test compared to the control group learners. In fact, based on the obtained output of the independent samples t-test run, one can observe that there apparently exists a substantial variation as to the sampled means among the target EFL groups. The attained findings are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. ***EFL learners' achievement on reading comprehension test at post-testing***

Groups	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Mean dif.	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control Group	50	5.65	2.814	-5.016	-9.436	.000
Experimental Group	63	10.66	2.801			

P< .05

The statistical analysis resulting from the t-test shown in Table 2 shows the substantive reading achievement gains of the experimental group compared to its counterpart, the control group. The mean difference (-5.016) between the two groups is shown to be significant at (.000) with a t-value of (-9.436). This appears to be in stark contrast to the significance level of the mean difference (1.110) between the two groups at the pre-test (see Table 1). In effect, the level of statistical significance reached at pre-testing is relatively higher than the set value (.05), whereas at post-testing, the significant level is lower than (.05).

Actually, in striking a comparison between the control group's and the experimental group's reading achievement, it is clearly manifest that the strategy-trained EFL student-readers, after receiving the instructional intervention relating to text-processing strategies, achieved massive gains from the pre- to the post-test level, and thus outperforming the control group more substantially. On the contrary, the control subjects did not show any substantial advance with respect to reading achievement gains as compared to the experimental group. Accordingly, the higher 'essentiality' of strategy instruction in the reading comprehension course can be exceedingly correlated with the nature of the findings relevant to the post-test scores reached by the treatment group.

Thus, the examination of the pre- and post-tests plausibly indicates vast differences in reading comprehension gains attained by the target groups. Whereas the control subjects' reading performance was typified by insufficiency at the level of progress, the reading achievement gains of the treatment group increased to a substantially higher level from the pre- to the post-test. This positive developmental advance in achieving rather significant grades amongst the strategy-instructed group primarily consists in efficacious strategy applicability which not only ensures success in understanding the text, but also guarantees the provision of correct responses relating to the texts' corresponding questions. This highlights the role of reading strategy instruction in enabling the target group to base their conducted reading act on a multiplicity of variables such as metacognitive knowledge and self-regulation which are the major elements of invoking and using the reading strategies.

Conclusion

The current research purported to measure the effect of metacognitive reading strategy instruction (RSI) on EFL learners' strategy use and reading achievement gains. Evidently, the assumed influence of explicit/direct strategy training on the EFL learners' strategy usage is, to a great extent, substantiated via the conducted semester-long intervention. In light of the reached results, it is posited that strategy instruction can serve as an effective medium allowing learners to developmentally acquire the reading 'heuristics' deemed of pivotal importance in the area of reading comprehension. In other terms, the development of strategic behaviour, as a major component in text processing, can only come into effect when the learners' awareness as to basic strategies is increased to an appreciably considerable level. The process of knowing what strategies to be deployed in text reading and knowing 'how' to put them into action can make of EFL learners efficient, critical readers.

The empirical evidence set in this study places into perspective the implied view that Moroccan EFL learners can foster metacognitive strategic moves and that their previously acquired strategies can be subject to improvement through strategy instruction. The latter should be imparted particular attention and implemented by academics and educational practitioners,

especially in EFL contexts. This suggests that the integration of this type of instruction in the reading comprehension course at the university level can be predictive of effective reading performance among learners. This stated fact accords with previous related research (e.g., Taraban, et al., 2004; Rupley, et al., 2009) that emphasizes the importance of reading strategy training and its seemingly fruitful impact on the learners' sense of reasoning and critical thinking in textual processing.

On the whole, though the present research provides revealing findings, it reflects some limitations. The first one is correlated with the issue of representativeness. Given that this study was restricted to the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat, it is recommended that many Moroccan Faculties of Letters and Humanities and other higher education institutions be taken as case studies by future researchers with a view to gaining utter 'representativity' of Moroccan EFL learners. Another limitation is bound up with the gender variable which can be, to an extent, viewed as an intervening factor. Considering that this experimental study is primarily concerned with testing the impact of strategy instruction on EFL learners' strategy use and reading achievement, it did not take account of the reading achievement gains obtained by the male as opposed to the female subjects belonging to the two groups under focus. Clearly, it is estimated that EFL female readers could perform significantly better than EFL male readers or vice versa. Thus, the investigation of this postulate, which is beyond the scope of this study, could be addressed by further studies falling within the realm of reading comprehension research.

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Comparing Jordanian Families First and Second Language Home Literacy Practices and Functions in Malaysia

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Abstract

This study aims to explore first and second language home literacy practices and their functions of four Jordanian families live in Malaysia, to identify who plays the significant role among these families and to identify the factors that help or hinder home literacy practices in Malaysian culture. This study tries answering the following questions: What are the most frequent types of the families' members' home literacy practices and functions associated with their first language and second language? Who plays the most significant role concerning home literacy practices among these families' members? And what are the factors that help or hinder such home literacy practices to survive in Malaysian culture? This study fills the gap in literature related to Arab home literacy practices in new social and cultural contexts in order to understand how these families balance their first and second language home literacy practices to cope in the host country. Using an ethnographic approach, data were collected with interviews, observations and photographic evidence over a fourteen-week period. The findings indicated that Arabic language served social, religious and mostly educational literacy practices while English language served academic literacy practices. Both languages served numerical, financial and technological home literacy practices. Mothers and siblings played the most significant role in home literacy practices. It is evident that living in areas crowded with Arab families helps these families to keep using Arabic language more than English language in their daily living. The study recommends conducting more studies on areas less crowded with Arabs.

***Keywords**:* Comparative literacies, home literacy functions, home literacy practices, Literacy, multi literacies

1. Introduction

Previous research related to home literacy practices indicate that there is a shortage in research related to Arab families home literacy practices especially those who are living in new social and cultural contexts (Tibi & McLeod, 2014; Alshaboul, 2004; Dixon & Wu, 2014; Callaway, 2012; Williams, 2014). Jordanians come with their families to Malaysia for various purposes such as education, employment or to make 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 face the challenge of maintaining their social and cultural identities while living in another culture (Callaway, 2012).

Jordanian families struggle to adjust and stabilise in the new culture especially since the use of English is fairly widespread in society. Coming from homes where the Arabic language is used to communicate every aspect, they now have to learn to use the English language to accomplish simple tasks like going shopping, talking to neighbours and paying bills. Another problem Jordanians face is in participating in the new culture while maintaining their home culture. While recognizing the value of learning English language, Jordanians families are conscious that their children must not lose command of Arabic because it is the language of the Holy Quran. They are also aware they will eventually return to Jordan with the fear that their children will not be accepted into Jordanian society if they don't speak Arabic (Alshaboul, 2004).

In a nutshell, Jordanian families here struggle to learn a new language and accept the new culture to cope with society they are living in and at the same time strive to maintain their own language, tradition and culture. Compounded with this is the conflict inside the home to raise the level of English proficiency while observing and maintaining the Arabic language. This means parents will have to work hard to help their children maintain a balance between the demands of the new environment (Malaysia) with their own social and cultural backgrounds (Jordan). The present study seeks to answer several questions that provide an overview of how social and cultural aspects are employed in Jordanian family's home literacy practices in order to survive and cope with the Malaysian social and cultural aspects.

Some Jordanian families come to Malaysia seeking a permanent home or for work while the majority come for a transitional period to accomplish certain goals like education. Parents of Jordanians families in Malaysia try to help their children acquire the English language and new cultural aspects while at the same time maintaining and guarding the first language of their children which is Arabic and their own cultural aspects. The Arabic language and Jordanian cultural aspects are very important factors for parents as these express their identity because the parents and their families have to go back to Jordan after accomplishing their goals so maintaining the Arabic language and Jordanian cultural aspects is vital for parents. The literacy practices of these families do help in stabilizing the study abroad experience of these families.

2. Literature review

Strickland et al. (2004) state that "Parents are the first teachers the children have and they are the most important people in the education of their children." While Tamis et al (2004) indicates that children whose fathers are involved in their literacy will success in higher academic achievement and gained social and emotional development.

Researchers have investigated home literacy practices to determine the prevalent practices of parents and their children in and outside the home such as in Saracho's (2000) study that found parents are involved with their children in various literacy activities and they use different literacy materials to promote their children's literacy learning. In addition, the parents are actively involved in choosing the types of home literacy materials they wanted these children to read to enhance their accent and level of proficiency. The importance of Saracho's study exemplified the notion of home literacy practices that occurred outside school either inside or outside the home.

Most of the previous studies have focused on the types of home literacy practices that occurred in homes and the interaction performed by parents with children. Aram et al. (2010) conduct a study on the literacy practices of an African American family living in the United States of America. The findings indicate that Jones family uses all literacy functions in their family for their children. Lin (2003) conducts a study to explore the effect of home literacy practices on kindergarten children's literacy development. The findings indicate that home literacy resources such as the availability of literacy materials and parental interaction were significantly beneficial for developing children's literacy skills from ethnic minority and low-income families. Foster et al. (2005) examine 325 children's home literacy practices. The findings reveal that parents' reading to their children, parent- child home literacy practices and frequent reading materials mediate the literacy performance of the children with a low socioeconomic status.

Sénéchal & LeFevre (2014) find that the home literacy practices that incorporate parents - children informal literacy environment represent a significant indicator of children's vocabulary growth. Moreover, the home literacy practices that incorporate parents - children formal literacy environment are a significant indicator of children's early literacy growth. Finally, the majority of parents adjust their home formal literacy practices to cope with their children's reading performance.

Moreover, the majority of previous studies indicate that parents' positive beliefs toward children literacy learning will increase the parents' participation and interaction with their children in terms of home literacy practices which leads to children literacy development. For example, Sackes (2015) examines 315 parents' home literacy practices and their relationship with their beliefs and their children's literacy motivation. The findings reveal that parents-children storybook reading is the most frequent home literacy practices. In addition, there is a strong relationship between parents' home literacy practices and their beliefs about their children's literacy motivation.

Chow et al. (2015) investigates the relationship between 48 Chinese parents' behavioral and emotional home literacy practices and their effect on their children's literacy learning. By controlling factors such as the family socioeconomic status, children age and the parents' level of education, the findings reveal that parents' home literacy practices and home literacy environment and parents' beliefs are significant indicators of children's literacy learning.

The above studies provide evidence of the significant role parents play in enhancing their children's literacy development. The success of students does not depend entirely on schools but home and parents play an equal role in helping children succeed. There must be a communication channel between the parents and their children at home to overcome any obstacles facing the children during their literacy achievement. The attitudes and beliefs of

parents also contribute to children's literacy success as the parents with positive beliefs towards their children's literacy development engage with more shared home literacy practices with their children than those with less beliefs and expectations.

In conclusion, previous studies emphasize that shared book reading is the most frequent home literacy practice inside the home environment and provide evidence that the availability of literacy materials in home environment do support children's literacy teaching (Lin, 2003). Moreover, most studies focus on home literacy practices that are occurred between the parents and children in home environment while individual literacy practices that occurred in home environment is hardly investigated (Foster et al., 2005).

3. Theoretical framework

This study is framed within sociocultural theory (Vygotsky 1978) and activity theory (Leontieve 1981). Sociocultural theory emphasizes that scafolding is a unidirectional process that occurs when the parents or adults provide feedback or correction to their children. In addition, sociocultural theory emphasizes the concept of mediation which indicates that parents and adults can facilitate the children learning process when providing feedback or supervising the children's learning process through interaction. Activity theory states that children's learning process occurs through interaction with their parents through activities while sociocultural theory goes beyond that and identified the direction of this interaction, its occurrence in a social cultural context and described how this interaction occurred through mediating and scafolding. It will be interesting to see if scaffolding is only unidirectional and whether parents are the only médiators of home literacy learning.

4. Methodology

This study aims to determine who plays the most significant and supportive role in home literacy practices among Jordanian postgraduate families. Moreover, the study aims to explore the most frequent types of students' family's members home literacy practices and their functions associated with their first language and second language. Finally, the study aims to determine the factors that help or hinder these students' families home literacy practices to survive in Malaysian culture. Therefore, this study is trying to answer the following questions: What are the most frequent types of students' family's members home literacy practices and their functions associated with their first language and second language? Who plays the most significant role in the family home literacy practices among the families' members? And what are the factors that help or hinder these family's members' home literacy practices to survive in Malaysian culture?

4.1 Participants

Four Jordanian families participate in this ethnography study. These families are divided into two groups. Group one includes two families where the fathers are pursuing their postgraduate studies and the mothers are housewives while the second group includes two families where the fathers are working and the mothers are pursuing their postgraduate studies. Each family has two to three children, one of whom is 10-12 years old. The participant families are assigned anonymous names to include Mustafa family, Saleh family, Dounia family and Majada family, shown in table 1.

Table 1 *Jordanian families*

Family	Members
Mustafa	Mayes (wife) Aseel (11years) Areej (7 years)
Saleh	Huda (wife) Ahmed (10 years) Lama (6 years)
Majada	Jehad (husband) Raneem (12 years) Souha (9years)
Dounia	Emad (husband) Ghada (11 years) Mayia (8years) Yousef (5 years)

In 2014, the search for the families to participate in the present ethnography study begins; keeping in mind certain predetermined criteria. They shall have been staying for at least two years in Malaysia with no intention or plan to leave before a year which is the expected period to complete this ethnography study. Moreover, each family shall be composed of the parents and two to three children as one of these children must be 10-12 years old. They must be from the same socioeconomic class with one of the parents being a postgraduate student in a Malaysian university. Finally, the families shall be living in the same geographical area.

To ensure the validity of the findings and their interpretations, various instruments are used in collecting the data such as interviews, field notes, observations, and photographs. Each family signs an informed consent form for the interviews, observations and field notes. The consent form states clearly the title of the study, the researcher's name, purpose of the study, study procedures, foreseeable risks and benefits to the subjects, confidentiality procedures, and the rights of the participants. Once the consent forms are signed, the ethnographer arranges for the first visit with the families, please refer to appendix A for more details.

4.2 Data analysis procedures

The interviews are audio recorded and then transcribed verbatim. Each transcribed manuscript is read line by line to highlight the phrases, sentence or sentences that indicate a literacy practice and then is coded accordingly. After completing the coding process, they are documented in tables in an organized and conceptualized way. Table 2 illustrates the codes while table 3 illustrates how these codes are organized.

This coding process is conducted to fulfill the followings:

1. Establishing a home literacy practices file to each family member (fathers, mothers and children). The characteristics of these files include: individual reading practices in Arabic, shared reading practices in Arabic, individual reading practices in English, shared reading practices in English, individual writing practices in Arabic, shared writing practices in Arabic, individual writing practices in English and shared writing practices in English.
2. Establishing a home literacy practices file for the whole family by comparing the three files resulted from each family (fathers, mothers and children). In this process, two main criteria are taken into consideration; the most prevalent and repeated practices will be reduced to one and the most frequent practices will be considered.
3. Establishing a final home literacy practices file after comparing the four families literacy files with each other. The finalized file bases on the two previous mentioned criteria as the most prevalent and repeated practices will be reduced to one and the most frequent practices will be considered.
4. To answer research question one which is related to who of the families' members plays the most significant role in their children home literacy learning, the families' members

most prevalent and frequent shared home literacy practices and the children most prevalent and frequent shared home literacy practices will provide a solid answer. Moreover, a comparison between the home literacy practices in both languages is initiated to answer research question two while the last group of interview questions provide an answer to research question three.

5.

Table 2 *Code listing*

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

Table 3 *Codes structure*

Reading practices		**Reading materials**	**Types of reading**	**Frequency of reading**	**Reading functions**
Arabic language	Individual				
	Shared				
English language	Individual				
	Shared				
Writing practices		**Writing materials**	**Types of Writing**	**Frequency of Writing**	**Writing functions**
Arabic language	Individual				
	Shared				
English language	Individual				
	Shared				

5. Findings

The previous process of classification and categorization will generate 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 are not occurred daily.

5.1 Research Question One

Who plays the most significant role in children home literacy practices among the students' families' members?

To determine who plays the most significant role of the family members in children literacy learning at home, the search is limited to the shared home literacy practices among the families' members as shown in table 4.

Table 4 *Shared literacy practices and functions among the families' members*

Family members involvement in their children literacy learning				
Literacy Function		Educational	Religious	Social
Majada family with Raneem	Jehad	✓	X	X
	Majada	✓	✓	✓
	Souha	✓	✓	X
Saleh family with Ahmed	Saleh	X	X	X
	Huda	✓	✓	X
	Lama	✓	✓	X
Mustafa family with Aseel	Mustafa	✓	X	X
	Mayes	✓	✓	X
	Areej	✓	✓	X
Dounia family with Ghada	Eimad	X	X	X
	Dounia	✓	✓	✓
	Mayia	✓	✓	X

The findings indicate that the families' members shared literacy practices are concentrated under three literacy functions that are educational, religious and social. For educational shared literacy practices only Jehad and Mustafa share their children literacy learning at home but not on a daily basis that is to say 3-4 hours weekly while Saleh and Eimad never share their children their educational literacy practices. Majada, Mayes, Huda and Dounia

share their children their educational literacy practices daily and even the children themselves share their educational literacy practices with their siblings.

For religious literacy practices, Jehad, Mustafa, Saleh and Eimad sometimes share their children their religious literacy practices while Majada, Mayes, Huda and Dounia share their children their religious literacy practices daily and even the children themselves share their religious literacy practices with their siblings. For social literacy practices, only Majada and Dounia share their children their social literacy practices daily. To conclude, the mothers play the most significant role in their children literacy learning at home than the fathers. Moreover, the children themselves play a role in their literacy learning at home with their siblings than do the fathers.

5.2 Research Question Two

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 5 classifies and categorizes these functions under three categories which are; Arabic and English. Moreover, the classification includes the most and less frequent and prevalent home literacy practices under these categories.

Table 5 *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 5, the most frequent literacy practices that are performed in Arabic language only are related to social and religious literacy functions while the most frequent literacy practices that are performed in English language only are related to academic literacy function and the most frequent literacy practices that are performed in both languages are related to Digital, educational and mathematical and numerical literacy functions. Moreover, the less frequent literacy practices that are performed in Arabic language are related to political literacy function while the less frequent literacy practices that are performed in English language are related to geographical literacy function and the less frequent literacy practices that are performed in both languages are related to medical, financial, daily living, work related and entertainment literacy practices

Jordanian families use only social, religious and mostly educational home literacy practices in Arabic language which indicates that the families are aware of keeping and guarding their social, cultural and religious aspects in the new culture with the previous mentioned factors that help in stabilizing the families' social, cultural and religious aspects in order to maintain their Islamic Arabic identity so there are no worries even when the families eventually go back to Jordan so these literacy functions may be described as basic practices. The families use only English language in their academic literacy practices as the medium of instruction for them as international students are English so this literacy function may be described as functional literacy practices as these families come to Malaysia for a certain period to accomplish certain goal that is getting master and/or doctoral degrees. This goal cannot be attained unless using academic English during the study as illustrated in table 6.

Table 6 *Jordanian families Home literacy functions vs. languages*

	Most frequent	**Less frequent**
Arabic language	Social, Religious	political
English language	Academic	Geographical
Both languages	Educational , Digital mathematical and numerical	Medical, Daily living , financial, work related and entertainment

5.3 Research Question Three

What are the factors that help or hinder these students' families members home literacy practices to survive in Malaysian culture?

In fact, many factors are interwoven to stabilize these families and their children learning success in Malaysia such as:

1- The families are living in an area where the majority of the residents are Arab so the daily interaction and socialization such as home visits, praying in the mosque or playing in the ground is all in Arabic
2- The area is surrounded by many Arab restaurants, mini markets, barber and the mosque so most of the daily living actions are performed in Arabic
3- The children attend Arab school as all the students and the teachers are Arabs and most importantly the means of instruction to the majority of the school subjects is Arabic language. All of the previous factors led to stabilize the families and their children social and cultural life that led to no suffering or failure resulting from social and cultural differences which is consistent with Nambiar's (2012) findings which reveals that Korean students prefer to use their home literacy practices rather than the new literacy practices in the new culture so the case of Jordanians.

By concentrating on the children's literacy learning in the new culture, it is noticed none of the families express fears about their children's Arabic language or social and cultural aspects while being in the new culture which is in contrast of what Gee (2015:37-40) expresses that children of the fourth grade may face difficulties in learning science and math content at fourth grade if they just learn to read and in contrast with Paratore (2003) findings that indicate students failure resulted from lack of congruence between their homes and the new culture lives.

The rest of the home literacy practices can be described as situational home literacy practices where the families use them to accomplish their daily living needs during their stay. They have to interact with Arab and non-Arab people in different situations such as: in the mall, supermarket, bank, restaurants and technological items and devices. Therefore, this group of home literacy practices and functions such as numerical, financial, medical, geographical, and mathematical are used in both languages. The previous literacy functions served one literacy function that is daily living and they occurred in both languages depend on the situation and the people who are participated. The family's members especially children are not affected by English or even Malay language that much as the dominant language in their living area is Arabic due to crowded Arab residents in that area and even in school but it is noticed that Jordanian family's members especially children are affected by Arab dialects more than being affected by another language.

6. Discussion

The findings indicate that mothers and even the siblings play the most important role in children home literacy learning than the fathers. The mothers usually share educational, religious, social and numerical literacy practices daily with their children while the fathers rarely or never help their children in their home literacy practices. The fathers who help their children occasionally express they don't have the time, mood or patience to accomplish this task and they think mothers are created for this mission as they can do it perfectly. This finding is not new as it is consistent with many studies findings such as Chow et al.,2015; Sénéchal & LeFevre,2014 and Aram et al.,2013 who find that mothers play a more significant role in their children home

literacy practices. This is an expected finding as the issue raised from the fathers is not a matter of time or patience rather it is an issue of ideology. In Arab culture, the society is best described as masculine where it is believed the mission of teaching the children at home must be done by the mothers (even not preferable but must).

An important finding is that the children are interacting and sharing home literacy practices together as the elder child acts as teacher for the youngest. One child (teacher role) asks another one (student role) or the mother to read some words from a board hanged on the living room wall or to repeat some words after him which is consistent with Jacobs (2004) who suggests that parents, siblings and relatives have the direct impact on children literacy learning at home

The children in all the families act as teachers by pointing to a word or picture and asking "what is this?" This scenario urges us to rethink the unidirectional path of mediation and scaffolding which is suggested by Vygotsky (1978). According to Vygotsky (1978), parents or adults are mediators to the children learning and they scaffold them during the learning process till they become fully reliable on their own abilities. There are many examples occurred in this study that prove that the mediation and scaffolding is not entirely unidirectional rather its multidirectional and mutual process. When Raneem, Aseel, Ahmed and Ghada act as teachers by asking others to read or repeat some words after them, When Raneem told her father that the correct road is "Kajang not Klang ", When Aseel corrects her father Quran recitation and When Ahmed discovers in the restaurant that he gets the wrong order or his father do not order him fizzy drink.

7. Conclusion

Mothers and siblings play the most significant role in children's home literacy practices as the fathers think such a mission must be accomplished by the mothers. The siblings prove that the mediation and scaffolding are not unidirectional rather they are multidirectional and mutual dynamic process. Arabic language served social, religious and mostly educational literacy practices and functions that are the base to maintain the families' social and cultural aspects and their identities in the host country. In addition, English language serves the academic literacy practices that are forming the function of these families of being in the host country to accomplish certain task. Both languages serve numerical, financial and technological home literacy practices that are forming the daily living situations to be used in. Jordanian families' members especially children are affected more by Arab dialects rather than being affected by another language.

About the Authors:

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APPENDIX A

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Malaysia National University (UKM), Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Department of Linguistics and English Language Studies

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH:

"The Jordanians Families Home literacy practices in Malaysia"

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Mustafa Taha Aloqaili, a doctoral candidate from the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Department of Linguistics and English Language Studies at Malaysia National University (UKM).

I am conducting the study with the guidance of Prof. Radha Nambiar and Dr. Hafizah Latif, faculty supervisors. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a Jordanian family living in Malaysia. Interviews, field notes, observations, photographs and home visits will be conducted during the study. A total of four Jordanians families living in Malaysia will be selected to participate in this study. Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and inform about anything you do not understand, before deciding whether or not to participate.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of this qualitative ethnography study is to ensure that Jordanians home

literacy practices are not in conflict with their first language, traditions and culture. In addition, this study intends to investigate the most frequent home literacy practices of Jordanians families in Malaysia and their associated literacy functions, to determine who plays the most supportive and significant role of the families members in their children literacy learning and to compare between home literacy practices in term of Arabic and English languages.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, your families' members' permission is kindly asked to be observed, interviewed and photographed at your home and outside home through home visits and participating you in social life events over a period of one year. Each interview will take approximately two hours at your home. The families' members will be asked to provide detailed information about their home literacy practices. The investigator will observe the home literacy practices occurring in home during home visits and write down field notes. All the interviews and field notes will be audio recorded and transcribed by the investigator while the photographs will be captured and treated and all of the transcriptions and photographs will be reviewed by you for final approval.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Participating in the study will not harm you. Though I realize your families members might feel somewhat uncomfortable talking about their home literacy practices, your experiences are valuable and I appreciate that you willingly share them with me. I also appreciate the time you give me to do so.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The study may benefit you and future learners. The information may affect the way Families, such as yours, understand home literacy practices and meet their social and cultural needs of learning in another culture.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. With your permission, I would like to take written notes when I observe the home visiting and interviews. With your permission, I will tape record the meetings. Your personal information will not to be given anybody. Your family members will be present when I observe the home visits and I will focus on your literacy practices. I will only receive information about the children that you willing give me and upon my observations. I will keep my notes, tapes, and transcripts in a locked cabinet. I will keep them for as long as I feel I can study this topic. When I no longer need them, I will destroy the tapes and shred the notes and transcripts. When the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your identity. If photographs, or audio-tape recordings of you will be used for educational

purposes, your identity will be protected or disguised. I will never use real names, or give information that could identify you or your children, when I write my study or discuss the study with others.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if you do not continue your involvement in the study and its activities, or if too little information is given during the interview or observations.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact me: Phone 0166256426, or one of my academic supervisors:

Prof. Radha Nambiar, r

Dr. Hafizah Latif,

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact one of my academic supervisors:-

Prof. Radha Nambiar,

Dr. Hafizah Latif,

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT, PARENT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

I understand the procedures described above, and I understand fully the rights of a potential subject in a research study involving people as subjects. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

□ I agree to be audio/video-taped/photographed □ I disagree to be audio/video-taped/photographed

Name of Subject: Dounia family members

Name of Parent or Legal Representative (if applicable): Jehad

Signature of Subject, Parent or Legal Representative: Jehad

Date: 22-2-2014

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I have explained the research to the subject or his/her legal representative and answered all of his/her questions. I believe that he/she understands the information described in this document and freely consents to participate.

Name of Investigator: Mustafa Aloqaili

Signature of Investigator: Mustafa

Date: 22-2-2014

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Explicitation Techniques in English-Arabic Translation: A Linguistic Corpus-based Study

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Abstract

This paper investigates explicitation techniques employed while translating from English into Arabic. Though extensive research has been done on explicitation in literary texts, investigating the same phenomenon with regard to translating official, institutional documents was only scant. As a result, the question that still lingers is whether translators can use explicitation as readily in official documents as they do in literary texts, or they become too wary. For this reason, the researcher has chosen for discussion an official document; namely, the translation of the English-language "Policies and Procedures Manual for Support Staff" (Office of Human Resources, the American University in Cairo, April 2012) (21,937 words) into Arabic. Invoking Klaudy & Karoly's (2003) framework, the researcher has devised an eclectic 10-tool explicitation framework as the research method to be used. One of the aims of this paper is to give corroborating evidence of explicitation as a required technique used in the different language systems of English and Arabic. Another goal of this paper is to draw a clearer demarcation line between what the researcher calls 'positive (i.e. necessary) explicitation' and 'negative (i.e. redundant) explicitation. It has been shown that 'Explicative Paraphrase' is the most frequently used explicitation shift, followed by 'Conjunction' and 'Reference'. Other shifts came in descending order. The paper has proved that explicitation does not necessarily lead to longer translations. It is recommended that future research could apply this proposed framework to translated texts other than official documents, i.e. literary works.

Key words: Conjunction, English-Arabic translation, Explicitation Hypothesis, reference, translation universals

1. Introduction

The idea that explicitation is a translation-inherent phenomenon has attracted considerable attention in translation studies. The Explicitation Hypothesis was proposed, in a seminal paper, by Blum-kulka (1986) who posited that translations are generally more explicit than their respective source texts, i.e. that "explicitation is a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation" (p. 21). Explicitation was first originated by Vinay & Darbelnet (1958/1995) who describe it as "a stylistic translation technique which consists of making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language because it is apparent from either the context or the situation" (Vinay & Darbelnet 1958/1995, as cited in Baker & Saldanha, 2009:104). According to Pym (2003), one of the reasons behind such explicitation tendency is that translators tend to take fewer risks than non-translators. Blum-kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis has been confirmed by studies on translation between different language pairs (among which those conducted by Séguinot 1998, Englund Dimitrova 1993, Olohan & Baker 2000, among others).

Explicitation started with analytical emphasis on cohesive features (See Blum-Kulka 1986; Englund Dimitrova 2005; Gumul 2006; Klaudy 2008; Olohan & Baker 2000; Øverås 1998; Pápai 2004; Puurtinen 2004; Weissbrod 1992). Some translation theorists, however, have extended the field of explicitation to more than cohesion markers. Englund Dimitrova (2005) indicates that the term 'explicitation' seems to have become an umbrella for a host of different phenomena. Weissbrod (1992) suggests that explicitation may be performed in various ways: by replacing pronouns with proper nouns; by turning metaphors into similes, thereby exposing the act of comparison; and, on the syntactical level, by filling in ellipses and adding conjunctions. Pápai (2004) identifies four levels of text explicitation: Logical-visual relations, lexico-grammatical, syntactic, and textual and extra-linguistic. The logical-visual relations are manifested in the addition of punctuation marks, while the lexico-grammatical level of explicitation is revealed by the use of lexical repetitions throughout the texts under investigation. As for the syntactic level of explicitation, it is shown in the addition of conjunctions. Finally, textual and extra-linguistic levels of text explicitation are established by using discourse organizing items. Two of the most prominent theorists who took explicitation beyond cohesion markers are Klaudy & Karoly (2003, 2005), whose framework will be employed in this paper with some additions.

Murtisari (2013) proposes two types of explicitation as an alternative to the Relative Theory's (RT) concepts of 'explication' and 'expansion/ completion/ enrichment', i.e. 'scalar' and 'categorical' explicitations. The first type, scalar explicitation, refers to explicitation shifts within the explicature (See Sperber & Wilson, 1986, for more details about Explicature and Implicature in Relevance Theory). In terms of translation, this would take the form of the encoding (in Target Text) of inferred information from the Source Text's (ST) explicature. This type is 'scalar' because the inferred meanings spelled out are already explicit by category and therefore the explicitation only makes them more explicit in terms of degree. This type is also considered 'scalar' because they are only a development of the ST's forms and the Target Text (TT) still shares the same explicature as the source text. This is possible because explicitness is also comparative in nature. The second type, the categorical type of explicitation, is basically the same as the RT term 'explication'. This refers to shifts of meaning from the implicature to explicature and is 'categorical' because it transforms the shifted meaning from one category to

the other, i.e., the implicit to the explicit. For example, the ST sentence "I want that apple." is to be translated into TT as if it were "Give me that apple." As far as Murtisari's taxonomy is concerned, the writer believes that the framework proposed in this paper can be consistent with the 'scalar' type. The 'categorical' type, however, is here deemed to be mere mistranslation or unacceptable deviation.

In this context, the distinction between what can be called 'lexical addition' and 'semantic addition' is always borne in mind. Lexical addition is a linguistic requirement of the TT so as to look original. Such type of addition does not add new 'meanings' to the ST message and is, therefore, deemed legitimate. Semantic addition, on the other hand, is the unnecessary addition of new meanings to the TT, not found in the ST. This type of addition is strictly prohibited by most professional translators. This argument is reinforced by Klaudy (2010) who, even though she doubts that two words in any two languages have an identical meaning, postulates that "it seems firmly embedded in public opinion that in translation it is the meaning that has to remain unchanged" (p. 82). Therefore, if any of the ten explicitation techniques discussed below contain any additions, they are by no means semantic (in the sense explained above). This is supported by Englund Dimitrova (2005) who stated that one of the explicitation types is "the addition of *new elements*" (Italics are mine). These 'new elements' cannot be considered as loose semantic addition to the ST. Therefore, lexical additions are, in my view, 'positive' (i.e. necessary) explicitation techniques employed only when they are linguistically necessary with no semantic overextensions that impinge upon the translator's faithfulness to the ST. 'Negative' (i.e. redundant) explicitation is that type which unnecessarily adds semantic meanings to the ST, without which the TT could have been more linguistically reflective of the ST.

2. The corpus

The corpus selected for investigation in this study is the "Policies and Procedures Manual for Support Staff" (Office of Human Resources, the American University in Cairo, April 2012), (henceforth, Manual). The 21,937-word English-language Manual has been chosen for investigation for several reasons. Addressing the AUC support staff with a view to stating relevant policies and procedures, the Manual's author clearly adhered to unequivocally clear, standard language. Such being the case, the translator was obliged to produce the same register in Arabic faithfully. Another reason is that since this Manual stipulates policies and procedures, it was characterised by condensed English style that had to be 'de-condensed', or explicitated at times, as will be illustrated below, to give the output its typical Arabic features. The third reason is that the translation of this Manual, having been made inside a venerable academic institution, was thoroughly revised, lending more reliability to the results reached.

3. Methodology

Given the multiplicity of explicitation techniques, this paper will employ an eclectic lexico-grammatical, syntactic and morphological approach to explaining some of these techniques from English into Arabic. While the lexico-grammatical analysis is almost ubiquitous in this paper, the syntacic analysis, following Pápai's (2004) classification, is best shown in section (4.1.2). On the other hand, the morphological analysis is best shown in section (4.1.3). A qualitative and quantitative analysis will be conducted to clarify the explicitation techniques in the Target Text, here Arabic. Although many translation theorists propose different explicitation techniques, Klaudy & Karoly's (2003) framework has been chosen for discussion

here. However, some other explicitation shifts have been observed while conducting the analysis and have therefore been added.

3.1 Data collection and sampling

The data were collected using manual alignment techniques based on comparisons of the source text (ST) and target texts (TT) to extract and categorise instances of explicitation. Line by line, the ST was read first and then compared to the TT. Once an explicitation feature is detected, it is written down in a separate sheet entitled by its name. Then, all instances of explicitation for each of the ten features were counted. Some were subcategorised as will be shown below. The parts to be emphasised for explicitation will be underlined in both ST and TT. Arabic cliticised pronouns will be underlined and bolded for further clarification. Some headings in the Source Text were included in the discussion.

3.2. Tools of Analysis

As stated above, Klaudy and Karoly's (2003) framework has been chosen for discussion. They suggest that explicitation shifts take place when:

a. an SL unit of a more general meaning is replaced by a TL unit of a more special meaning (here called 'narrowing' or 'specification);
b. the complex meaning of an SL word is distributed over several words in the TL (here called 'amplification' and 'explicative paraphrase');
c. new meaningful elements appear in the TL text; (If such meanings are 'scalar', they can be detected in almost all the shifts discussed);
d. one sentence in the SL is divided into two or several sentences in the TL (not detected in this paper); and
e. when SL phrases are extended or "elevated" into clauses in the TL (here called 'phrase-to-clause raising').

Some explicitations have been added, raising the number of techniques to ten, as briefly described below:

1. Explicative Paraphrase: It is a lexical change that makes the TT longer than the ST but does not change the meaning. Four main categories have been observed as will be shown below.
2. Conjunctions: They will be divided into the most famously used Arabic conjunction 'و' ('and') as well as other conjunctions.
3. Reference: It will be divided into three types: 'replacing pronouns with nouns'; 'adding demonstratives'; and 'addition of referential clitics'.
4. Phrase-to-clause raising: where an ST phrase is rendered into a TT clause.
5. Lexical repetition: Where an ST word of single occurrence is repeated in the TT.
6. Narrowing (Specification): It means that the TT word selected is narrower (or more specific) in meaning, than the ST word.
7. Amplification: When there is no immediate equivalent of the ST word in the TT, another phrase is given for illustration.
8. Substitution: If an ST word does not exist in TT, it is substituted with another in TT having similar meaning.

9. Ellipsis: Ellipsis means that some words are omitted in order to avoid repetition on condition that the omitted words in the elliptical ST sentence must be the ones that would appear twice in the full TT sentence.
10. Lexical broadening: It occurs when an SL unit of a more specific meaning is replaced by a TL unit of a more general meaning.

4. Results

The following subsections will discuss the ten explicitation techniques investigated in the data. The number of occurrences as well as the frequency percentage of each technique will be given. This section ends a discussion of whether explicitation shifts must necessarily end with longer translations.

4.1 Explicitation techniques

This section will discuss the ten explicitation techniques detected in the corpus, as well as the number and percentage of their occurrences as shown in Table (1) below:

Table 1 ***Explicitation techniques retrieved from corpus***

Explicitation techniques	**Number of occurrences**	**Frequency percentage**
Explicative Paraphrase	338	30.78%
Conjunction	332	30.23%
Reference	248	22.58%
Phrase-to-clause raising	68	6.19%
Lexical repetition	36	3.27%
Narrowing (Specification)	28	2.55%
Amplification	20	1.82%
Substitution	18	1.63%
Ellipsis	8	0.72%
Lexical broadening	4	0.36%
TOTAL	**1,098**	**100%**

As Table 1 indicates, Explicative Paraphrase (N=338) was the most frequently used way to induce explicitation. Conjunctions (N= 332) were the next preferred way of sparking off explicitation. Reference (N= 248), phrase-to-clause raising (N= 68) and lexical Repetition (N= 36) came in third, fourth and fifth positions respectively. Other features; namely, Narrowing, Amplification, Substitution, Ellipsis and Lexical Broadening came in descending order of frequency.

4.1.1 Explicative Paraphrase

Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997) singles out "the addition of explanatory phrases" as a form of explicitation. But not all 'explanatory phrases' can be freely used. According to Molina & Albir (2002), Nida & Taber (1969) and Margot (1979) coincide in distinguishing between legitimate and illegitimate paraphrasing. They argue that the legitimate paraphrase is a lexical change that makes the TT longer than the ST but does not change the meaning. In retrieving occurrences of Explicative Paraphrase from the corpus, it has been found out that it involves more than one category. Hence, Explicative Paraphrase has manifested itself into four main

categories the first three of which signal the addition of Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs in the TT, whereas the fourth, which I will call 'Recasts', denotes the situation where the translator had to rephrase one ST word into several words in TT. The following excerpts exemplify the four kinds of Explicative Paraphrase.

First: Addition of nouns

	ST	TT
1.	English language skills requirement	شرط التمتع بمهارات اللغة الإنجليزية .1
2.	Ethics code	ميثاق أخلاقيات المهنة .2
3.	Eligibility for paid sick leave	الأهلية للحصول على أجازة مرضية .3
4.	Structure and background (heading)	هيكل الجامعة وخلفية عن تاريخها .4
5.	Placement to salary range (heading)	تسكين الموظف حسب شريحة راتبه .5
6.	Senior administrators are accountable for policy formulation, recommendations and policy management	كبار الإداريين مسؤولون عن وضع السياسات، وطرح التوصيات و إدارة سياسات الجامعة. .6

Second: Addition of adjectives

	ST	TT
7.	Qualification outline for candidates	عرض موجز لكيفية تأهيل المرشحين .7
8.	Appearance (heading)	المظهر العام .8
9.	Senior administrators to the president	كبار الإداريين المساعدين للرئيس .9
10.	If the candidate…, the department has the right to…	إذا قام المرشح ب...، يحق للقسم المعني أن... .10
11.	Project appointments also cease upon the depletion of funds.	كما تنتهى التعيينات الخاصة بالمشروعات عند استنفاد الأموال المخصصة لها. .11
12.	Sick leave regulations (heading)	القواعد المنظمة للأجازة المرضية .12
13.	They should wear rain coat.	يجب عليهم ارتداء معطف واق من الأمطار. .13

Third: Addition of verbs

	ST	TT
14.	We … strive to be among the best in all what we do: in research, service to our communities	نسعى لأن نكون من بين أفضل المؤسسات في كل ما نفعله: في البحث، وفي الخدمات التى نقدمها لمجتمعاتنا .14
15.	The hiring department must make a written case for the	ويتحتم على الإدارة التي تريد تعيين هذا الموظف إعداد تقرير كتابي يبرر هذا الاستثناء. .15

	exception to the Office of Human Resources.		
16.	The unsuitability of an employee for the position means…	ويعني عدم ملائمة الموظف للوظيفة التى يشغلها...	.16
17.	Minor illnesses of less than 5 days	الأمراض البسيطة التى تستدعي إجازة...	.17

According to Konšalová (2007), verbal modes of expressions are more 'explicit' than nominal modes which are more implicit. It has long been observed that translators into Arabic tend to use more verbs than those originally found in the English SL. This can lead to the conclusion that if the TT is Arabic, it will be more verbal, hence explicit, than the English ST.

Fourth: Recasts

Sometimes the ST word or phrase cannot be readily rendered into TT only through the addition of nouns, adjectives or verbs like the three cases above. Instead, it has to be rendered by adding a combination of a noun and an adjective, inserting prepositions, or even rephrasing the entire ST word or expression in what will be called 'recasts.' The following excerpts clarify this technique:

	ST	**TT**	
18.	Annual leave entitlements (heading)	رصيد الأجازات السنوية المستحقة	.18
19.	03.08.00 Pilgrimage Leave *03.08.01 Eligibility and Allowance*	03-08-01إجازة الحج 03-08-01 الأهلية للحصول على الأجازة ومن يسمح لهم بها	.19
20.	Senior administrators report to the president	كبار الإداريين يرأسهم رئيس الجامعة مباشرةً	.20
21.	Hospitalization	تلقي العلاج داخل المستشفى	.21
22.	Employees reporting to …	الموظفون تحت رئاسة...	.22
23.	Recruitment starts when…	يبدأ البحث عن مرشحين لشغل وظيفة عند...	.23
24.	The university will verify reference checks…	وستقوم الجامعة بالتحقق من الأشخاص الذين يرجع إليهم للسؤال عن المرشح...	.24
25.	Transcript	سجل تقدير المواد	.25
26.	Government office (elective office)	الخدمة في الحكومة (شغل منصب جاء عن طريق الانتخاب)	.26

4.1.2 Conjunctions

Conjunctions here will be divided into the most famously used Arabic conjunction 'و' ('and') and then other conjunctions.

First: The Arabic conjunction 'و' ('and')

It has been observed that this Arabic conjunction is used in every new sentence in the TT even though it does not reflect any occurrence of an English conjunction in the ST. Out of all the 332 conjunction occurrences surveyed in the data, the conjunction 'و' accounted for 300, making it the most famous conjunctive explicitator in Arabic.

The following excerpts exemplify this kind of explicitation**:**

ST	TT
27. AUC was founded in 1919… **.** It is a privately owned American educational institution …	27. تأسست "الجامعة الأمريكية بالقاهرة" عام 1919... **.** **و**الجامعة مؤسسة تعليمية أمريكية مملوكة ملكية خاصة ...
28. This temporary contract may be renewed…	28. **و**يجوز تجديد هذا العقد المؤقت ...

It is important here to disagree with Blum-kulka (1986) who initially thought of explicitation as 'redundancy' which can be expressed by "a rise in the level of cohesive explicitness in the TL text." In spite of the widespread addition of 'و' in the TT, which can be viewed as a rise in the level of cohesive explicitness, such addition is necessary to hew to Arabic patterns. But this has a limit, that is to say, we cannot overextend the conjunctive, or cohesive,'و' into using words like 'بالإضافة إلى ذلك' (i.e. 'moreover', 'besides', 'furthermore, etc.) which has no equivalent in the ST, or this can be deemed as a deviation.

Second: Other conjunctions:

This part will focus on Arabic conjunctions other than 'و' ('and') and give explanations behind the use of some of them. Such conjunctive explicitators are exemplified as follows:

ST	TT
29. AUC respects all official Egyptian government holidays covered by presidential decrees, some Western and Eastern religious holidays, and some American national holidays.	29. تحترم "الجامعة الأمريكية بالقاهرة" جميع العطلات الحكومية المصرية الرسمية التى صدرت بخصوصها مراسيم رئاسية، **وكذا** بعض العطلات الدينية الغربية والشرقية، وبعض العطلات الوطنية الأمريكية
30. Recruitment starts when there is a vacancy that needs to be filled. This vacancy may exist through the transfer, …or death of a current employee …	30. يبدأ البحث عن مرشحين لشغل وظيفة عند وجود وظيفة شاغرة لا بد من شغلها**.** **ف**قد تنشأ هذه الوظيفة الشاغرة بسبب نقل موظف ... أو وفاته ...
31. In case of Separation, the employee's business email will be closed within 6 months from end of employment. Email accounts for AUC Alumni are granted for life.	31. وبانفصال الموظف عن الجامعة عند انتهاء التوظيف، يتم إيقاف بريد العمل الإلكتروني الخاص بالموظف فى غضون ستة أشهر من نهاية التوظيف**.** **وأما** خريجو "الجامعة الأمريكية بالقاهرة" فتكون حسابات البريد الإلكتروني لهم مدى الحياة.
32. All requests for leave without pay must be in writing… **.** They must be submitted to the human resources office…	32. تحرر كل الطلبات الخاصة بالإجازة بدون أجر كتابةً**.** **كما** يجب تقديمها إلى مكتب الموارد البشرية...

It has been noticed that the translator preferred to use "وكذا" (lit. 'and also') to other conjunctions like "و" ('and') when the first conjunct is long, containing a noun that is modified by more than one adjective and also relativized by a clause. In example (29) above, the word 'العطلات' is modified by the adjectives 'الحكومية', 'المصرية' and 'الرسمية' and relativized by the clause 'التى صدرت بخصوصها مراسيم رئاسية'. It should be mentioned here that the head word 'العطلات' is repeated in both the first and second conjuncts in (29).

In (30), the translator used the conjunction 'ف' which is an Arabic clitic having either initiatory or causal function. Only implicit in the ST, this conjunction was explicitated in the TT.

A similar example is given in (31) except that another conjunction 'وأما' (or, 'as for'), is used. Another conjunction, more specifically 'كما' ('also'), however, is used in (32). It has been noticed that this particular conjunction is used to connect two sentences explicitatively if the subject is the same in both sentences. So, the subject in (32) is 'requests' in the first sentence and 'they' in the second, which also refers to 'requests'.

4.1.3 Reference

Pym (2005:1) argues that "…translators orient reference systems in order to manage the risks of non-cooperation in communication, and that they tend to be risk-averse because of the cultural reward system that often structures their professional tasks." Reference as an explicitation technique is often discussed within the context of replacing ST pronouns with TT nouns. Two other shifts will be added, however, to this category as follows:

First: Replacing pronouns with nouns

Although this is the commonest referential explicitation shift, it accounted for only 14 out of a total of 248 occurrences. The cause behind this meagre percentage (5.64%) may be due to the fact that the author of the Source Text was reluctant to use pronouns which may cause confusion among readers of the AUC staff with regard to their rights and obligations. Instead, s/he was apparently keen on using unequivocally clear nouns, thereby vitiating the need for such explicitative feature. The following excerpts exemplify this shift:

	ST	**TT**
33.	AUC was founded in 1919 by Americans devoted to education and service in the Middle East. It is a privately owned American educational institution,…	.33 تأسست "الجامعة الأمريكية بالقاهرة" عام 1919 على أيدي أمريكيين كرسوا أنفسهم لتوفير التعليم والخدمة فى الشرق الأوسط. والجامعة مؤسسة تعليمية أمريكية مملوكة ملكية خاصة
34.	… a contract of three originals, one to be handed for the social insurance office, …	.34 عقد من ثلاثة أصول، يُقدَّم الأصل الأول إلى مكتب التأمينات الاجتماعية
35.	Maintaining the security, confidentiality and privacy of records for information under one's disposal and not using it for one's interest or personal gain	.35 الحفاظ على أمن وسرية وخصوصية سجلات المعلومات التى تكون تحت تصرف أي موظف، وعدم استخدامها لمصلحته أو لتحقيق مكاسب شخصية

Second: Adding demonstratives

Arabic demonstratives, more specifically 'هذا' ('this') and, much more frequently, 'ذلك' ('that') were used in the translated corpus, constituting 62 occurrences. This is illustrated as follows:

	ST	TT
36.	A meeting should be arranged with their immediate supervisor to solve the problem.	36. ويجب ترتيب اجتماع مع مشرفهم المباشر لحل هذه المشكلة.
37.	Senior administrators, in turn, are authorized to sign employment contracts for their relocated managers in consultation with the human resources office.	37. ويصرح لكبار الإداريين، بدورهم، أن يوقعوا على عقود التوظيف الخاصة بمديريهم الذين تم إعادة تسكينهم، وذلك بالتشاور مع مكتب الموارد البشرية.

Third: Addition of referential clitics

A 'referential clitic' means a referential pronoun typically attached, or cliticised, to an Arabic noun. It is here believed that adding referential pronouns in the translation is a form of explicitation as it does not exist in the Source Text. Such referential clitics accounted for 172 occurrences, making it the commonest explicitation shift through reference. This is exemplified as follows:

	ST	TT
38.	The area head concerned approves the appointment and placement of the candidate for the specific position	38. ويقوم رئيس المنطقة المعني بالموافقة على تعيين المرشح وتسكينه في الوظيفة المحددة.
39.	A. Understand and comply with the AUC Code of Ethics.	39. يفهم ميثاق الأخلاق الخاص "بالجامعة الأمريكية بالقاهرة" ويلتزم به.
40.	Employees should wear uniform while on duty.	40. يجب على الموظفين ارتداء الزي الرسمي أثناء تأديتهم عملهم.

Despite the fact that every language is *sui generis*, which can give a potentially satisfying reason why Arabic uses much more referential clitics which can be expressed by 'his/her' in English, two grammatical features in Arabic have been detected that largely contributes to such overwhelming usage of referential clitics in Arabic compared to English.

A) It has been generally the case that, in English, when there are two non-person nouns conjoined by 'and' followed by a head noun, they are translated into Arabic as follows:

ENGLISH ARABIC

N_1 + and + N_2 + the + Head Noun → N_1 + Head Noun + and + N_2 + **clitic**

In (38) above, therefore, the phrase "the appointment and placement of the candidate" – where 'appointment' is N_1 , 'placement' N_2 and 'the candidate' the Head Noun – was translated as ' تعيين المرشح وتسكينه', as if it were 'the appointment of the candidate and **his** placement' in English.

B) Likewise, when two verbs are conjoined by 'and' in English and followed by an object, they are usually translated into Arabic as follows:

ENGLISH ARABIC

V_1 + and + V_2 + Object → V_1 + Object + V_2 + **clitic**

So, in (39), the clause 'Understand and comply with the …Code of Ethics' – where 'understand' is V_1 , 'comply with' V_2 and 'Code of Ethics' the object – is translated into Arabic as "يفهم ميثاق الأخلاق ... ويلتزم به" as if it were 'understand … the Code of Ethics and comply with **it**' in English.

According to Schiffrin (1994/2003:199), explicitness is concerned with 'presentation of information that actually enables [the hearer/reader] to correctly identify a referent, i.e. the lexical clues that allow [the hearer/reader] to single out whom (or what) [the speaker/writer] intends to differentiate from other potential referents'. Given such concept, and in light of the widespread reference-related explicitation feature discussed above, one can argue that Arabic, when it comes to reference, is more explicitative than English.

4.1.4 Phrase-to-clause raising

Al-Bazi (1983:91) argues that Arabic relative clauses are all of the restrictive type, unlike English which has restrictive and non-restrictive types. This may give reason why translators seem to be more prone to using relative clauses in Arabic while translating English adjectival/nominal phrases in some contexts. Another reason for such clausal inclination in Arabic will be provided below. The following excerpts exemplify this kind explicitation**:**

	ST	**TT**	
	Adjectival Phrases into Relative/Verbal Clauses		
41.	Non-compensatory holidays	العطلات **التي** لا تعوض	.41
42.	Modified policies	السياسات **التي** تم تعديلها	.42
43.	Equal-opportunity institution	مؤسسة **تقوم** على مبدأ تكافؤ الفرص	.43
44.	Cross-cultural environment	بيئة **تتقاطع** فيها الثقافات	.44
45.	Uniform shall be worn with appropriate shoes.	يجب ارتداء الزي الرسمي ومعه **ما** يلائمه **من** الأحذية.	.45
46.	Skills which may be acquired through experience or through equivalent training.	المهارات التى يمكن اكتسابها من خلال الخبرة أو من خلال **ما** يناظر ذلك **من** تدريب.	.46
	Nominal Phrases into Relative Clauses		
47.	Appraisals conflicts	الصراعات التي تنشأ بسبب التقويم	.47
48.	The employee's status changes	التغيرات التي تطرأ على حالة الموظف	.48
49.	The employee is allowed to sit for	يسمح للموظف أداء الامتحانات الجامعية	.49

university exams for degree programs.	التى يحصل فيها الطالب على درجة جامعية.

Examples (41) and (42) show how English adjectival phrases are explicitatively translated into Arabic relative clauses starting with 'التى', 'الذين' (the female and plural variants of 'which' or 'that' in English) followed by a verbal clause. In (43) and (44), the adjectival phrases are translated into verbal clauses. The ST nominal phrases in (47), (48) and (49) are translated into relative clauses in TT.

Another reason why English-Arabic translators are even more inclined to use relative clauses is the fact that Arabic has a clausal structure that does not exist in English. This is called the 'ما ... من' construction where 'ما' ('that' or 'which') is followed by a verb which is followed by 'من' (lit. 'from') that is followed by a noun. This is represented in the translation of (45) and (46) where in the former "with appropriate shoes' was translated into الأحذية **ما** يلائمه **من** ' and in the latter 'through equivalent training' was rendered into 'تدريب **من** يناظر ذلك **ما** '.

Overall, the fact that Arabic relative clauses are all restrictive clauses and that Arabic, unlike English, has the exclusive *'ma…min'* clausal construction renders English-Arabic translators, whether consciously or unconsciously, more disposed to using clausal constructions, hence phrase-to-clause explicitation.

4.1.5 Lexical repetition

This explicitation feature can be exemplified as follows:

	ST	TT
50.	The benefits for fixed-term, project, grant and secondment employment vary …	.50 وتختلف المزايا الخاصة بالتوظيف محدد المدة، والتوظيف الخاص بالمشروعات، والتوظيف عن طريق الإعارة، بإختلاف...
51.	Senior managers are accountable for the development and implementation of policies and the leadership of a major unit…	.51 ويتولى كبار المديرين مسئولية تطوير وتنفيذ السياسات، وكذا مسئولية قيادة وحدة كبري...
52.	New and modified policies	.52 السياسات الجديدة والسياسات التى تم تعديلها

As shown above, the word 'employment' in (50) was repeated three times in the translation, whereas the words 'accountable for' and 'policies' in (51) and (52) respectively, were repeated two times each. It must be noted here that such repetition is regarded as a structural necessity that does not add to the meaning of the Source Text, and is, therefore, a legitimate tool in the translator's hand.

4.1.6 Narrowing (Specification)

According to Klaudy (2010), narrowing (specification) means that the TT word selected is narrower (or more specific) in meaning, than the ST word. This explicitation feature can be exemplified as follows:

ST	TT

53. We will build on our existing strengths to become the destination of choice for students and faculty from around the world seeking in-depth cultural exposure…	53. وسوف نبني على نقاط القوة الموجودة لدينا حتى نصبح محط اختيار الطلبة وأعضاء هيئة التدريس من مختلف أرجاء العالم الذين يسعون إلى التعرض إلى تجارب ثقافية متعمقة...
54. Compensation (heading)	54. الرواتب والأجور
55. The appointment is contingent upon the approval of the original employer.	55. ويرتهن التعيين بموافقة جهة العمل الأصلية.
56. a. Home address and phone number b. Mobile number	56. أ. عنوان المنزل ورقم التليفون الأرضي ب. رقم التليفون المحمول
57. Dismissal of an Egyptian national is to be undertaken following referral to the labor court	57. ويفصل الموظف المصري بعد إحالته إلى محكمة العمل.

In (53), the word 'exposure' – which literally means 'التعرض' in Arabic covering all forms of getting exposed to a new culture, including intercommunication with other people, gaining new experiences, etc. – was narrowed into 'تجارب' (lit. 'experiments', or 'experiences'). This is shown by Merriam Webster's web definition of the word 'exposure' as "the fact or condition of being affected by something or experiencing something**:** the condition of being exposed to something"

Though the researcher agree to the translation of 'compensation' (which was a heading) in (54) as 'الرواتب والأجور' as this part actually discussed 'salaries and wages' only, this does not negate the fact that the rendition was an act of narrowing where the ST word, which can overextend to any type of damages or indemnification, to 'الرواتب والأجور ' (or, salaries and wages) only. According to Merriam Webster's web definition, the word 'compensation' has three meanings; namely, "something that is done or given to make up for damage, trouble," "something good that acts as a balance against something bad or undesirable" and "payment given for doing a job."

Rendering the word 'employer' in (55) as 'جهة العمل' (lit. 'employment body') is only an instance of narrowing since 'employer', according to Merriam Webster Dictionary, is "a person or company that has people who do work for wages or a salary" can also mean 'the person' who employs. In (56), it seems that the translator was bound to narrow the meaning of 'phone number' into 'رقم التليفون الأرضي' ('land line phone number') because it was followed by the 'mobile number', obliging him to distinguish between the two numbers.

Though the noun 'national' means, according to Merriam Webster Dictionary's web definition "a person who is a citizen of a country." and has nothing to do with 'الموظف' (or, 'employee'), the rendition of 'national' into 'الموظف' in (57) is believed to be an act of legitimate narrowing. Even though the word 'national' could have been given the one-to-one equivalent of 'مواطن', the translator specified the meaning to 'الموظف' ('employee') who is also a 'national' but on whom the whole part of the Source Text revolves and is thus worthy of being highlighted, or 'specified'.

4.1.7 Amplification

According to Molina & Albir (2002:500), amplification occurs when the TT uses more signifiers to cover syntactic or lexical gaps**.** This explicitation feature can be exemplified as follows:

	ST	TT	
58.	The university's offshore retirement investment plan	خطة الجامعة الخاصة باستثمار مكافأة التقاعد بنظام "الأوف شور" (بعيداً عن القيود الضريبية القومية)	.58
59.	The basic uniform complement for the operational public-contact employees shall consist of short-sleeve shirts and pants (for men) or blouses, slacks, smocks and/or dresses for women	يتكون الطقم الأساسي للزي الرسمي الخاص بموظفي التشغيل الذين هم على اتصال مع الجمهور من قمصان ذات كُم قصير وبنطلون (للرجال)، أو بلوزة، وبنطلون فضفاض، ورداء فضفاض خارجي أو فستان (بالنسبة للنساء)	.59
60.	Sweat shirt	قميص مصنوع من نسيج قطني ثقيل	.60
61.	boots	الأحذية طويلة الرقبة	.61
62.	Torn garments, shorts, open-toed shoes, sandals, scuff or flip-flops are not appropriate	ليس من الملائم ارتداء أيٍ ملابس ممزقة، أو سراويل قصيرة "الشورت"، أو أحذية مفتوحة عند الأصابع، أو صنادل، أو شباشب، أو صنادل ذات السير الذى يمسك بالقدم عند الإصبع الأكبر	.62

The writer may disagree with the translator, or reviser, over the bracketed amplified translation of 'offshore' in (58) as 'بعيداً عن القيود الضريبية القومية ' (Lit. away from local taxation restrictions). The disagreement is based on the fact that there could have been a shorter rendering of the term. According to the accepted translation of the International Monetary Fund, 'offshore' is translated as 'خارجى (أوفشور)'. (Please refer to the website: http://www.imf.org/external/arabic/pubs/ft/eds/guide/pdf/texta.pdf)

The translator, or reviser, may be excused, however, as s/he may have read the definition of 'offshore' in association with another economic term, 'safe haven' where, according to Najera, (2011), savings are deposited in a foreign country with lower level of taxes, or no taxes at all. This meaning may have prompted them to give such amplified translation of 'offshore'.

Other than the word 'offshore', this particular explicitation technique was obviously employed in the part of the Manual describing how the uniform should look like for operational public-contact employees. The translator apparently faced the dilemma of not finding one-to-one equivalent to the ST word. Therefore, 'slack' is rendered into 'بنطلون فضفاض' (Lit. baggy pants); 'smock' into 'رداء فضفاض خارجي ' (Lit. external baggy gown); 'sweat shirt' into 'قميص مصنوع من نسيج قطنى ثقيل' (Lit. a shirt made of heavy cotton fabric); 'boots' into 'الأحذية طويلة الرقبة ' (Lit. long-neck shoes) and 'shorts' into 'سراويل قصيرة' (Lit. short pants). Perhaps the longest amplification came with the word 'flip-flop', which was rendered into 'صنادل ذات السير الذى يمسك بالقدم عند الإصبع الأكبر ' (Lit. A rubber sandal held to the foot at the big toe by means of a thong).

4.1.8 Substitution

As explained before, substitution is used if an ST word does not exist in TT, it is substituted with another in TT having similar meaning. Only 18 occurrences were detected in the data, the most salient of which are as follows:

	ST	TT	
63.	Educational certificate	شهادة المؤهل الدراسي	.63
64.	Fingerprint identification (Criminal Record Check)	صحيفة الحالة الجنائية	.64
65.	Marital status	الحالة الاجتماعية	.65
66.	The job candidates should submit their curriculum vitae or résumé…	يجب على المرشحين للحصول على الوظيفة تقديم سيرتهم الذاتية المفصلة أو الموجزة...	.66

Aware of the fact that 'educational certificate' in (63) cannot be translated literally as 'الشهادة التعليمية' since such collocation is not common in the context where a candidate is applying for a job, the translator substituted 'التعليمية' with 'المؤهل الدراسي' to be 'شهادة المؤهل الدراسى' (Lit. academic qualification certificate). The same technique was employed in (64) where 'Fingerprint identification (Criminal Record Check)' would have been literally translated as ' التعرف على بصمات اليد (فحص السجل الجنائي)'. Such rendering, had it been opted for, would have been an unacceptable departure from the far more commonly used Arabic substitution 'صحيفة الحالة الجنائية' (Lit. criminal status sheet) which gives the exact meaning of the English ST expression. In (65), the adjective 'marital' in 'marital status' was rendered as 'إجتماعية' (i.e. 'social') although the basic equivalent of 'marital' is 'زيجي' (i.e. related to marriage). This is because in Arabic, unlike English, we do not say 'الحالة الزيجية', but rather 'الحالة الاجتماعية'. In (66), the translator was confronted with a different type of lexical intricacy, where both 'curriculum vitae' and résumé mean 'السيرة الذاتية' in Arabic with the exception that the former is detailed and the latter is shorter. So, the translator rendered both words as 'السيرة الذاتية' to which the adjectives 'المفصلة' ('detailed') and 'الموجزة' ('short') were attached. It is here believed that the substitution took place when 'curriculum vitae' is translated into Arabic as 'السيرة الذاتية المفصلة' (as if it were 'detailed curriculum vitae' in ST) and 'résumé' into 'السيرة الذاتية الموجزة' (as if it were 'short curriculum vitae' in ST).

4.1.9 Ellipsis

Ellipsis means that some words are omitted in order to avoid repetition on condition that the omitted words in the elliptical ST sentence must be ones that would appear twice in the full TT sentence. The fact that the ST author may have been reluctant to use elliptical expressions, which may have equivocal interpretations among AUC support staff with varying linguistic competency, may give reason why ellipses were few in the collected data – only 8 cases – some of which are cited below:

	ST	TT	
67.	All candidates level 10 and above have to be interviewed by the Director of Organizational Development and from level 13 and above have to be interviewed by the	يجب إجراء المقابلة الشخصية لجميع المرشحين من المستوى العاشر وما هو أعلى منه مع "مدير التنمية التنظيمية"، ولجميع المرشحين من المستوى الثالث عشر وما هو أعلى منه مع "المدير	.67

	Executive Director of Human Resources	التنفيذي للموارد البشرية"
68.	The candidate is held accountable for the information provided on the resume and later on the application form when completed.	.68 ويعد المرشح مسئولاً عن المعلومات الواردة في سيرته الذاتية الموجزة، وكذلك يعد مسئولاً فيما بعد عن المعلومات الواردة في نموذج التقدم لطلب الوظيفة عند استيفائه

In (67), the ellipsis in the ST is lexicalized in the TT as if the ST were: "All candidates level 10 and above …and all candidates level 13 and above…" The same technique was followed in (68) were the ST was rendered as if it were: "The candidate is held accountable for the information provided on ….. and later the candidate is held accountable for the information provided on the application …"

4.1.10 Lexical broadening

According to Klaudy (2010:94), lexical broadening, or in other terms, generalization (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958/1995) of meaning is "a standard transfer operation whereby the SL unit of a more specific meaning is replaced by a TL unit of a more general meaning." Numerically, this is the feature that has been least common in the data. Two examples are given for illustration:

	ST	**TT**
69.	Store helpers	.69 عمال المخازن
70.	Hats or caps may be worn as long as the logos and images on the hat or cap do not offend general public values…	.70 يجوز ارتداء القبعات بأنواعها (قلنسوة أو كاب) طالما أن الشعارات والصور التي تحملها لا تسئ إلى القيم العامة للجمهور...

In (69), the word 'helpers' (Literally 'مساعدون ' or 'معاونون' in Arabic) was translated into 'عمال' (i.e. 'workers) which has a lexically broader meaning than 'helpers' whose main task is to 'help' others do their work. In (70), 'hats or caps' were given a broader, more generic, equivalent 'قبعات' then they were each assigned a separate lexical equivalent between brackets (i.e. 'قلنسوة' and 'كاب' respectively). The reason for this lexical broadening here is that the translator may not have readily found an easy Arabic plural for either the word 'قلنسوة' or the word 'كاب'.

4.2 Longevity of translation?

After discussing the explicitation techniques employed in the data, the researcher believes that one of the first questions to be asked here is whether such explicitation, which does not add to the meaning and is simply based on the fact that no two languages are isomorphic (Halliday & Yallop 2007), inevitably leads to the translation being longer that the original text. I share with Séguinot (1988) the conviction that explicitation does not necessarily mean redundancy, which Blum-Kulka (1986) supported in her definition of the Hypothesis: "The process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text might lead to a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text." (p. 19). Besides, there has been a common conviction held by some scholars, among whom was Blum-Kulka (1986), that even though explicitation may be common, it is not

recommended, since it may lead to a longer TL, and that a more competent translator could have produced an equivalent TL text. The present paper gives evidence to the contrary. A simple mathematical calculation would give a negative answer to this query. As stated above, the total word count of the ST English text is (21,937 words). The total word count of the TT Arabic text is 21,646 words – even fewer than the original text. Before trying to solve this riddle, it should be stressed that both the ST and TT have been read three times to make sure nothing was left out or abridged in the translation. Four reasons may be given as an explanation for this.

First, it has to do the definite/indefinite article system in both English and Arabic. In English, a (countable) noun must be preceded by either 'a/an' for indefinite, or 'the' for definite, making the total number of the words that a computer can count as two words. In Arabic, however, the definite article 'ال' (i.e. the) is attached, or cliticised, to the noun, thus retaining the total number of words to be counted as one word. Besides, Arabic has no indefinite article equivalent to 'a/an'.

Second, cliticisation - basically represented in possessive and objective pronouns along with some cliticisable prepositions - plays a key role in reducing the total word count of any Arabic output. So, the prepositional phrase 'to his benefit' (3 words), which has the possessive pronoun 'his', is translated into one word in Arabic 'لمصلحته'. The verbal clause 'belongs to me' (3 words), which has the objective pronoun 'me', is also translated into one word in Arabic 'يخصنى'.

Third, internal voweling, which can denote passive constructions – among other functions – is instrumental here. For instance, the sentence: "He was dismissed" can be translated into one Arabic verb after being internally voweled according to a certain pattern, to be 'فُصِل '.

Fourth, Arabic has the optional grammatical feature of 'absent pronoun' whereby the subject is not expressed in a separate word, but rather implicitly understood from the meaning of the verb, thereby reducing the number of words written. Thus, the English sentence: "I eat an apple." (4 words), will be translated in only two Arabic words: آكل تفاحة.

Given the word count of the Arabic translation, it seems that the usage of the above Arabic features have exceeded that of all the investigated explicitation features even though some of which visibly increase the word count of the translation output.

5. Conclusion

This paper attempted to give corroborating evidence of explicitation as a universal translation technique. It has been proved that explicitation is used in the translation of official, institutional documents. Based upon a corpus of the English-Arabic translation of the "Policies and Procedures Manual for Support Staff" (Office of Human Resources, the American University in Cairo, April 2012), up to ten explicitation techniques have been investigated. It has been shown that 'Explicative Paraphrase', which was given four subcategories, was the most frequently used explicitation shift, followed by 'Conjunction' and 'Reference'. Other shifts came in descending order. Lexico-grammatical, syntactic or morphological reasons were given in an attempt to explain why each of the explicitation techniques was used by the translator. It was shown that Arabic is more verbal than English, thus more explicitative. The commonest Arabic

conjunction 'و' ('and') was observed to have initiated almost all new sentences in the TT. Other Arabic conjunctions which were used in the middle of the sentence were also examined. Two other subcategories have been added to reference other than replacing ST pronouns with TT nouns; namely, adding Arabic demonstratives and referential clitics. As for phrase-to-clause raising, it has been shown that it is because Arabic clauses are all restrictive, thus necessary, that English-Arabic translators tend to use relative clauses, thus explicitation, in Arabic. The *'ma….min'* Arabic-specific construction was given to be an additional reason why explicitative clauses are used in Arabic in the translation of English phrases. Contrary to widespread belief, it has been observed that the explicitation shifts used in the translation under investigation have not led to the TT being longer than the ST. Four reasons have been given to corroborate this. One of the most essential points this paper stressed is the difference between necessary (or, positive) explicitation and redundant (or, negative) explicitation. While the former is indispensable to getting to a translation that would sound natural in Arabic, the second is not recommended and is labeled as a mistranslation. According to House (2008:16), if evidence of a necessary intervention is absent, and the translator nevertheless intervenes and manipulates the function of the text, "we are no longer dealing with a translation but a version."

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ICT Integration in Academic Writing: An Experiment in Blended Learning

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Abstract

The success of *blending internet technology in language teaching* depends on the content and role of the materials used and how they interact with students in their language learning process. The present generation of students, who are called *digital natives* or *net generation* (Educase.edu, 2016) finds anything to do with the internet attractive. The present paper proves that such interests of students can be fruitfully tapped for a variety of language learning purposes. It also proves that the use of Information Communication Technology (ICT) tools in English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching ensures higher degree of learner motivation and participation. This experimental study was conducted with a class of 26 Omani post-foundation Engineering & IT specialization students at English Language Center, Nizwa College of Technology for a period of one semester of their Higher Diploma Course with the basic premise that blending technology in language teaching will be beneficial both for teachers and students. In the first part of the paper the theory and practice of *blended learning* are discussed. The subsequent parts explore how ICT tools like *Quizlet Quiz, WebQuest* and *Blog* can be blended in teaching academic writing. The paper also discusses in detail the perceived teacher and learner experiences. It proves that by using internet technology, teachers can avoid monotony in teaching and promote collaborative learning. On the strengths of its findings, the author recommends selective blending of technology in EFL teaching to enhance student's performance in interesting, stimulating and productive ways.

Key Words: Academic Writing, Blended Learning, ICT in English, Teaching English with Technology, Technical Communication.

Introduction:

Information Communication Technology (ICT) integration in Academic Writing: An Experiment in Blended Learning was a project done by the author as a part of *Cert ICT: Certificate in Teaching Language with Technology* course offered by Trinity College London. This course was taken with *The Consultant-E: EdTech Training and Consultancy*, Barcelona, Spain during October 2010 - March 2011 and the experiment was conducted at English Language Center, Nizwa College of Technology (NCT), Sultanate of Oman. The purpose of this paper is to share the author's experience with fellow English teachers to encourage them to use technology in teaching. As rightly quoted by Shaban (2013), the use of technology is imperative to cope with the 21st century digital age, in which the learners have different ways of thinking and practices closely connected to technology. This project was designed and executed under the guidance and continuous supervision of the EdTech Training and Consultancy and was commended as *well prepared, well executed* and *well supplemented with a Quizlet quiz, WebQuest and class Blog*.

In the first part of the paper, ICT in the educational context of Oman in general and in Nizwa College of Technology, in particular, are discussed. After that, the theory and practice of blended learning are explained, followed by a detailed analysis of the three ICT tools used in the class and an analysis of the rhetoric taught based on the lesson plan and intended learning outcomes. The second part of the paper presents perceived learner experiences and reflections of the teacher. The final part of the paper gives some practical suggestions for integrating ICT in English Language Teaching.

1. ICT in the Educational Context of Oman: An overview

In Oman, the introduction of ICT in schools and colleges is a recent phenomenon which is approximately a decade old, before which teachers were mostly using some simple audio-visual aids and a very few multimedia equipment in teaching. The teaching aids used ranged from charts and tape recorders to slide transparency projectors. By the end of the 20th century, tape recorders were slowly replaced by CD players and transparency slide projectors by multimedia overhead projectors. The actual advent of ICT in teaching in the Omani educational context happened at the beginning of the 21st century when computers came to schools and colleges. Though the number of computers installed in schools and colleges was low, they brought a considerable change in the way teaching and learning took place. By 2005, most of the higher educational institutions provided computers with an internet connection to their teachers and this move brought a sea of changes in the teaching practices at colleges. The Ministry of Education launched an Educational Portal in 2007 and introduced ICT in schools for the benefit of the Omani student community. The ICT mission outlined by the ministry is:

> The Ministry of Education leads the mission to prepare a generation capable of carrying the nation's economic and social development duties. It gears all facilities, curricula, evaluation systems and high quality working force to serve all pupils in various education sectors along with deployment of modern technologies proportionate to *Digital Oman Community Strategy*. It also works to orchestrate all efforts exerted by the private sector and the community to serve education, devising the way to consistent modernization contiguous with civilised nations (Educational Portal-MoE, Oman, n.d.).

The educational portal includes a variety of e-services for students, teachers, parents and employees. It has different features useful for student registration, students' reports, attendance, timetables, and communication tools such as forums, chat rooms and Short Message Service (SMS). Moreover, it has an e-learning system with interactive content plus virtual classroom, distance learning, mobile learning and student evaluation features.

The objective of the e-learning portal of Omani Ministry of Education in ICT application is outlined in the ITU News (2011) case study of the following:

> An overriding objective of the portal is to provide interactive teaching tools and to support improvements in evaluation and assessment, as well as teaching methods and curricular development to create a high-quality education system. The portal's electronic teaching programmes will train teachers on how to develop self-learning skills among their students, and will enable interested members of the public to extend their educational opportunities through distance learning and virtual classrooms (Case Study: ICT applications in Oman,
> 2011).

However, there are many challenges in making this ICT objective produce fruitful pedagogical outcomes. "The main obstacles are the need for necessary infrastructure, availability of trained human resources, the constraints posed by social and cultural factors, and developing a suitable e-curriculum" (Case Study: ICT applications in Oman, 2011). From this, it is quite clear that the use of ICT in education is in its very early stages of implementation and development. Also, it gives a clear picture of the challenges teachers and students face in using ICT for their teaching and learning purposes.

1.2. ICT in Nizwa College of Technology

NCT introduced the Moodle Learning Management Program in the year 2007 under a centralised policy of the Ministry of Manpower, which was implemented in all the Colleges of Technology in the country. As a result, Educational Technology Center (ETC) was established, and a qualified ETC head was appointed. It marked the advent of ICT at the college. The college teachers were given required training from time to time. Moodle (Moodle LMP, 2011) version 2.3 was installed in the Linus Fedora Core Version 16.0 as an intranet application and connected to the Language Labs in the English Language Center. Two language labs with 25 computers each were set up at NCT. In addition to these two labs, 40 computers were made available for students at the Self Access Center. Students could sign in using the unique, individual intranet passwords assigned to them. Moodle was used as an interactive interface between students and teachers. Most assignments and home works were made available on moodle on the college intranet. Students were assigned individual system IP address for security reasons.

2. Background and Rationale

ICT integration in Academic Writing proved to be a fruitful venture in teaching Post-Foundation Writing courses at the English Language Center of NCT. Technical Communication is an academic, content-based Writing course for Higher Diploma level students of Engineering and IT specializations. The class consisted of 26 students during the winter semester of 2011 (January-April). The students had completed the four semester long foundation program and had passed institutional TOEFL before taking up the Technical Communication course.

The class was divided into five groups: 4 groups of 5 boys each and one group of 6 girls for the successful completion of the planned ICT tasks. This experiment was conducted with the belief that, to use Kruk's (2014) remark, blending internet technology "in foreign/second language education offers a unique opportunity for interaction which can be a valuable substitute for a real experience" (p. 52).

2.1. Blended Learning Theory and Practice

According to Sharma and Barrett (2007), blending (internet) technology in teaching "… is commonly applied to a course where all learners meet with the teacher in a f2f class, in which the course includes a parallel self-study component as a CD-ROM or access to web-based materials" (p. 7). Sharma and Barrett further state that blending technology in an f2f class adds variety and value to the lessons. They also underline that if there is a connection between the lesson content and technical materials included, it will create enthusiasm among the learners. In blended learning, students are allowed to make use of their gadgets even during f2f class hours to tap the internet resources successfully according to their need, and they love to do it. It is not an exaggeration if we say that blended learning can exploit the best of a f2f class as well as the internet technology and can motivate students by bringing in authentic materials into the classroom. However, the success of blending involves selecting the technology compatible to the course taught.

2.2. The Syllabus and Learning Outcomes of the Technical Communication Course

The Syllabus of the Technical Communication course included writing *extended definitions, describing charts, comparing charts,* and *writing persuasive essays. T*he lesson on writing an Extended Definition was found perfectly suitable for introducing ICT tools. Writing is usually considered monotonous by students, so the introduction of new ICT tools was a welcome change for them as they were good at using computers and the internet. The following ICT tools were integrated to this lesson: Quizlet Quiz, WebQuest and Blog. The expected learning outcomes were:

a. Students should learn to write an extended definition of a technology/machine/simple electronic devices etc.
b. Students should learn to use the rhetoric they developed in the lower levels as tools to write an extended definition.
c. They should learn to use a teacher prepared WebQuest to collect information relevant to the writing task.
d. They should learn to post on blogs, to read and comment on posts of their classmates.

2.3. Quizlet Quiz

Quizlet is an online learning and testing tool that can easily be incorporated in ELT.

> Quizlet had started ten years ago (October 2005) when Andrew Sutherland created a tool to help him study for a high-school French vocabulary quiz. He aced the test, so his friends asked him if they could use the tool too. Quizlet has grown as a learning platform a lot since then (Quizlet in Education- Quizlet, 2011).

Ever since, it has grown to be a much sought after online learning resource for teachers and students. Teachers can upload pictures, diagrams, and maps, record audio messages or lectures and upload them, create many online classrooms at a time and get faster feedback from the site administrators in case of any issues. Using Quizlet, teachers can see how their students are studying and progressing. Therefore, Quizlet can be easily incorporated in any ICT-based lesson. Quizlet study and game models can be used in teaching vocabulary and for reinforcing the vocabulary by using flashcard multiple choice quizzes. Quizlet Flashcards can be created online, and the link can be posted on a Learning Management Program like Moodle, or it can be shared via e-mail or blog. In addition to the quizzes created by their teachers, students can access other quizzes created by millions of users around the world and learn from them. A student can access Flashcards simply by clicking on the provided link and do the Quiz online. They can see the result of the quiz immediately, and if they have not been successful in answering all the questions correctly, they can redo the quiz till they get all the answers correct. "Quizlet users have created over 140 million study sets, so you can often find what you need without creating it yourself. Quizlet features six individual study game modes!" (How Quizlet works-Quizlet, 2012) as shown in Table 1:

Table 1 *Quizlet Study and Game Models*

Quizlet study and game models	Description of the models
Flashcards	Flashcards recreates traditional flashcards virtually. You can also shuffle your cards,
Learn	Learn prompts as you type correct terms or definitions, track your right and wrong
Speller	The Speller uses Quizlet's automated audio system to read the content to you. Type
Test	Test formats your study set into a randomized practice test with up to four question
Scatter	Scatter is a race against the clock to match the terms with their definitions. The fastest time gets the trophy!
Gravity	Gravity presents you with terms crashing down as asteroids. Type the definition to

Note: This table is modelled on Andrew Sutherland's Quizlet study and Game models (Quizlet, 2012).

The Figure 1 is the screenshot of the Quizlet Quiz (Quizlet Flashcard Quiz, 2011) that was made as part of this ICT teaching experiment:

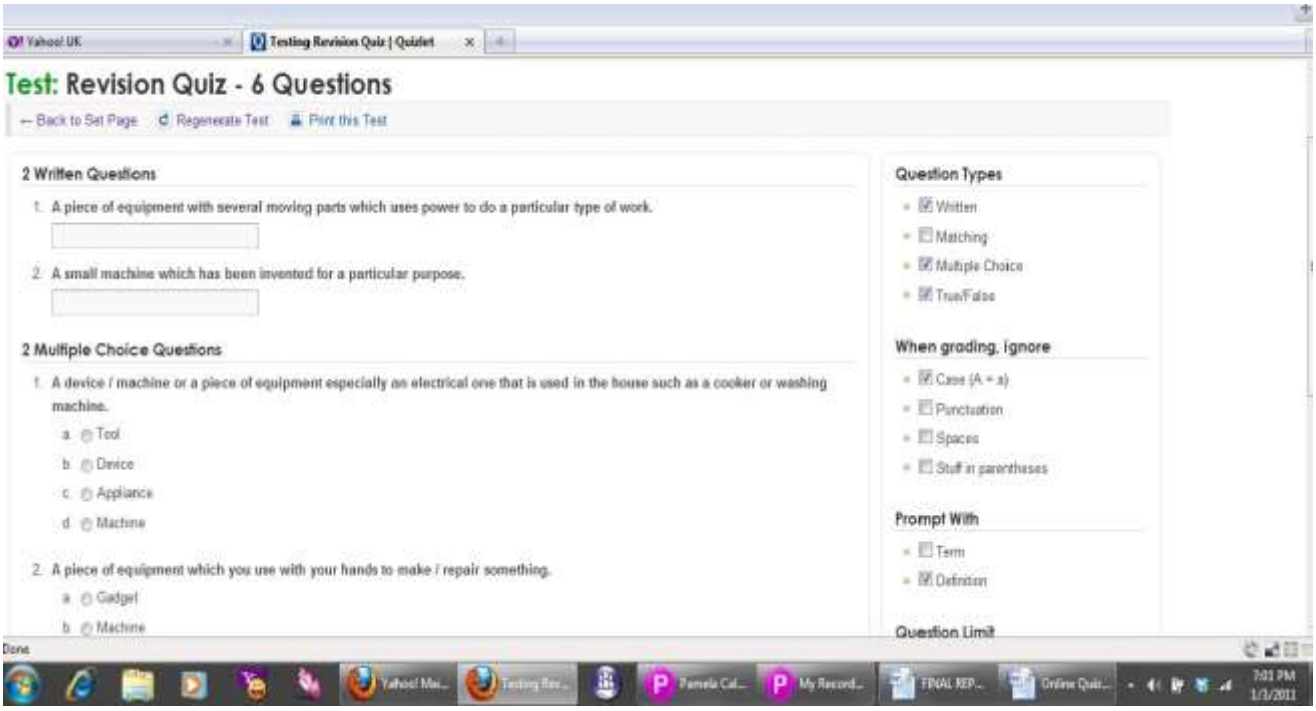


Figure 1 **Screen Shot – Quizlet Quiz**

2.4. WebQuest

Dr. Bernie Dodge, professor of Educational Technology at San Diego State University, developed the concept of WebQuest while teaching a class of teacher trainees in 1995. He wanted to give his student teachers a format for online lessons that would make the best use of their students' time and nurture their higher-order thinking skills at the same time. Dodge states that WebQuest is an easy and less time-consuming method of browsing and reaching relevant material. He claims that:

> The amount of information available to everyone will grow at an accelerating pace; much of it will come directly from a growing number of web sources without filtering or verification. What this means is that students will need to be able to grapple with ambiguity. They will need to commit themselves to a lifelong process of learning, honouring multiple perspectives and evaluating the information they lay their hands on before acting on it. Therefore, a teacher-prepared online tool can be very beneficial to students in saving their time and work efficiently on their lessons (WebQuests: Explanation, 2012).

WebQuest was developed as an inquiry-oriented online tool for learning. Using WebQuest, teachers can develop classroom-based activities, in which most or all of the

information that students need and use comes from the World Wide Web. The length of a WebQuest can be as short as a single class period or as long as a month-long unit. It can involve group work, with work distribution among students who take on specific roles to complete the task assigned in the lesson. A WebQuest is built around resources that are preselected and hyperlinked by teachers. As a result, students can spend their time in using information, not in looking for it and thereby saving a lot of time.

WebQuests can be used along with other educational technologies. WebQuests help in developing the skills of inquiry and constructivism. They can also incorporate cooperative and collaborative learning when students work on projects in groups. These concepts can play a constructive role in Teaching with WebQuests. In addition to these, "By using multimedia, WebQuests also help with the multiple intelligence works. Alternative kinds of assessment can be used to judge the results of WebQuest projects. And, WebQuests are one way to use the Internet in education (WebQuests: Explanation, 2012). WebQuests are tools; not educational theories, that is why we can use them virtually in any classroom with computer access.

There might be some concerns about using WebQuest like the amount of time involved in creating a WebQuest. However, we must remember that although it takes a lot of work and time, teachers won't have additional lesson plans to prepare while the students are working on the WebQuests and for a year from now the lessons will all be set. After a year, teachers may need to adjust their WebQuest a bit, but the second time it is much easier. Another important point teachers should remember is that WebQuest is a new way of learning for students, so they should design their WebQuests very well. "A good WebQuest should make students take information in and transform it using their judgement and creative problem-solving techniques" (WebQuests: Explanation, 2012). According to Dodge, there must be six essential components in a WebQuest to make it clear and doable for students. They are: Introduction, Task, Process, Resources, Evaluation, and Conclusion as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 ***Components of a WebQuest***

Components of a WebQuest	
1. Introduction	• It Provides background information and an overview of the learning goals to students. • It should make the activity desirable and fun for students by setting motivational scenarios.
2. Task	• The task is a formal description of what students should accomplish by the end of the WebQuest. • The task should be interesting and doable. First, the teacher should find resources for a particular topic on the Web and then devise an activity for the students incorporating the information from these resources.
3. Process	• It provides a clear description of the steps learners should go through in accomplishing the task, with relevant web links embedded in each step.
4. Resources	• It consists of a list of the resources that students will need to complete the task. This list can be given in a separate section, or the resources can be embedded within the process section to be accessed at the appropriate time

5. Evaluation	• It provides the rubric which will be used for evaluating students' works. The standards set should be fair, clear, consistent, and relevant to the tasks set.
6. Conclusion	• This step allows for reflection by students and summation by the teacher. Setting aside time for discussion of possible extensions and applications of the lesson honours the constructivist principle: "We learn by doing -- but we learn even better by talking about what we did." During the concluding section of a WebQuest, the teacher can encourage students to suggest ways of doing things better or different to improve the lesson.

Note: This table is modelled on the WebQuest formulated by Dodge (WebQuest, 2012).

Figure 2 is the WebQuest (WebQuest on Kindle, 2011) that was developed as part of the lesson on writing an extended definition on Amazon Kindle:

Web Quest on an Extended Definition

Web Quest Topic: Amazon Kindle

1. Introduction: Amazon Kindle (n.d.)

Amazon Kindle is a portable wireless reading device. It is a device used to read digital copies of books, newspapers, magazines, and blogs. The device uses a digital screen to show an image of a printed page. You can read more about it from **Wikipedia information on Kindle history.**

2. Task: Writing an Extended Definition on *Amazon Kindle*

- All the students in a group can get together outside class hours to pool the information collected and decide on what is to be used in an essay of 1000 words.
- After the discussion, each group must write an extended definition collectively and post it on the class blog Tec Comm 2011.

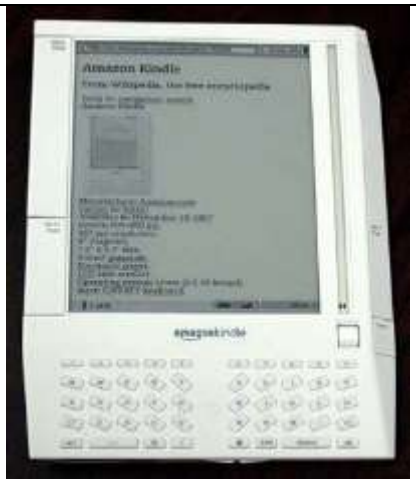
3. Process

Make a plan for your extended definition after reading the short introduction on Kindle. You can refer to the sample plan you prepared on HD TV in the class.

4. Resources

When the plan is ready, you can visit the following sites to collect relevant information. Click on these links to go to the sites:

a. Features and Types of Kindle (Top ten Kindle features, 2010).



b. Advantages and Disadvantages of Amazon Kindle (2009).
c. Look at the features of Kindle (Amazon Kindle, n.d.).
d. Kindle - the future of *book reading* (n.d)

5. Evaluation

You can evaluate your composition in 3 ways when you post it on the Blog:

1. Read other postings, compare yours with them and improve yours (Self-evaluation).
2. Request others to comment on your writing and learn your strengths and weaknesses (Peer- evaluation).
3. You can see teacher's comments about all the postings and understand the ratings (Teacher- evaluation). Rating points are: *Exemplary/Good/ Acceptable/Unacceptable.*

6. Conclusion

- The deadline for your posting is 26/02/2011.
- Do not copy, paste information from the sources. Present the information in your words.
- Record your experience in doing this WebQuest through e-mail

Figure 2 **WebQuest used in the class**

2.5. Blog

Social software like blog helps students and teachers to communicate and collaborate online. "A blog is essentially a web page with regular diary or journal entries". Blog is a short term for web log. It has certain features that help students to use it as a tool for language learning. Dudeney & Hockly, (2007, p.86) outline the features of a blog as follows:

- They can be set up and used by teachers/or learners.
- They can be used to connect to other communities of learners, for example to a class in another country.
- The ideas and contents can be generated and created, either individually or collaboratively.

A blog is generally created by one person who regularly posts "… comments, thoughts, analyses, experiences of daily life or any other form of content (that consists of) text, pictures, photos or audio and video" (2007, p. 87). The blog created for educational purposes is called Edu Blog. There are three kinds of Edu blogs that are: Tutor Blog, Student Blog and Class Blog. An Edu Blog can be created by a teacher, a learner or by a group of students or class.

In a Tutor Blog, a teacher can post lesson notes, assignments, supplementary materials, study tips, review class work and provide extra links that support and enhance learning. Moreover, learners can be asked to post their home works or assignments periodically, and the teacher can evaluate and post his comments about them.

The second kind is a Student Blog. In a blog created by a student, he/she can post personal details, additional writing exercises on lessons learned in the class, make regular comments on the current affairs, do research on a relevant topic and present fruitful information on it or post photos, audios and videos of learning interest.

The third type is a Class Blog. It can be either created by the tutor or a student leader or a group of students. This blog is used as a common platform of written communication among the class members. The shared topics can be of varied interests. For example, a discussion of a film, articles on specific topics, current affairs or class projects, etc.

An advantage of asking students to post their writings on a blog is that the quality of the work done by students will be much better than the regular assignments they do in the class. As Dudeney and Hockly (2007) rightly remark,

> learners tend to want their written work in a blog to be as accurate as possible, given that the blog is publicly accessible, and the teacher needs to be prepared to give learners plenty of time for writing, revising, and redrafting and checking postings before they are added to the blog (p.90).

Thus, tutors can encourage students to prepare their text on word processing programs like Microsoft office, review the work in progress (self or peer reviews), then copy and paste it

on the blog page to make their writing flawless. In this way, tutors can ensure quality in students' contributions.

Finally, students' posts can be interestingly evaluated as a part of the assessment or just to encourage them to write better and more. Teachers can create interesting criteria adding some new components to the traditional evaluation criteria used for marking paper-based writings. The tutor can give credits to " the visual nature of this electronic medium, such as the effective use of visuals, or visual presentation overall, and other areas like the length of postings and awareness of audience" (Dudeney& Hockly, 2007, p. 90) along with the credits for content, organization, grammar and mechanics. However, if tutors plan to evaluate students' works, they should familiarize students with the criteria beforehand. It will help to enhance the quality of students' contributions.

Figure 3 shows the screenshot of the class blog (Blogger.Teccomm2011, 2011).

Figure 3 **Screenshot of the class blog**

3. Reflections on the lesson

3.1. Planning the lesson

Planning an ICT-based lesson was a real challenge in the present context. It was a challenge because it involved selecting suitable ICT tools, blending the tools in the delivery of the current lesson and using them suitably to achieve the learning outcomes outlined in the course.

In the first place, delivering a content-based lesson to the students in the present context was a challenge by itself. The reasons were their limited general knowledge, limited vocabulary, and low level of proficiency in English language. Therefore, getting them to write an extended definition of machines, devices and technologies proved to be a difficult task. Even Higher Diploma level students had to be provided with required vocabulary, sentence patterns, sample compositions and also the content for their writing exercises. However, ICT tools helped

in providing these materials to students in an unconventionally easy and attractive way. Quizlet Quiz (Quizlet Flashcard Quiz, 2011) provided them with the required vocabulary, WebQuest (WebQuest on Kindle, 2011) made them collect information about the selected topics and class Blog (Blogger.Teccomm2011, 2011) encouraged collaborative learning by way of peer evaluation, comparing their composition, etc.

The immediate target outcome was to break the monotony of photocopies, pens and papers in the writing classroom by using innovative ICT tools. The intended long-term outcome was using ICT-based blended learning techniques to develop independent learning and to create awareness in students about the usefulness of technology in learning.

After enough brainstorming, a detailed step-by-step lesson plan was prepared, outlining all the activities of teachers and students inside and outside the class. The lesson involved the use of computers, internet, smart board and LCD projector. Hence, problems that might crop up during the lesson were thought of, and a plan B was prepared to overcome such problems. Alternate materials were prepared and the subsequent class was kept open for completing the lesson. In short, lot of reflection, research and homework had to be done during the planning stage.

3.2. Structure and Content of an Extended Definition Lesson

Table 3 ***Structure and Content of an Extended Definition Lesson***

Structure	Content
Introduction	a. A brief definition of the term/object (a formal sentence definition) b. Overview of the tools/rhetoric used in the body
Tool/Rhetoric 1 (Body paragraph 1)	a. Heading to state the tool being used b. Explain the term/object using the tool c. Provide supporting details and examples
Tool/Rhetoric 2 (Body paragraph 2)	a. Heading to state the tool being used b. Explain the term/object using the tool c. Provide supporting details and examples
Tool/Rhetoric 3 (Body paragraph 3)	a. Heading to state the tool being used b. Explain the term/object using the tool c. Provide supporting details and examples
Conclusion	a. Give opinion about the term/object defined b. Give pertinent suggestions

Note: The Extended Definition tools/rhetoric expected to be used by students were Definition, Description, Division and Classification, Process, Causes/Effects and Problem/Solution.

3.3. Lesson Plan

Table 4 shows the lesson plan that was prepared for the systematic delivery of the lesson in f2f classes. The procedure and the aims/learning outcomes of the lesson are discussed in detail.

Table 4 *Lesson Plan*

Stage	Procedure	Aim	Time
1.	**Review:** What is a definition? Three types of Definition and how the Extended Definition **(ED)** of Nano Technology was written (Instruct students to take the Quizlet Quiz before the deadline)	Students jog their memory + prepare themselves to write an Extended Definition **(ED)**	10 Minutes
2.	**Pair Work:** Students read the table and recollect the rhetoric they've learned before, which are going to be used as tools for ED. Students are asked to give some topics that they wrote while learning these rhetorics.	Students are made to understand that their previous knowledge used in writing ED. Example topics are asked for ensuring their understanding of the tools.	15 Minutes
3.	**Plan:** (pair work) Students are given the topic HD TV and are asked to brainstorm and make a plan for their ED on it. They refer to the model plan in the handout. Each pair is asked to say one of the tools chosen by them and Teacher writes the plan of the Extended Definition on the White Board.	Students brainstorm, choose, discuss and arrive at a common plan for the Extended Definition, which will help them to plan individually at a later stage.	20 Minutes
4.	Students read the ED essay on Greenhouse Effect.	Students understand how Extended Definition gives a clear insight into a topic.	15 Minutes
5.	Teacher issues Assignment topic (HW) – Write an ED on Kindle. Teacher displays the task description posted on Moodle and explains the steps, i.e. understanding the topic, planning the ED, collecting information, writing the ED, in a group and how to post it on class Blog. The teacher shows the hyperlink given in the home work description on Moodle and explains how they take them to the relevant sites quickly.	Students see the WebQuest and understand how to use it to collect information easily and quickly.	20 Minutes
6.	The teacher explains the process of pooling information, discussing in their groups and writing the ED, editing it and posting it in the class Blog.	Encourage students to use a class blog and use it as a discussion forum. Students understand the Blog as	

	The teacher explains the advantages of posting the ED on the Blog and demonstrates how comments can be written right below the post. Students get feedback on their work from peers (peer evaluation). Students get to read peer compositions and improve by comparing and contrasting with others postings (self-evaluation). Students can see teacher's feedback on all compositions (Teacher feedback)	an effective tool for collaborative learning and a place for showcasing their written compositions.	20 Minutes

3.4 Plan B: Anticipated problems and proposed solutions

a. Anticipated Problems

i. Slow speed of Internet making access difficult while teaching
ii. Power failure
iii. Equipment failure
iv. Students' inability in using ICT tools

b. Proposed Solutions

i. Use screenshots of the intended activities from the websites
ii. Use local server/e-learning portal on the college website for student activities
iii. Use photocopies of the required materials (handouts with screenshots of the WebQuest and Class Blog)
iv. Tutorials to assist / enable students to use ICT tools

4. Reflections on Teaching

4.1. The main lesson

Students found writing Extended Definition an interesting exercise as they were applying the writing tools they had learnt at lower levels. They were excited about using the ICT tools for completing their homework**.** Students were asked to complete the WebQuest and prepare an outline for the Extended Definition before the subsequent class.

4.2. The follow-up class

Six out of 26 students had not done the WebQuest while others had completed the WebQuest successfully, had collected the required information, and had even prepared an outline for their Extended Definition. The feedbacks on the completion of WebQest were collected from the intimation received from Moodle, intranet messenger. The moment a student accessed the WebQuest through the link uploaded on Moodle an automatic Moodle generated message was received by the tutor. From these messages, the tutor could find out the number of students who

had accessed the Webquest. From the messages, it was understood that one group could not access the WebQuest during the stipulated time. As shown in ***Figure 4,*** nineteen percentage of students i.e., (six out of 26) students could not access the WebQuest. Moreover, students shared their experiences of using the WebQuest in the oral feedback session conducted in the following f2f class.

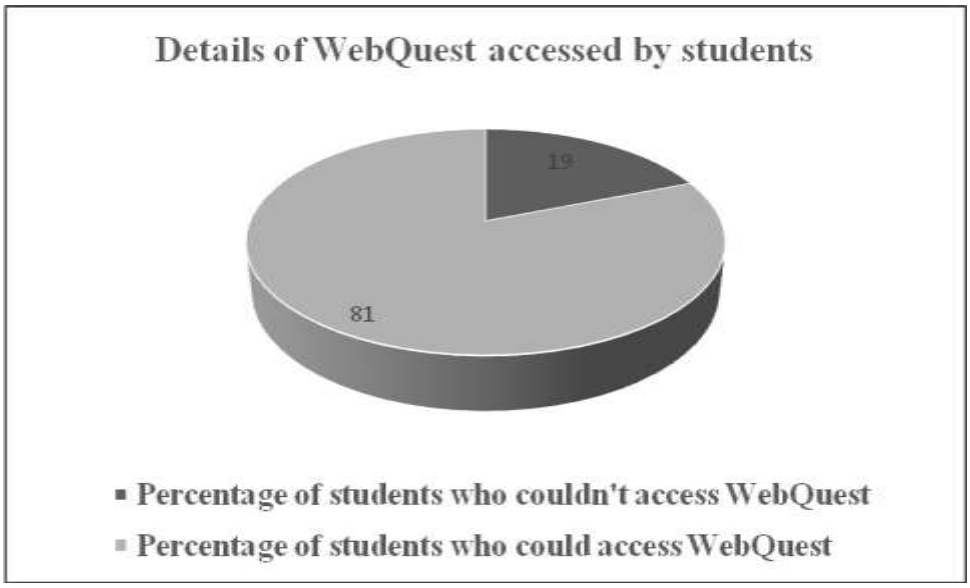


Figure 4 **Details of the WebQuest access by students**

Students' feedback on WebQuest was very positive from which it was gathered that they used to spend a lot of time searching for information, despite using search engines. They had to look into many sites before getting enough information, but the WebQuest task made their search easy with the hyperlinks leading to the appropriate specific information required for their writing task.

After checking the outlines and giving necessary guidelines to write the Extended Definition, the steps involved in Blog Postings were demonstrated. Unfortunately, the Class Blog Teccomm2011 (Blogger.Teccomm2011, 2011) could not be accessed due to the slow speed of the internet during the class. During the time of this experiment, the internet speed available was only 2MB, while the required speed was 4MB. Therefore, the internet speed became very slow when all the systems were booted simultaneously in the language lab. It made the use of intranet and Moodle difficult for the students and teachers. As there was no time to allow the delay, screenshots were used to explain the steps. It is a real issue that teachers have to consider while planning any internet-based activities especially in places across developing countries where high speed internet connectivity is not fully ensured.

Figure 5 and **Figure 6** are examples of screenshots used in the class to describe the process of making Blog postings (Blogger.Teccomm2011, 2011):

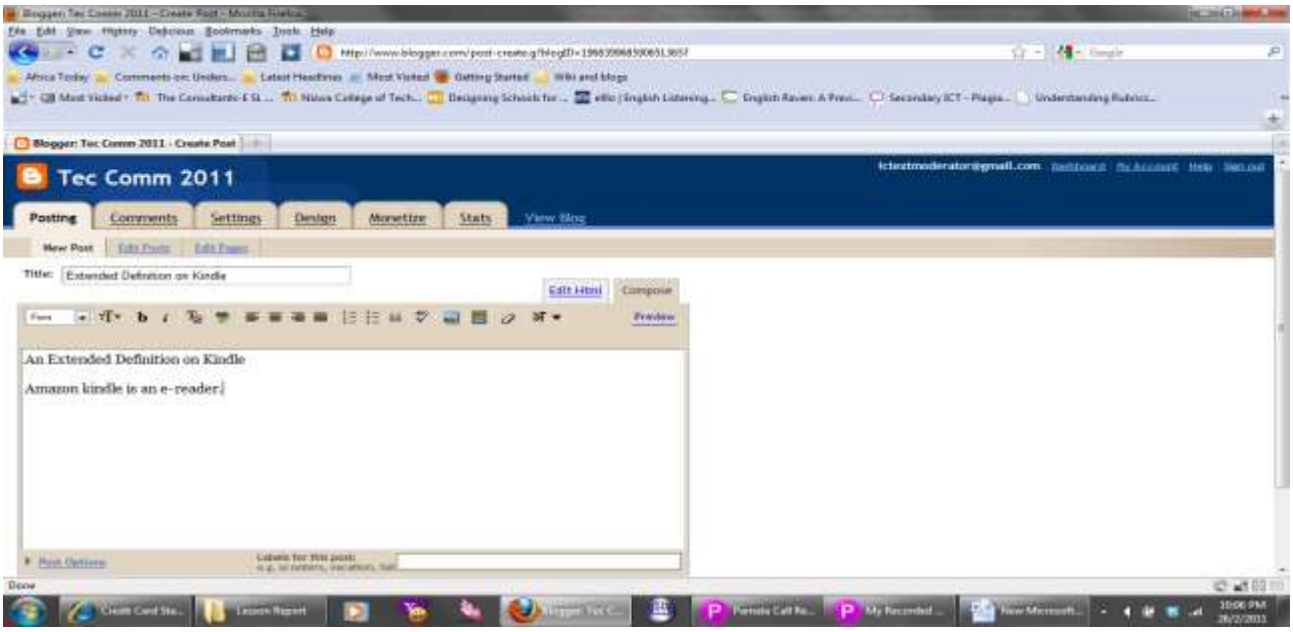


Figure 5 **Entering Written Text on the Blog**

Figure 6 **A Teacher's *posting* on the Blog**

5. Perceived Learner Experiences

It was evident that students' natural interest in browsing the internet could be fruitfully tapped for learning purposes. True to the words of Sharma & Barrett (2007), anything to do with the internet is a great attraction for students as they are digital natives i.e. they are born with the advantage of internet technology. Students were eager to use the ICT tools, and their enthusiasm and participation were very high compared to non-ICT lessons.

WebQuest helped students to complete the writing exercise within the stipulated time. It was evident from the oral feedback of students that they used to struggle to complete

assignments on time because they used to take a long time to identify relevant information on the internet and then to write an essay. They expressed happiness over WebQuest helping them do a quick and focused search. WebQuest equipped them with enough information to engage in group work and collaborative writing confidently both in the f2f class and outside as "A collaborative and co-operative writing process can help a group learn to work together and gain fresh insight into the topic from the process" (Clarke, 2008, p. 275).

The class blog became a good medium of communication among students. Many of the students, especially girls, who were shy to express their views and participate in discussions in mixed gender classrooms, wrote comments (sometimes without revealing their names) about their classmates' posts. They posted questions to clarify their doubts and also shared information and concerns about their courses on the blog. They benefited from the comments and suggestions of their peers. Peer evaluation inspired the less motivated students to write and to post their writings. Figure 7 shows the screenshot of the Extended Definition on Amazon Kindle written and posted by a group of students in the Class Blog (Blogger.Teccomm2011, 2011):

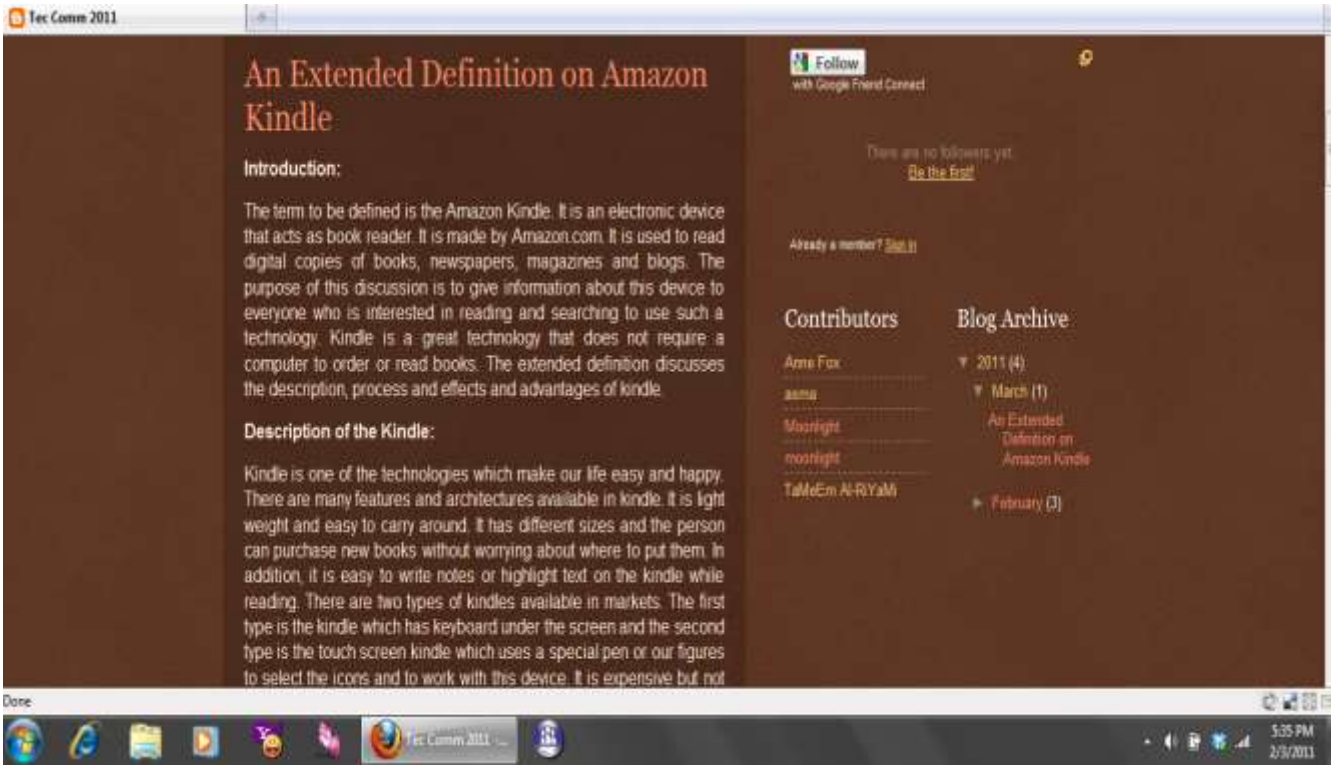


Figure 7: **Screenshot of a blog posting by students**

6. Overall Teacher Experience

ICT tools were successfully blended and used in teaching a Technical Communication lesson to Higher Diploma students at NCT. Moreover, these students were successfully introduced to such beneficial technologies. All the tasks designed for the class were completed successfully by four out of five groups, i.e. eighty percentages of students successfully used the ICT tools for learning. Even the other twenty percentages of students gave acceptable reasons

like not having internet access at home, the slow speed of internet at college language labs and self-access center for not being able to complete the task on time.

The experiment helped identifying and understanding the potentials of internet technology in avoiding monotony in teaching, ensuring better learner motivation and participation, and promoting shared/collaborative learning, etc. Hence, it was decided that the blog would be continued throughout the semester to understand its pros and cons thoroughly. Also, WebQuest was made an integral part of all the difficult, time-consuming assignments given to students that included research and literature review at the post-foundation level. Finally, it was understood that blending internet technology in an f2f class is more learner-centered and less teacher fronted and therefore more learning-oriented.

7. Practical suggestions for integration of ICT in ELT

Teachers should be provided with the required equipment, training, and technical support to encourage them to use the innumerable resources that are available through the internet technology. Creating awareness and providing training will encourage them to identify the relevant tools and integrate them into their teaching plan systematically.

Teachers should identify the ICT tools, which are directly helpful for the students in learning specific lessons, and they should introduce them as a part of the lesson as exemplified by the use of Quizlet Quiz, WebQuest, and Blog in this paper. Such practices will encourage students to use technology for learning. Once students start using these resources, they would further explore and learn to use them on regularly. Rewarding students for using such tools in different ways can also be encouraging and helpful.

Class blogs should be created, and students be enrolled at the very beginning of a semester (in the introductory week of the course) as an open forum. Doing this will encourage them to communicate with their classmates and slowly the communication could be steered towards collaborative learning.

Conclusion

As Clarke (2008) rightly remarks, learning has always involved the use of practical assignments in producing an intended learning outcome, and it has been found very effective; as also confirmed by the experiment shared in the present paper. In the backdrop of this concept, this paper shares and confirms Shaban's (2013) view that ICT-blended approach to teaching and learning enables students to enjoy immediate individual feedback, work independently as well as in groups, and gain a sense of accomplishment, which enhances their academic performance. Thus, if the new technology leads to better learning outcomes, then, to use Sharma & Barrett's (2007) view, this is a good thing for the teachers and learners (p. 132). As technology will continue to play a vital role in our lives, the future of teaching and learning process will be more exciting, productive and rewarding. On the strengths of its findings, this paper claims that integration of ICT and innovative experiments with blended learning could be fruitfully used as a good means of achieving intended learning outcomes and making teaching and learning more viable, relevant, learner-fronted, productive, interesting, and stimulating.

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Jordanian English Language Teachers' Use of the Teacher's Book

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to find out the extent of using the teacher's book by ninth grade teachers in their classroom teaching and to find out the reasons behind not or lack of using it. The results of this study could be beneficial for the Jordanian Ministry of Education as it may design extra pre-and in- service training programs on how to use the teacher's book properly. An observation checklist that was arranged under a number of dimensions, was designed by the researchers and used to observe 20 female and male ninth grade teachers while teaching Action Pack Nine material. The study used the descriptive design. More than 60 classroom periods were observed, three periods at least for each teacher and the forms were filled in with ticks and notes. The collected data were analyzed using proper statistical measures and conclusions were reached based on this analysis. Furthermore, the teachers were interviewed using a set of questions that focus on the reasons of not using or lack of using the teacher's book. Their responses were analyzed and common themes were drawn. The findings of the study revealed that EFL Jordanian teachers did not use the teacher's book effectively. The findings also revealed that long experience, lack of time, students' level and quality, the lack of training and the lack of classroom facilities were behind not or the lack of the use of the teacher's book. The study ended with a number of recommendations for further research.

Key words: EFL Jordanian ninth grade teachers, use of teacher's book

Introduction

The teacher's book (TB) or the teacher's guide (TG) is considered one of the most beneficial means which should be used by EFL teachers because it includes the outcomes which students have to achieve, the procedures and the steps that the teachers should follow in their classroom instruction, learning and assessment strategies, alternative assessment tools and a glossary of the textbook words. Moreover, it provides EFL teachers with a comprehensive plan to teach students based on the Communicative Language Teaching Approach(CLT). The teachers' books that accompany Action Pack series were designed and produced based on the General Framework for Curriculum and Assessment document (2003).

Jordan witnessed a wide education reform that began in 1988/1989 as a result of the first conference for development which was held in 1987. Such reform raised the Jordanian teachers' awareness of the strategies which may contribute to the improvement of the teaching and learning process and teacher training. In the process of putting such strategies into practice, teachers faced a number of difficulties such as the following: the school syllabus is crowded and it limits the creativity of teachers within the limited classroom time and the few number of the weekly periods devoted to the English language, lack of proper school resources such as the technological tools, and lack of training. In order to avoid these difficulties, the new plan of the education development came to emphasize two concepts: the central curriculum and outcomes (General Framework: Curriculum and Assessment, 2003).The ninth grade teacher's book was built based on the General Guidelines and General and Specific Outcomes for the English language (GG and GSO). This book includes instructional cognitive and metacognitive strategies , learning styles , assessment strategies, and the skills outcomes (Ministry of Education, 2003).

Cunngsworth and Kusel (1991) emphasize that a TB can contribute significantly to achieve a good standard of teaching and evaluating through providing teachers, especially the new ones, with information about teaching strategies and teaching assessment. Haddad(2006) points out that many tips can be found in the teacher's book concerning how to teach large classes, because teaching large classes is different from teaching small ones, which include: group exercises, cooperative learning, variety of teaching methods and assessments, when and how to use the proper feedback, how to build psycho- social environment, e.g. how to teach effectively. Northcott (2010) points out that the TB plays a significant role in guiding teachers to manage large classes especially when students are being asked to do certain activities through games and group work.

Kilbey (2010) believes that the TB presents significant details in implementing cooperative learning in groups. It also provides EFL teachers with techniques to improve critical thinking abilities through different activities such as brainstorming , opposite thinking and comparing and contrasting. Paris (2011) and Hancock (2014) assert that the TB should provide EFL teachers with learning strategies (cognitive, meta cognitive, socioaffective strategies) and learning styles (visual, auditory, kinaseathetic learners) .Thus those teachers will be able to get information on how learners learn with reference to the Student's Book. Johnson (2014) stresses that the TB should present alternative assessment which focuses on students' strengths, development, learning styles, language proficiencies, and cultural and educational backgrounds. She adds that alternative assessment includes a variety of measures that can be adapted for different situations

such as portfolios, strategic questioning, concept checking, student self-assessment, teacher feedback .

The significance of the teacher's book is signaled by many educationists and researchers (Greet, 2011; Hancock, 2014; Johnson, 2014; Kilbey, 2010; Nazari, 2011; Paris, 2011). They all believe that any teacher's book should provide teachers with detailed practical information on methodology and assessment to use proper learning and teaching strategies and techniques to teach the material, such as the language forms and functions and the various language skills. It also provides them with samples of tests and alternative assessment strategies. Furthermore, it includes answer keys and scripts of the recorded material. Suggestions to use technology in the classroom and to encourage students to work cooperatively inside and outside school should be stated in these books.

Practical studies on the use of the teacher's book by EFL Jordanian and other teachers are almost non existent in related literature, up to the knowledge of the researchers who looked into many sources such as ERIC, EPESCO, Internet and university library. So they tried to report a number of studies that have some relationship with the current topic of the study.

Bany (2006) investigates the congruence between the Jordanian English language teachers' belief system about English instruction and their classroom practices. An observation checklist and an open interview were used to collect data. Two samples were selected : the first one consisted of all the population who responded to the questionnaire and the second consisted of 26 male teachers and 25 female teachers with different years of experience. The findings revealed that there was no congruence between teachers' belief system and their classroom practices. Also, findings showed that years of experience and gender did not have any effect on the congruence between their beliefs and their classroom practices.

Al-Muqeid (2009) discusses the classroom management facing elementary schools in all Gaza governorates. Gender , academic qualifications and experience were the main variables. The sample of the study consisted of 457 teachers. A questionnaire was used to collect data. Frequencies, percentages ,standard deviations ,t –test and One –Way ANOVA were used to analyze data. The findings revealed that there were statistically significant differences between elementary school teachers related to school management due to educational qualification and years of experience. The findings also showed that there were statistically significant differences between male and female teachers concerning problems of classroom control at elementary schools in favor of male teachers.

Chere-Masopha (2011) examines the effect of teachers' professional identities on their practices with technology in secondary school classrooms in Lesotho. Teachers professional identity is viewed in three aspects: personal , situational and contextual. A survey and an interview were used to collect data. One hundred ninety five students teachers were surveyed and 14 of them were interviewed. The findings revealed that secondary teachers in Lesotho infrequently integrated technology in their classroom practices because of situational, personal, professional and contextual factors. The findings also showed that there were lack of knowledge about utilizing technology and absence of technology facilities.

Al-Shara'h, Abu Nabaah and Khzouz (2011) points out the Jordanian EFL teachers' perceptions of communicative language evaluation. The sample of the study consisted of 76 EFL teachers. An open questionnaire was used to collect data. The data was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings revealed that Jordanian EFL teachers' perceptions of communicative language evaluation were to some extent positive. The findings also showed that there were no statistically significant differences due to gender, experience or qualification.

Nezakatgoo (2011) observes the effect of using portfolios assessment on writing of EFL students. The sample of the study consisted of 40 university students who were divided randomly into two groups; one experimental and the other is control. The study adopted a quasi-experimental research design. A pretest and a posttest were applied on both groups .One – Way ANOVA and t- test were used to analyze data. The findings revealed that the students whose works were evaluated according to the portfolio system had improved and got higher scores in writing final examination when they were compared with those students whose works were evaluated according to the traditional evaluation system.

Ruland (2011) discusses the effect of using formative assessment attributes in daily instruction on students. The sample of the study consisted of 337 students. A pretest and a posttest were used to collect data .The researcher used a quasi- experimental design. The data was analyzed quantitatively. The findings showed that there was a strong statistically significant correlation between the affect variables and the formative assessment attributes.

Alnageeb (2012) investigates the Yameni EFL teachers approaches to the teaching of English and their classroom practices. The participants of the study consisted of forty EFL teachers in Laboos Secondary Schools. A questionnaire, an observation checklist and an interview were used to collect data. The results revealed that the grammar translation approach is dominant in theory and practice and the absence of the communicative approach in the teachers' classroom practice.

Wong and Marlys (2012) reveals the second language teachers' perceptions and classroom implementations of grammar instruction with regard to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Participants were six teachers who teach Spanish as L2. Observations and interviews were used to collect data. The findings showed that there was a mixture of perceptions regarding using the grammar instruction in CLT classroom. The findings also revealed that teachers were influenced by their experience as learners as well as their observation of students learning.

Khurshid and Ansari (2012) examines the effects of innovative teaching strategies on students' performance of grade 1. The sample of the study consisted of 50 male and female students from the English medium school in Islamabad. Two groups were chosen . One for the experimental group and one for the control group. A pre- post -test was used to collect data. The experimental group was taught by a teacher who used innovative teaching techniques whereas the control group was taught according to the traditional method. Means and standard deviation were used to analyze data. The findings revealed that the experimental group who was taught according to the innovative teaching strategies scored significantly higher than the control group who was taught according the traditional method. Al-Burji (2013) investigated the extent of using modern teaching methods which are comprised in the Seventh Grade Science Textbooks

Manual in Yemen. The sample of the study was selected randomly and included 30 teachers. The researcher used observation card and a questionnaire to identify challenges facing teachers to apply recent teaching methods. The results showed that applying discussion method and map method were low. It also showed that inquiry method was not used at all. In addition, the results revealed that teachers faced some difficulties using modern methods of teaching which are related to curriculum, teacher and education environment.

One can conclude from this introduction that teachers' books are needed by all teacher regardless of their qualifications and teaching experiences, but teachers should be trained to use them. The studies reported in this paper implicitly show that to teach effectively, teachers have to use their teachers' books to teach the syllabus(Bany,2006), to manage well their classrooms (Al-Muqeid, 2009), to utilize technology properly (Chere-Masopha, 2011), to use efficient teaching / learning strategies (Al- Shara'a et.al, 2011; Al-Nageeb, 2012), and to use proper assessment procedures(Nezagatgoo & Ruland, 2011).

Problem of the study

The researchers noticed that some teachers use, some claim they use and some do not use the teacher's book in their teaching practices; some of them depend on their experiences in writing the outcomes to be achieved and the procedures they follow in presenting the textbook material. Although some teachers are novice, they do not use the TB even when they are trained to do so. The researchers also believe that there is a gap between the theoretical knowledge which EFL teachers have and their teaching practices. A number of researchers found that many teachers do not use proper teaching methodology in their classrooms although teachers' books are at their disposal and easy to access (e.g. Alnageeb, 2012; Al-Burji, 2013). So this study comes to reveal the extent of the EFL Jordanian use of the teacher's book in their actual classroom teaching and the reasons behind not or the lack of using it.

Significance of the study

Since a number of researchers and educationists emphasize the importance of the teacher's book , the results of this study could be beneficial for the Jordanian Ministry of Education as it may design extra pre-and in- service training programs on how to use the teacher's book properly. In addition, curriculum designers may take the pedagogical implications of this study into consideration when publishing the teacher's book again. Furthermore, EFL teachers may be encouraged to use the teacher's book when its relationship to effective teaching is presented. Finally, EFL supervisors may get practical knowledge about teachers' classroom practices since the findings of the study provide them with feedback on the extent of using the teacher's book and then may design training courses on using it properly in the classroom.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the extent of the use of the teacher's book by EFL Jordanian teachers and to find out the reasons behind not or the lack of using it.

Questions of the study

This study addressed these questions:

1. To what extent is the teacher's book used by Jordanian EFL ninth grade teachers in their teaching practices?
2. What are the reasons behind not or lack of using the teacher's book?

Methods and procedures

Participants of the study

The participants of the study were 20 EFL female and male ninth grade teachers of public schools selected purposefully from Ain- Al-Basha Directorate of Education. They were divided equally according to their gender.

Table 1: ***The Distribution of the Participants of the Study according to their Gender, Experiences, Qualifications and Training***

Independent Variable	Levels	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	10	50.0
	Female	10	50.0
	Total	**20**	**100.0**
Teaching Experience	From 1 to 5 years	9	45.0
	From 6 to 10 years	3	15.0
	From 11 to 15 years	4	20.0
	From 16 to 20 years	1	5.0
	From 20 and above	3	15.0
	Total	**20**	**100.0**
Academic Qualifications	College Diploma	1	5.0
	B.A. in English Language and Literature	17	85.0
	Diploma in Education (After B.A.)	2	10.0
	Total	**20**	**100.0**
Training	No	9	45.0
	Yes	11	55.0
	Total	**20**	**100.0**

Instruments, data collection and data analysis

An observation checklist was designed by the researchers consisting of 87 items divided into eight dimensions. All the items were taken from the ninth grade teacher's book. In addition, an open interview was used to collect specific data on the benefits of using the teacher's book and the reasons behind not or the lack of using it in their classroom teaching. The instruments were validated by a jury of professors and supervisors. There were no significant suggestions concerning their content except that they suggested to have only two open questions in the interview. The reliability correlation coefficient was 0.91which is considered high for both instruments.

The researchers attended three to five periods for each teacher to fill in the observation checklist then after analyzing it, the same teachers were interviewed and their responses were recorded then transcribed and analyzed to get common themes. The data were collected through the first semester 2015/ 2016. Data were analyzed and means and standard deviations were

calculated. The interviews were analyzed qualitatively. The statistical proportional scale model was used to judge the means of the first instrument and its dimensions in the following manner:

Table 2: ***Means Category and Actual Use Degree***

Means category	Actual use degree
From 3.00- 4.00	High
From 2.00-2.99	Moderate
From1.00-1.99	Low

Results of the study

To answer the first question of the study , means and standard deviations of the teacher's use of the teachers' book are calculated. Table 3 presents the results.

Table 3: ***Means and Standard Deviations of the Dimensions of the the Teachers' Use of the Teacher's Book***

Rank	Dimension ID	Actual Use	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	7	*Classroom management*	2.57	0.27	Moderate
2	5	*Structures*	2.53	0.31	Moderate
3	6	*Vocabulary*	2.45	0.44	Moderate
4	3	*Reading*	2.38	0.45	Moderate
5	2	*Speaking*	2.35	0.29	Moderate
6	4	*Writing*	2.32	0.30	Moderate
7	1	*Listening*	2.31	0.34	Moderate
8	8	*Evaluation*	1.71	0.29	Low
Over Whole			2.34	0.20	Moderate

Table 3 shows that the over whole degree of the teachers' use of the TB was moderate according to the criteria which was mentioned before. Seven dimensions got a moderate degree while the last got a low degree. For deeper look into the teacher's use of the teacher's book, each dimension was further analyzed.

Means and standard deviations for the items of the actual use of the listening skill were calculated; the results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: ***Means and Standard Deviations of the Teachers' Use of the Teacher's Book When Teaching the Listening Skill***

Rank	Item ID	Listening	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	3	*play the first recording while my students listen*	2.95	0.69	Moderate
2	1	*prepare the listening material, before the lesson*	2.70	0.86	Moderate
3	2	*make sure students understand what they have to do before I play the cassette*	2.70	0.66	Moderate
4	7	*ask students to identify unfamiliar words*	2.55	0.76	Moderate
5	10	*ask students to fill the gaps then I check their answers*	2.50	0.61	Moderate

6	4	*play the second recording asking students to guess the meaning of new words*	2.25	0.79	Moderate
7	9	*ask students to comment orally on the listening material*	1.95	0.69	Low
8	8	*ask students to write short notes of the listening material*	1.90	0.64	Low
9	6	*play the recording for the third time to make open discussion and check their answers*	1.80	0.70	Low
10	5	*ask students to work in pairs or small groups to compare their guesses before checking a dictionary*	1.80	0.89	Low
		Over Whole	2.31	0.34	Moderate

Table 4 shows that the over whole degree of the use of the teacher's book when teaching listening skill was moderate. The items with ranks from 1 to 6 were moderate and the items with ranks from 6 to 10 were low.

Means and standard deviations of the teachers' actual use of the items when teaching speaking were calculated; the results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: ***Means and Standard Deviations of the Teachers' Use of the Teacher's Book When Teaching Speaking Skill***

Rank	Item ID	Speaking	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	11	*explain the activity to students*	3.05	0.51	High
2	16	*ask students not to interrupt the speaker until he finishes his idea*	2.75	0.64	Moderate
3	17	*ask students to do the activities using formal English*	2.50	0.69	Moderate
4	19	*encourage students to use eye contact when presenting their point of view to interact effectively*	2.45	0.69	Moderate
5	13	*ask students to engage in discussion to exchange ideas*	2.40	0.75	Moderate
6	12	*ask students to work in pairs and groups to have a debate based on certain statements*	2.30	0.66	Moderate
7	20	*correct mistakes when they are occurring repeatedly at the end of the discussion*	2.20	0.77	Moderate
8	18	*ask students to practice their English language in the context of social life*	2.10	0.55	Moderate
9	14	*ask students to work in groups to*	2.00	0.65	Moderate

Rank	Item ID	Speaking	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
		organize and classify data in tables then to comment on them			
10	15	*ask students to work in groups to give their opinions about in the 22nd century*	1.75	0.79	Low
		Over Whole	2.35	0.67	Moderate

Table 5 shows that the over whole degree of the teachers' use of the teacher's book when teaching speaking was moderate. The items with ranks from 2 to 9 were moderate while the item with rank 10 was low.

Means and standard deviations of the teachers' actual use of the of the teacher's book when teaching the reading skill were calculated; the results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: ***Means and Standard Deviations of the Teachers' Use of the Teacher's Book When Teaching the Reading Skill***

Rank	Item ID	Reading	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	23	*ask students about the title and what it means*	3.30	0.66	High
2	26	*ask students to skim the reading text*	2.85	0.75	Moderate
3	21	*ask pre- reading questions written in the text*	2.80	0.83	Moderate
4	24	*ask students to give the meaning of new vocabulary using printed or electronic dictionaries*	2.75	0.79	Moderate
5	22	*ask students to read and match each conversation to a picture then to describe it*	2.70	0.73	Moderate
6	27	*write a number of questions on the board then ask students to scan the reading text to find their answers*	2.55	0.76	Moderate
7	25	*ask students to read the lesson silently within a fixed time*	2.55	0.94	Moderate
8	32	*ask students to do research on the internet to find more information about the text*	2.05	0.51	Moderate
9	28	*ask students to work in small groups to share their opinions about specific information in the text*	1.85	0.93	Low
10	29	*ask students to analyze the text to answer a number of more difficult questions which are written on the board such as define and argue*	1.85	0.81	Low
11	30	*ask students to summarize the text at the*	1.65	0.67	Low

		end of the lesson			
12	31	*encourage students to give their point of view of the reading text concerning the author's attitude*	1.60	0.68	Low

0.45 Moderate 2.38 Over Whole

Table 6 shows that the over whole degree of the use of the teacher's book when teaching reading was moderate. Items with rank 1was high. The items with ranks from 2 to 8 were moderate while the items with ranks from 9 to 12 were low. Means and standard deviations of the teachers' actual use of the teacher's book when teaching writing are calculated. The results are presented in Table7.

Table 7: ***Means and Standard Deviations of the Teachers' Use of the Teacher's Book When Teaching Writing Skill***

Rank	Item ID	Writing	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	33	*tell students what they are going to write about*	3.15	0.49	High
2	38	*ask students to write logically and clearly*	3.00	0.65	High
3	41	*give students enough time to write*	2.90	0.79	Moderate
4	43	*ask students to finish writing the activity with a fixed time*	2.80	0.52	Moderate
5	37	*provide students with clear writing rules such as dividing the topic into paragraphs and using suitable linking words*	2.55	0.69	Moderate
6	39	*ask students to follow the plan suggested in the textbook*	2.30	0.66	Moderate
7	36	*ask students to follow the stages in writing strategies box to complete the activity*	2.30	0.57	Moderate
8	34	*write some writing strategies on the board such as writing using formal English and to be clear and logical and discussing them with students before writing*	2.15	0.49	Moderate
9	40	*ask students to write their opinion about their future plan*	2.10	0.45	Moderate
10	35	*ask students to work in pairs or groups to give the main ideas of the topic and write them on the board*	1.85	0.99	Low
11	42	*ask students to exchange their drafts with their partners and comment on them*	1.50	0.69	Low
12	44	*ask students to complete the writing*	1.25	0.44	Low

assessment tool			
Over Whole	2.32	0.30	Moderate

Table 7 shows that the over whole degree of the teachers' actual use of the teacher's book when teaching writing was moderate. The items with ranks from1 to 2 got a high degree while the items with ranks from 3 to 9 were of a moderate degree. The items with ranks 10, 11 and 12 were of a low degree.

Means and standard deviations of the teachers' actual use of the teacher's book when teaching structures were calculated; the results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: ***Means and Standard Deviations of the Teachers' Use of the Teacher's Book When Teaching Structures***

Rank	Item ID	Structures	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	52	*ask students to do some exercises based on the rules explained*	3.30	0.47	High
2	46	*explain the structures and write examples on the board*	3.30	0.57	High
3	47	*use more than one strategy to explain the structure*	2.85	0.67	Moderate
4	51	*ask students to ask and answer questions about certain structure, e.g. relative clauses*	2.70	0.66	Moderate
5	45	*attract students' attention to the grammar target box*	2.65	0.93	Moderate
6	50	*gently ask students to correct their classmates ' mistakes*	2.30	0.73	Moderate
7	48	*write some examples on the board then I ask students to infer the rules governing the structure*	2.25	0.64	Moderate
8	53	*ask students to compare their answers with the grammar box*	2.25	0.55	Moderate
9	55	*make sure the students understand what they will have to do before set the exercise as homework*	2.20	0.70	Moderate
10	49	*ask students to read the instructions to complete the activity with a partner*	2.10	0.72	Moderate
11	54	*ask students to discuss the correct usage of structures in pairs*	1.90	1.07	Low
		Over Whole	2.35	0.31	Moderate

Table 8 shows that the over whole degree of the teachers' use of the teacher's book when teaching structure was moderate. The items with ranks from 1 and 2 got a high degree while the items with ranks from 3 to10 were moderate. The last item got a low degree.

Means and standard deviations of teachers' actual use of the teacher's book when teaching vocabulary were also calculated; the results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: ***Means and Standard Deviations of the Teachers' Use of the teacher's Book When Teaching Vocabulary***

Rank	Item ID	Vocabulary	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	56	*ask students to guess the meaning of new words*	3.25	0.44	High
2	59	*sometimes ask students to match new vocabulary with the pictures*	2.75	0.64	Moderate
3	60	*ask students to find the active words in the text and guess their meanings*	2.55	0.76	Moderate
4	58	*ask students to write the new words/ phrases and their meaning in their notebooks*	2.45	1.05	Moderate
5	57	*use visual aids, drawing, acting to explain new lexical items*	1.90	0.72	Low
6	61	*ask students to double check their responses in pairs before using a dictionary*	1.80	0.77	Low
Moderate			0.44	2.45	Over Whole

Table 9 shows that the over whole degree of the teachers' use of the teacher's book when teaching vocabulary was moderate. The item with the first rank got a high degree while the items with ranks from 2 to 4 got a moderate degree; items with ranks 5 and 6 were of a low degree.

Means and standard deviations of the teachers' actual use of the items of classroom management were calculated; the results are presented in Table ten.

Table 10: ***Means and Standard Deviations of the Teachers' Use of the Teacher's Book Concerning Classroom Management***

Rank	Item ID	Classroom management	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	73	*promote humanistic relation in the classroom*	3.70	0.47	High
2	68	*establish a good rapport with students*	3.40	0.68	High
3	65	*help students to respect each other*	3.25	0.55	High
4	76	*give praise to students for good work and effort*	3.20	0.70	High
5	69	*know my students' names*	3.10	0.91	High
6	75	*make eye contact with students*	2.95	0.83	Moderate

7	77	*respond positively to students' errors*	2.90	0.72	Moderate
8	74	*respond positively to students' behaviors*	2.80	0.41	Moderate
9	66	*encourage students to be objective when giving their opinions*	2.65	0.49	Moderate
10	67	*give clear instructions*	2.60	0.82	Moderate
11	72	*take individual differences into consideration*	2.05	0.76	Moderate
12	62	*assign locations in the classroom for students to pick up extra work and missed assignments*	1.85	0.93	Low
13	70	*manage classroom activities in pairs*	1.85	0.81	Low
14	63	*keep record of students' attendance, task and achievements*	1.75	0.79	Low
15	64	*guide students to share learning experiences in group work*	1.55	0.51	Low
16	71	*manage classroom activities in groups*	1.45	0.69	Low
Moderate	0.27	2.57	Over Whole		

Table 10 shows that the over whole degree of the teachers' actual use of the teacher's book concerning classroom management was moderate. Items with ranks from 1 to 5 were of a high degree while the items with ranks from 6 to11 were of a moderate degree; items with ranks from 12 to 16 were of a low degree.

Finally, means and standard deviations of the teachers' actual use of the teacher's book concerning evaluation were calculated. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11: *Means and Standard of the Teachers' Actual Use of Evaluation*

Rank	Item ID	Evaluation	Mean	Std. Dev.	Degree
1	82	*check students' written work*	2.75	0.91	Moderate
2	80	*use ongoing assessment*	1.85	0.67	Low
3	81	*use the assessment tools to evaluate students' achievements*	1.80	0.70	Low
4	86	*use formative assessment*	1.80	0.52	Low
5	84	*use the progress chart*	1.75	0.64	Low
6	83	*ask students to complete the assessment tool*	1.65	0.49	Low
7	79	*encourage self- assessment*	1.65	0.59	Low
8	85	*use the assessment records during the teaching situations*	1.40	0.75	Low
9	78	*use appropriate assessment strategies such as peer assessment*	1.35	0.49	Low
10	87	*encourage students to use portfolios*	1.10	0.31	Low
Low		Over Whole	1.71	0.29	

Table 11 shows that the over whole of the teachers' actual use of the teacher's book concerning evaluation was low. The item with rank 1 was of a high degree while the items with ranks from 2 to 10 got a low degree.

To answer the second question, common themes were elicited from the answers to the open questions of the interview; they are the following:

A. The benefits of the teacher's book

1. Most teachers asserted that the teacher's book provides them with the outcomes for each unit and each module. For example, teacher number one stated " the teachers book provides me with the outcomes of the each unit and each module."

2. Most teachers reported that the teacher's book provides them with the instructional and assessment strategies. For example, teacher number three said" I can find many instructional strategies in the TB which help me in executing the outcomes of the lesson."

3. Most teachers reported that the TB provides the audio scripts of the listening material. For example, teachers number seven reported " the teacher's book is very useful because it provides me with the audio scripts which I can make use of when there is no electricity to implement the listening exercises."

4. Some teachers stated that the TB presents tips of how to better manage classrooms. For example teacher number 13 said " I can find many tips in the TB which help me to manage well my classes and make a good relationship with my students."

5. Most teachers asserted that the teacher's book helps them in preparing and planning their daily lessons. For example, teacher number 17 reported " The TB provides me with steps on how I prepare and plan my daily lessons."

6. Most teachers reported that it includes word list and dictionary work. For example, teacher number 19 said " I can find a word list in the TB which helps me and my students in explaining and understanding the reading texts."

7. Most teachers confessed that it provides them with the key answer of the Student's Book and the Activity Book. For example, teacher number 20 stated " the key answer of the Activity Book and the Student's book are available in the TB which saves time."

8. Many teachers asserted that the TB provides them with extra activities. For example, teacher number six stated " the TB provides me with extra activities which help my students to read and practice the English language."

9. Some teachers reported that the TB presents different learning styles which they can make use of in teaching. For example, teacher number nine reported" the TB presents some information about learning styles which helps me in preparing different activities which matches each student.

B. The difficulties /the reasons behind not or lack of using the teacher's book

1. Some teachers stated that they have a long experience which makes them avoid using the teacher's book. For example, teacher number three said " Frankly speaking, I have a long experience so I do not depend on the TB in my teaching practices."

2. Some teachers reported that they were not trained on how to use the TB effectively. For example, teacher number seven said" I have been working as a teacher for two years and I was not trained on how to use the TB properly."

3. Some teachers asserted that the procedures in the teacher's book need more time to be executed in the classroom. For example, teacher number 11 stated " the instructions in the TB need enough time to be implemented because some of the them are of a high level and my students are of a low level."

4. Some teachers reported that time is not enough to read and apply every instruction in the TB. For example, teacher number 16 reported " In fact, sometimes I did not find enough time to read and apply the instructions in the TB because of the high load of periods."

5. Eight teachers stated that students' low proficiency hinder the use of the instructions in the TB. For example, teacher number eight stated " some instructions in the TB need high thinking skills which do not suit my students' low proficiency."

6. Some teachers reported that classroom environment and facilities hinder the teacher's book use. For example, teacher number 17 said " I have large classes with poor classroom facilities which do not help me in using group work."

7. Some teachers stated that the number of students and the size of the classroom make it difficult to use the teacher's book effectively. For example, teacher number six reported " I have only five students in the classroom so I find it difficult to implement all the instructions in the TB such as pair work and group work."

Discussion of the findings

The findings of the study revealed that the degree of the Jordanian EFL teachers' use of the teacher's book is moderate which could be attributed to the long experience which some teachers have and which is repeated without benefiting from the TB, the instructions in the teacher's book which need more time to be executed, the students' low proficiency level and which hinder teachers to apply every thing in the TB; so higher thinking skills such as synthesis, analysis and evaluation are difficult to develop. Furthermore, the researchers noticed that some classroom facilities and environment were not proper to implement the instructions and strategies in the teacher's book such as group work and role play. In addition, most teachers lack of training in using the teacher's book properly, especially in crowded classrooms with low proficient students. The results of the study agree generally with those of Greet (2011), Hancock (2014), Johnson (2014), Kilbey (2010), Nazari (2011) and Paris (2011).

Conclusion

The findings of the study warrant the following conclusions:

1. Some teachers still follow the traditional methods of teaching because they are easy to use and avoid implementing the teacher's book instructions since they need preparation and time to execute.

2. After interviewing the teachers, they stated different reasons behind not or the lack of the using the teacher's book. These reasons are mostly the same ones which the researchers observed such as students' low proficiency, poor classroom facilities, using traditional methods of teaching, lack of training and time needed to implement the teacher's book procedures.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that EFL teachers are advised to attend all the workshops and the training courses concerning the use of the teacher's book. Teachers are also recommended to prepare their daily lesson plans based on the teacher's book and not on their experiences; long experienced teachers as well as new teachers should use the teacher's book effectively because it is clear from their daily classroom practices that their teaching is not proper and effective. So supervisors should watch carefully all teachers' classroom practices when they visit them and advise them accordingly.

The Ministry of Education should design training programs to train teachers to use the teacher's book effectively. Such courses should include received and experiential knowledge on the use of the teacher's book. Supervisors should also participate in these courses since they have the responsibility to visit and advise their teachers to teach effectively.

Further research studies on the same topic are needed which cover other variables such as trained and non -trained teachers and female and male teachers of other grades and in other directorates of education, larger samples of teachers are also needed with more class periods to observe for each teacher.

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Place of Linguistics in English Language Teaching

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Abstract
The aim of this paper is to indicate place of linguistics in English language teaching. This paper investigates how knowledge of linguistics can help to English language teaching in ELT classrooms. Linguistics always plays a vital role in studying language in general and English language in particular in ELT settings. Linguistics shares with human language, even attribute to other sciences can help us to understand our language. Linguistics has been concerned with language. Linguistics can be defined as the study of language. However, linguistics and language are closely intertwined, so discussion of one necessarily involves the other. Linguists, on the other hand, have long been aware of the fact that people learn and use languages. This paper focuses specially on language teaching and discusses the relation between linguistics and English language teaching.
Key Words: language teaching, English language, linguistics, English language teaching**,** competence and performance

Introduction

The present paper intends to study the highlight relationship between linguistics and English language teaching. Before, inquiring the relationship between linguistics and English language teaching in this article. We discuss briefly language teaching in language classrooms. The role of language teaching in language classrooms should be used based on written and oral language for a wide range of purposes. One of this models can be used in order to help language learners to use their target language is "fluency –based model of language teaching". According to Brumfit's fluency –based model of language teaching, the goal is stated such as: to enable learners to use the target language they have acquired for any purposes they wish, and to be able to extend as far as they wish (constrained by the time limits of the course). (Brumfit, 1984; p. 123). Richards et al (1992) argue that in second or foreign language teaching, fluency describes a level of proficiency in communication, which includes: 1) the ability to produce written or spoken language with ease; 2) the ability to speak with a good but not necessarily perfect command of intonation, vocabulary, and grammar; 3) the ability to communicate ideas effectively; 4) the ability to produce continues speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a breakdown of communication. Another models of language teaching is error analysis have been appeared as hypothesis in language teaching in recent years. A number of researchers such as Adjemian 1976; Corder 1967;Nemser 1971; Selinker 1972, in the late 1960s and early 1970s, point out that the language of second language learners is systematic and that learner errors are not random mistakes but evidence of rule-governed behavior (Khansir 2012a). Corder (1967) claims that the information arrived at through error analysis could be useful to textbook writers, teachers and learners. Analysis of grammatical errors offered significant insight into the nature of difficulties in writing faced by second language learners (cited in Khansir, 2008; p.2). Khansir (2012a) argues that Learner's errors are seen as an integral part of language learning which is used in teaching grammar, linguistics, psychology etc. another model of language learning which we briefly mention is accuracy. Richards et al (1992) mention accuracy refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences but may not include the ability to speak or write fluency. Last item in language teaching is communicative competence. Communicative competence is coined by Hymes (1971) as reaction to Chomsky's competence theory (1965) formed the basis of discourse analysis. It incorporates all the features like pragmatic and socio-cultural implications, speech acts and speech events, register etc. It aims at developing the communicative competence in learners along with the grammatical competence and not merely the grammatical competence (Khansir, 2012b). According to Hymes (1971) the theory of communicative competence is in terms of these four factors: 1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible – this corresponds to the familiar notion of grammatically. 2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible – This refers to psycho-linguistic factors like memory limitation, embedding etc. 3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate – this refers to the relation between language and context. 4. Whether (and to what degree) something is done. This refers to the actuality of occurrence of a linguistic utterance. In addition, communicative competence is basically having the capability to use language in a speech community. Canale and Swain (1980) classify communicative competence into grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, which they soon divided into sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (cited in Khansir, 2012b). According to this discussion, Canale and Swain (1980) indicate strategic competence as one of the four components of communicative competence. Strategic competence is a part of linguistic competence (Bachman, 1990). However, it is used as an integral part of language

learning. Thus, these models of language learning have been used in order to resolve learners' problems in learning language learning.

Before inquiring directly language in this paper, let us investigate place of grammar in English language briefly. Radford (1998) says that grammar is traditionally subdivided into two different but inter-related areas of study- morphology and syntax. Morphology is the study of how words are formed out of smaller units (traditionally called morphemes). Whereas syntax is concerned with the ways in which words can be combined together to form phrases and sentences. Khansir and Pakdel (2016,) mentions that "grammar is primarily concerned with the study of language. It explains to us the difficulties and problems involved in learning a language and it guides us to how language is effectively used in our day-to-day life" (p.140).. They add that "grammar tells us how words are formed and why they are classified into various categories. It also instructs us how words are combined and grouped into sentences "(p.140). Nunan (2001) believes that the grammar of a language can be used as an analysis of the structure of the language. Katamba and Stonham (2006) discuss the terms grammar based on the use of linguists in at least four distinct senses. They made differentiated between generative linguistics and traditional approach, according to their explains, in traditional approaches 'grammar' only includes morphology and syntax, in generative linguistics the term grammar is employed in a much wider sense. It covers not only morphology and syntax but also semantics, the lexicon and phonology. Thus, there are rules of grammar in every linguistic module. Phonological rules, morphological rules, syntactic rules and semantic rules are all regarded as rules of grammar. Third, grammar and rules of grammar may refer to a book containing a statement of the rules and principles inferred by linguists to lie behind the linguistic behavior of speakers of a particular language. Therefore, these rules simply describe regular patterns observed in the linguistic data. Forth, some grammars are books containing prescriptive statements. Such grammars contain rules that prescribe certain kinds of usage. In addition, Khansir (2014) indicates about the role of grammar in language teaching based on "Grammar Translation Method", the learners need to learn about the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language.

Language

What is language? All of us know what language is, just like we know the palm of our hands. We all acquired a language early in life. However, man has been interested in studying and understanding the language that makes him human. Language can be defined as the bond that links people together and binds them to their culture. The study of language has always played a crucial role in the history man. Man has tried to know his language, know how speech sounds relate to meaning when he/she is speaking or writing (khansir, 2010). Chomsky (1957) believes that all human beings possess at birth an innate capacity to acquire language. Such a capacity is biologically determined, that is, it belongs to what is usually termed “human nature” and it is passed from parents to children as part of the offspring's biological inheritance. The innate capacity endows speakers with the general shape of human language, but it is not detailed enough to dictate the precise tongue each child will speak which accounts for why different languages are spoken in the world. Chomsky (1972) argues that when we study human language, we are approaching what some might call' the human essence," the distinctive qualities of mind that are, so far as we know, unique to man. All human beings have known and used a language since childhood. Therefore, man makes use of his language automatically without any conscious effort in his life. In native language, the native speaker of the language able to produce

particular sentences that he/she hears from his/her mother, thus; he/she is certainly able to produce and understand an infinite number of possible sentences naturally in his/her language.

The word "language" is often used to refer to several kinds of human activity, such as the language of music, language of circus, and so on. However, in its ordinary sense, it primarily focuses on the oral and written medium that we use to communicate with one another. We use it especially to refer to human language and thus we tend to distinguish between language and other forms of communication. A general definition characterizes language as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which members of a society interact with one another. Language varies over the centuries, it varies geographically, and it also varies from situation to situation. We do not speak in the same way in all situations, for example, in a law court, a bar, at church, on the phone, at work, at a football match or to our friends, doctors, husbands, wives, bosses and children. A language cannot be accounted for by a uniform set of rules, which are always valid and always applied in the same way (Woolfolk, 2001).

The rules of each language event vary according to the nature of the activity, whether the medium is speech or writing, the roles of the participants, their relationships, their functions and intentions and so on. This means that every speaker has a number of different styles, which he changes according to the situation. To apply the same set of rules to all situations is symptomatic of an inability to grasp just how much we vary in our linguistic behavior from one situation to another and how much this variation is responsible for the flexibility of language, which enables us to use it for computer programs, advertisements, poetry, business deals and so on (Harding and Riley, 1986). Varshney (1998) mentions that language is the species-specific and species-uniform possession of man. It is God's special gift to mankind. He adds that language is that human expression which is uttered out by speech organs. Pinker (1994) argues that "language is a complex, specialized skill, which develops in the child spontaneous, without conscious effort or formal instruction, is developed without awareness of its underlying logic, is qualitatively the same in every individual, and is distinct from more general abilities to process information or behave intelligently" (p.18). One of the linguists, Scollon (2004) mentions that language is not something that comes in nicely packaged units and that it certainly is a multiple , complex , and kaleidoscopic phenomenon. Brown (2007) defines a number of language definitions such as language is systematic; language is a set of arbitrary symbols; language is used for communication; language operators in a speech community or culture; language is acquired by all people in much the same way; language and language learning both have universal characteristics; language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans. Finally, Kramsch (2009) indicates language is the principal means whereby we conduct our social lives. When it is used in contexts of communication, it is bound up with culture in multiple and complex ways. Finegan and Besnier (1989) define language as a finite system of elements and principles that make it possible for speakers to construct sentences to do particular communicative job. They add that the part of the system that allows speakers to produce and interpret grammatical sentences is called grammatical competence. It includes the knowledge of what speech sounds are part of a given language and how they may and may not be strung together. They believe that grammatical competence contributes similarity to comprehension in all human language. According to their ideas about language, the second part of language definition refers to the notion communicative competence. People frequently use of it in order to communicate with other people in the society. In addition, grammatical competence and

communicative competence are necessary for human interaction; in fact, a lot of the actual use of language is not is sentences at all, but in discourse units larger and smaller than sentences. Falk (1978) defines language as a mental phenomenon, a body of knowledge about sounds, meanings, and syntax which resides in the mind. Farhady and Delshad (2006) indicate that language based on the most scholars ideas are followed based on two principles: 1. Language is a system of arbitrary symbols and 2. It is used for human communication.

Linguistics

Over the world people try to spend an immense amount of words in their life talking in order to communicate with other people in human societies. Thus, an inability to use an immense amount of words can affect the people's status in their societies and may directly effect on their personality. Because language is important in human life, every year, the role of language as an integral part of being human is increased among branches of linguistics such as psychology, sociology, anthropology and etc. In general, linguistics has always tried to answer the basic questions related to language: what is language? ; How does language work?; why do languages change in the history of human being? ; What do all languages over the world have not the same? .Hence, these questions have been frequently discussed by language experts through the world. What is important is that the languages have in common in learning. According to the discussion in this paragraph, Khansir and Tabande (2014) indicate in the study of language, language has been defined as a complex system of the human mind. They add that

> the one of aims of the linguist's is to describe what man know about his language, and the second purpose of him is to consider how man acquire the knowledge of that language, third aim, what important for the linguist is that how man use it in order to communicate in his society, the forth, is that how the linguist help man use his mind to understand the language, (mental process) and the last one is that the linguist should know that man can complete his language knowledge implicitly , because man grow up with his language (p. 63-64).

A question arises what is linguistics, Varshney (1998) mentions that the word linguistics has been derived from Latin "lingua" (tongue) and "istics" (knowledge or science). He adds that linguistics based on etymologically, is the scientific study of language. But it is the study not of one particular language but of human language in general. Therefore, linguistics studies language as a universal and recognizable part of human behavior. Linguistics is that science which attempts to describe and analyze human language and also studies the origin, organization, nature and development of language descriptively, historically, comparatively, explicitly. Thus, it attempts to classify languages over the world. It formulates the general rules related to language. It considers language based on diachronic (historical) which studies the development of language through history, and time. One of the branches of linguistics is synchronic linguistics which studies how the people speak and use language in a given speech community at a given time. Another type of linguistics is comparative linguistics which compares two or more different languages in the world. Other linguists defines linguistics as the study of language; Widdowson (2009) mentions that linguistics is the name given to the discipline which studies human language. Chomsky (1965) defines linguistics as is principally concerned with the universal of human mind. He adds that linguistics can be defined as a branch of cognitive psychology. Richards et al (1992) indicate that linguistics is study of language as a system of human communication. Although studies of language phenomena have been carried out for

centuries, it is only fairly recently that linguistics has been accepted as an independent discipline. Linguistics now covers a wide field with different approaches and different areas of investigation such as phonetics, phonology, syntax, and semantics. Verghese (1989) says that linguistics is a science, a systematics body of knowledge and theory. Fries (1964) defines linguistics as a body of knowledge and understanding concerning the nature and functioning of human language, build up out of information about the structure, the operation, and the history of a wide range of very diverse human languages by means of those techniques and procedures that have proved most successful in establishing verifiable relationship among linguistic phenomena. Falk (1978) mentions that the aim of linguistics is to describe languages and to explain the unconscious knowledge all speakers have of their language.

Linguistic competence and linguistic performance: Chomsky (1965; p. 4) makes a fundamental distinction between "competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations)". What we understand of Chomsky idea about linguistic competence and linguistic performance is that linguistic competence is the unconscious knowledge about sounds, meanings, and syntax possessed by the speakers of a language whereas linguistic performance is actual language behavior and the use of language in daily life. Falk (1978) indicates that since linguistic competence is a mental reality, not a physical one, the isolation of competence from performance is a difficult task. Thus, Richards et al (1992) point out that competence refers to the ideal speaker-hearer, that is an idealized but not a real person who would have a complete knowledge of the whole language. They make differentiate between a person's knowledge of the language (competence) and how a person uses this knowledge in producing and understanding sentences (performance). Ellis (2008) says linguistic competence is knowledge of the grammar of the second language. Crystal (2003a) mentions that linguistic competence used as a term in linguistic theory, and especially in generative grammar. It refers to speaker' knowledge of their language, the system of rules which they have mastered so that they are able to produce and understand an indefinite number of sentences, and it recognizes grammatical mistakes and ambiguities. It is an idealized conception of language, which is seen as in opposition to the notion of performance, the specific utterances of speech. He adds that the theory of competence and performance by Chomsky is similar to the Saussurean distinction between Langue and Parole. In addition, there are important differences between the definitions of competence and langue. Johnson and Johnson (1999) indicate competence in linguistic theory is the system of phonological, syntax and lexical rules acquired or internalized as a formal grammar by a native speaker during the language acquisition process in early child hood. They add that it underlies his / her ability to produce and understand the sentences of a given language, and identify ambiguous and deviant sentences whereas they believe that performance in the linguistic theory is the production of utterances in specific situations, and it depends additionally on memory limitations, as in the case of the production and the comprehension of extremely long sentences, social conventions, as in the case of the use of formal and informal linguistic expressions, personality, interests, tiredness , sobriety and other divers non-linguistic factors.

English Language

The language is called English was introduced into Britain about 1500 years ago by invaders from the North Sea coast of the Continent. Thus, theses invaders are known as the Anglo-Saxons (Trask, 2003). She adds that they were at first illiterate, but within several

centuries of settling in England, they had acquired the use of writing and then they started writing down all sorts of things in their English literary works. English language as an international language has been changing throughout its history. Khansir and Tajeri (2015; p. 66) mention that "languages change throughout their existence - new words get introduced, old words dropout of use, meanings shift and pronunciation alter. English language is no exception." Therefore, English language like all languages over the world that are spoken and written, English is not as the same as in the period of the Anglo-Saxons 1500 years ago. In the period of these years, English language has been changing: new words, pronunciations, grammatical form have a history in English from the Anglo-Saxons generation to the new generation. However, English language makes use of two transmission systems: speech and writing. Leech and Svartvik (2000) argue that speech is transmitted by sound-waves, originated in speaking and received in hearing. Writing is transmitted by letters and other visible marks, produced in writing and received in reading.

Today, English language possesses the largest population in the world: native and non-native speakers. More than three hundred million people over the world speak English language as their mother tongue. English speaking countries: the United States of America, Great Britain, Canada, Australia, the South Africa, New Zealand and other places. English language has been used by people over the world for communication in order to listen to broadcast, to read news magazine, newspaper, books, and travel to other part of the world etc. However, this language has been used as foreign language, second language by non-native speakers in order to resolve the social, commercial, educational and official issues. Crystal (1992) supports the claim as follows:

Some 350000000 use English language as a mother tongue, chiefly in the USA (220 million), the UK (55 million), Canada (17 million), Australia (15 million), New Zealand (3 million), other places. Crystal (2003b) adds that the total of 278059000 million represents a conservative estimate of those who lived in USA and speak English as their mother tongue in 2001.

English language has been given the position of an official language in the most of countries in the world. It has been used as a very effective link language among the countries over the world. It have been used the language of national and international communication among native and non- native speakers. It plays an important role in education over the world. Education is closely related to the acquisition of knowledge because the degree of education is determined on the basis of the degree of knowledge acquired. That is why it is often said that education is the gateway of knowledge (Sivakumar ,1994). In the case of education, many students generally learn English language as a language subject and learn other non-language subject through the world. There is, in fact, English language as the medium of instruction among the students in countries that English is used as official or second language, the interaction between the students and the teachers in the case of education is satisfactory, because; the students less face problems created due to language problem. Thus, most of the teachers who teach the students in the different subjects have fewer problems to perform their lessons to them. English as world education language is tied to all subjects of our knowledge. According to this definition, Khansir (2013) mentions that English language is applied as international language of business, science and medicine. Jesa (2008) argues that the aim of teaching English language is

to make the learner an effective user of the language. He mentions of the general objectives of teaching English language as follows:

1. In listening , the general objectives of teaching English are to enable the learner to comprehend English when spoken at normal conversational speed;
2. In speaking, the general objectives of teaching English are to enable the learner to speak English with fluency , accuracy and appropriateness;
3. In reading, the general objectives of teaching English are to enable the learner to read English with comprehension at a reasonable speed;
4. In writing, the general objective of teaching English are to enable the learner to write English neatly and correctly.

He believes that in the teaching English language should be focused more on positive attitude in order to develop positive attitude towards the language.

Linguistics and English language

Before, entering directly into an investigation of linguistics and the place of it in English language, it is important is that both linguistics and language are closely related. Investigations and attempts have been done to find out answers to certain fundamental questions about language like what is language? How is a language learnt? , What is difference between the first language acquisition and the second language learning? , Why the second language learning is difficult? And what are the similarities and dis –similarities between one language to another? And thus, there are more questions such as animal language, child language, etc. However, there are many misconceptions about the above questions. These questions are part of what have been discussed by linguists, researchers, and language teachers in the history of language teaching. One of the three groups of the language studies is linguist. Linguist is a person who studies linguistics. He has ability to study linguistic phenomena. We can conclude that linguistics as scientific study of language studies the original language and tries to answer the above questions. Therefore, language needs linguistics in several different scientific works and linguistics can help to strengthen all the language issues in reaching to answer the fundamental questions of human language.

Let us begin this part of discussion by briefly clarifying the relationship between linguistics and English language teaching. The teaching of English in second or foreign language settings remains as the most important issues in language education in recent years. Johnson and Johnson (1999) argue that in the twentieth century, however, the role of linguistics on language teaching has been pre-eminent. They add that this is in part due to its high profile as a new and innovative discipline, and the general belief that it is the nature of language which is most relevant to language teaching. Teaching of English language in ELT classroom obviously depends on the English teachers, linguists, and syllabus designers. Linguistics always provides the best process of learning English language to the students. In the history of English language, there have been the several hypotheses in the linguistics field in order to offer the kind of English instruction to motivate the students in learning their English language. Thus, the major important aim of linguistics is to facilitate the process of language teaching in general and English language in particular. Language teaching is carried out in all kinds of different issues of linguistics. During the past 60 years, linguistics attempts to apply theoretical models of language to issues in second language education. However, the theories have focused on issues of generative linguistics, cognitive linguistics, and systematic linguistics. One of the most

influential figures in linguistics is Chomsky. He (1959) argues that the behaviorist theory failed to account for the logical problem of language acquisition. He believes that the child learns his language same as the child learns to walk. Thus, generative linguistics produces very detailed and often dauntingly technical analyses of small areas of individual languages combined with extremely abstract generalizations about all languages (Spolsky and Hult, 2008) . Thus, Chomsky is leader of it. Systemic linguistics is known as systemic functional linguistics is led by Halliday, and is strongly oriented towards education and it directly stay against generative linguistics. Halliday (2003; p. 433) mentions that "systemic or systemic-functional theory has its origin in the main intellectual tradition of European linguistics that developed in the work of Saussure in Asher 1994". Spolsky and Hult, (2008; p. 63) say that "its adherents tend to avoid the technical questions about the formal structure of language that dominate generative linguistics and not to engage with adherents of other linguistic theories, so its claims regarding the structure of language should be taken with caution". Cognitive linguistics, which is newer and has no single leader, brings together a number of general models which are united in rejecting the generative idea that language is unique and innate. In contrast, cognitive linguists believe that language is similar to other areas of cognition, and that it grows gradually through vast amounts of experience. Robinson and Ellis (2008) argue that a major challenge to applied cognitive linguists is to demonstrate to second language researchers and teachers that cognitive linguistics is not only a more complete and accurate theoretical model of language but also one that appears to be of particular benefit to second language learners. They add that cognitive linguistics and usage-based models explain how we learn language using environmentally adaptive, domain – general, cognitive abilities.

Linguistics as one of the language subjects has been discussed by great language scholars. Many language researchers have been evaluating place of linguistics in language teaching .The knowledge of linguistics is necessary in the teaching of foreign languages in general and English language in particular. Linguistics has influenced English language teaching. It is important is that linguistics increases English teachers ' understanding of the nature of language learning. In general, the aim of linguistics is to improve the process of language learning. Wilkins (1972) argues that for the language teacher the study of linguistics is probably more rewarding in this respect than in any other. He adds that we have seen a number of ways in which linguistics may help the language teacher to make more informed decision.

Conclusion

The history of English language teaching is related to a number of academic disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, sociology, and education. This paper tried to show the relationship between linguistics and English language teaching. Thus, this relationship came back to 1957, when Fries and Lado had developed a language pedagogy based on behaviourist psychology and linguistics at the English Language Institute (ELI) at the University of Michigan in USA. After 1957, linguistics developed as a discipline in different ways. Universities established department of linguistics and TESOL was founded in the USA in 1966. Linguistics and language teaching were brought closely together (Eapen, 1995).

It is also necessary to keep in mind, which the basic schools of psychology have influenced English language teaching. Behaviourism had influenced the structural approach to the teaching of English and then cognitive approach was coined by Chomsky had influenced on

the English language. Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device hypothesis, supported cognitive psychology , and methodologies which eventually questioned the notion that input had to result in learner output, or even that output was solely dependent on classroom input. Communicative competence was felt to be as important as grammatical competence, and sociolinguistic and applied linguistic discussions on the contexts of language use, influenced the Communicative Approach paradigm in language teaching in general and English language teaching in particular. Contrastive analysis, error analysis, and discourse analysis which in turn has influenced on English language teaching.

In summary, linguistics has made the process of changing in English language teaching from 1940s to today. In the history of English Language Teaching, English language teachers, syllabus designers have gained a large body of information from the study of linguistics. English teachers have increased their language knowledge from linguistics and they have acquired the methods, techniques, approaches, in order to improve English language teaching in foreign or second language settings. Willkins (1972) argues that the value of linguistics is that by increasing language teacher's awareness of language, it makes him more competent and therefore a better language teacher. However, the important of linguistics as a necessary means of language studies has been felt in English language classrooms. Knowledge of linguistics actually can help the English language teacher understand and handle English language rules through teaching –learning strategies.

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The Indonesian Junior High School Students' Strategies in Learning Writing Skill

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Abstract
This current study focuses its investigation on the skill-based language learning strategies by junior high school students in Indonesia. The purposes of this study are (1) to measure the intensity of use of learning strategy in learning writing skill, (2) to examine the correlation among the strategy categories of learning writing skill, and (3) to compare the use of learning strategies of learning writing by successful and less successful learners. The data were obtained from 257 students from two schools in Malang by administering a questionnaire from O'Malley and Chamot (1990). The strategies are classified into cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies. The result of the statistical analysis shows that the overall use of strategies of learning writing skill by Indonesian junior high school students is at moderate level (2.65) with cognitive strategies reported at the highest use (2.80). It is also revealed a strong correlation among the three learning strategies – cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective with cognitive and metacognitive at the strongest correlation (.60<r<.80). In addition, this study does not find a sufficient proof that successful and less successful learners are significantly different in using the learning strategies in learning writing skill. The findings of this research then imply the need to engage the students with strategies to learn writing skill in order that they can maximize the strategy use. This can be done by incorporating strategies-based instruction in the classroom.

Keywords: language learning strategies, successful and less successful learners, writing skill

Introduction

Learners of English in EFL context consider writing as the most complex and frustrating course to deal with. It is not without any reason that they think so. In fact, writing skill requires multifaceted and complicated stages leading the students to focus on "how to generate ideas, how to organize them coherently, how to use discourse markers and rhetorical conventions to put them cohesively into a written text, how to revise text for clearer meaning, how to edit text for appropriate grammar, and how to produce a final product" (Brown, 2007, p. 391). To bridge the students with the complexity of those writing processes, learning strategies are then required to help the students get ease in accomplishing each writing process successfully. It is confirmed by Oxford (2002), who states that language learning strategies are behaviors or actions performed by language learners to create an easier, more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable learning process. Some studies even convincingly prove that strategies positively affect the success of English language learning (Mistar, 2011; Nunan, 1992; Oxford, 1990). Along the same line, the success of a second or foreign language learning "will be due to a large extent to a learner's own personal investment of time, effort, and attention to the second language in the form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehending and producing the language (Brown, 2007, p. 69)."

Considering the crucial role of strategy use in promoting students' fluency in writing English, an abundant body of studies have been conducted in different EFL countries. The main purpose is to get a deep understanding of various aspects of writing strategies such as the contribution of the strategies to writing proficiency, students' strategy profile and the strategy use by successful and less successful learners.

Some researchers examine whether writing strategies contribute to students' writing proficiency. The first research to mention is from Chien (2007), who finds that successful learners of Taiwanese university students focus more on generating texts, revising and editing, while the less successful learners focus more only on generating ideas. This finding implies that successful learners use the strategies more effectively than less successful learners do. Investigating cognitive factors contributing to Chinese EFL learners' second language (L2) writing performance in timed essay writing, Lu (2010) uncovers that beside L2 proficiency and genre knowledge, strategy use also has a potential role as predictor of the students' writing performance. Those findings suggest that learning strategies play a crucial role to achieve success in mastering writing skill.

Other studies are carried out to highlight the strategy profile. Administering Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990), Nguyen (2009) investigates learning strategies in writing employed by second-year undergraduate female students majoring in English. This research finds that Vietnamese students prefer to use metacognitive, memory, social, and compensation with quite close mean scores. In addition, Alharthi (2011) reports that final-year Saudi male students majoring in English apply more metacognitive, cognitive, and affective strategies to learn writing. Developing their own strategies, Alnufaie and Grenfell (2012) classify the strategies to learn writing into two categories: process-oriented and product-oriented writing strategies. The findings of this research indicate that 95.9% out of 121 second-

year undergraduate Saudi student writers combine both strategies. Interestingly, the top five writing strategies apply by the participants are process-oriented. Involving 766 second year senior high school students in Indonesia as the subjects, Mistar, Zuhairi, and Parlindungan (2014) also develop strategies to learn writing and uncover twelve strategy categories: self-monitoring, language-focusing, planning, metacognitive affective, cognitive compensation, self-evaluating, social process-focusing, authentic practicing, meaning-focusing, vocabulary developing, metacognitive commencement, and mental processing strategies. Metacognitive affective strategies, furthermore, are reported to be used at the highest frequency.

Some researchers report the use of writing strategy by successful and less successful learners. Nguyen (2009), for instance, reports that successful learners apply the learning strategies more frequently, and they deploy more metacognitive, memory, compensation, and cognitive strategies than less successful learners do. In line with the previous research, Mistar, Zuhairi, and Parlindungan (2014), also confirm that learning strategies are more often used by the successful learners of Indonesian senior high school. These research results convincingly prove that successful and less successful learners employ the learning strategies in different way.

As reviewed above, most studies are carried out to examine the learning strategies applied by university students and only one involving senior high students as the subjects. So far, it is not found any study reporting the use of strategies to learn writing used by junior high school students, whereas in fact writing skill is taught in junior high level where EFL learners begin to develop their English proficiency in all the four skills. Moreover, in Indonesian context this area of research has not grabbed much attention. It then becomes a great challenge for researchers to rise to this challenge. This current research is then conducted in an attempt to 1) measure the intensity of use of strategies in learning writing, 2) to examine the correlation of strategy categories of learning writing skill, and 3) to compare the use of strategies of learning writing by successful and less successful learners.

Research Method

Descriptive and ex-post facto were the designs used in this current research, which involved 257 seventh and eighth graders of Indonesian junior high school from two schools. The subjects were assigned to respond a questionnaire taken from learning strategy from O'Malley and Chamot (1990) asking their strategy preference to learn writing skill. The questionnaire from O'Malley and Chamot was utilized because of its simplicity considering the subjects of the study were junior high school students. This instrument was translated into Indonesian language, simplified, and adjusted to the subjects' language competence. Moreover, the data of the students' writing performance were elicited by asking them to write a descriptive paragraph about themselves. Unfortunately, when the writing test was conducted, only 232 students participated. The students' compositions were scored based on the scoring rubric adapted from Bachman and Palmer (1989).

Having got the required data, a set of statistical analysis was performed. To examine the intensity of use of the learning strategies, analysis of mean score of each strategy category was done. The interpretation of the average score was based on Oxford's (1990) criteria. It is categorized *low* when the mean is between 1.00 and 2.44, *moderate* between 2.45 and 3.44, and *high* between 3.45 and 5.00. Further computation was measuring the correlation coefficient to

know the inter-correlation of each writing strategies category. To answer the third research question, the subjects participated in writing test (232 students) were grouped based on their writing score to get successful and less successful groups. Based on the passing grade, it was found 84 successful learners and 148 less successful learners. From each group, only 25% of them were analyzed (21 successful and 37 less successful learners). The final analysis was administering independent samples t-tests to examine the difference in the use of strategies between successful and less successful learners. To assist the computations of all the statistical data, computer statistical package SPSS Version 15 was used (Pallant, 2011).

Results and Discussion

Results

Problem 1: How often do the EFL learners of Indonesian junior high schools apply learning strategies in learning writing skill?

To answer this first question, a statistical analysis was performed, and Table 1 presents the overall use of writing strategies by Indonesian junior high school students is at moderate level (2.65). The deployment of cognitive strategies is at the highest mean (2.80), showing that students assume that cognitive are the most appropriate strategies to deal with writing problems. Metacognitive with the score of 2.66 are the second preferable strategies to deploy. Accounted the lowest score (2.49), social/affective strategies are reported to be used the least by the students. It indicates that most students do not use these strategies as it might be believed that these strategies are not appropriate to promote writing ability. Interestingly, each writing strategy category is used at moderate level, meaning that the strategies are used 'sometimes'. This result indicates that no strategy category is dominant. In other words, the students combine all the three strategies to improve their writing ability.

Table 1 ***Frequency of Use of Strategies of Learning Writing***

Strategy category	Mean	Frequency	Rank
Cognitive	2.80	Moderate	1
Metacognitive	2.66	Moderate	2
Social/Affective	2.49	Moderate	3
Overall Strategies	2.65	Moderate	

Problem 2: Does the strategy categories of learning writing skill correlate each other?

The computation finds that the writing strategy categories correlate to each other significantly. Detail statistical description is in Table 2.

Table 2 ***Inter-correlation among Strategy Categories of Learning Writing***

	Cognitive	Metacognitive	Social/Affective
Cognitive	1		
Metacognitive	.789**	1	
Social/Affective	.546**	.489**	1

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

The finding of the analysis above describes that the highest correlation coefficient is between cognitive and metacognitive strategies with r=.789, p<.01. In addition, cognitive and social/affective are found to have coefficient of r=.546, p<.01, while the correlation between metacognitive and social/affective strategies is found to be the lowest with r=.489, p<.01. Furthermore, in terms of the correlation strength, it is uncovered that cognitive and metacognitive are at the strongest correlation (.60<r<.80), and the moderate correlation is from the two pairs of strategy category – cognitive and social/affective strategies and metacognitive and social/affective strategies (.40<r<.60).

Something to highlight from the result of correlation coefficient is that all of the coefficients show positive correlation at .01 level of significance with 2-tailed test. This indicates that the higher frequency in using certain strategy of learning writing skill, the higher frequency in deploying the other two strategies, and the vice versa. In other words, each category of writing strategies has influential attitude toward the other categories.

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

To compare the strategy used by Indonesian EFL junior high school students, independent samples t-test was performed and the result is presented in Table 3. As it can be seen from the table, the differences in the use of strategies by the successful and less successful learners range from -.14 (the lowest difference) for social process-focusing strategies to .01 (the highest difference) for vocabulary developing strategies. It is also revealed that no significant difference is found in the use of strategies to learn writing by successful and less successful learners. This indicates that both successful and less successful learners share the same strategies at almost the same intensity of use.

Table 3 ***The Difference in the Use of Strategies of Learning Writing Skill by Successful (N=21) and Less Successful Learners (N=37)***

Strategy Categories	**Groups**	**Mean**	**Mean Difference**	**t-value**
Cognitive	Successful	2.78	-.04	.672
	less successful	2.82		
Metacognitive	Successful	2.67	.01	.708
	less successful	2.65		
Social/Affective	Successful	2.40	-.14	.1.277
	less successful	2.54		

Discussion

As stated earlier, this present study is conducted generally to describe the use of strategies to learn writing by junior high school students in Indonesian context. In terms of the strategy use, this study uncovers that the overall use of the three strategy categories is at moderate level with cognitive strategies applied at the highest mean score. This indicates that junior high students in Indonesia have not obtained sufficient exposure to the awareness of using language learning strategies. In addition, the highest mean score achieved by cognitive strategies explains that the students more frequently employ cognitive strategies to learn writing skill than the other two strategy categories – metacognitive and social/affective strategies. This finding implies that the students use more mental processes to deal with the complexity of writing. Resourcing, memorization, practice, checking, and revision are strategies used when the students engage their cognitive side in writing skill. This finding is in line with Alharthi (2011) who reports that together with metacognitive and affective strategies, cognitive strategies involving thinking before writing, simplifying questions, checking for grammar and spelling, and using the dictionary during writing are used at high frequency. Since cognitive strategies link to mental processes, this result also supports the previous research done by Alnufaie and Grenfell (2012). They reveal that the top five strategies used by undergraduate Saudi students are process-oriented, and the two of them –*using similar English word when the students do not know the exact word and simplifying what to write when they do not know the exact expression* – relate to cognitive strategies.

However, this finding contrasts to some other research results such as reported by Nguyen (2009) who finds metacognitive, memory, social, and compensation as the most frequently used strategies by Vietnamese university students. Along the same line, Mistar, Zuhairi, and Parlindungan (2014) also uncover that Indonesian senior high students prefer to apply metacognitive affective strategies to learn writing skill. The disparate findings among those studies might be due to the distinct subjects. This present study involves junior high students as the subjects. In this school level, EFL students have just learned English for one and two years since English is a compulsory subject from grade seven of junior high school. It can be said that their experience in learning English will also influence their knowledge of learning strategy to deal with writing difficulties. Another factor that likely affects the different result of this current research from the previous two is the instrument. Strategy from O'Malley & Chamot (1990) is the questionnaire used in this study. Meanwhile, Nguyen (2009) obtains the data of strategy preference from SILL by Oxford (1990) and Mistar, Zuhairi, and Parlindungan (2014) develop a new questionnaire namely Posteriori Taxonomy of Strategies of Learning Writing Skill.

The intensity of use of the three strategy categories – cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective –, which are used at the moderate level indicates that the strategies are applied *sometimes*. It can be noted that the use of learning strategy in the writing is not really recognized by the Indonesian junior high school students and even the teachers. This result supports the previous research conducted by Mistar, Zuhairi, and Parlindungan (2014), who report that writing strategy use by Indonesian senior high students is also at moderate level. These findings then confirm that EFL students especially in Indonesia are lack of exposure to language learning

strategy. This is proven by several studies which report learning strategies are 'sometimes' applied. Intersetingly, this happens not only in writing skill but other skills as well such as in speaking skill (Novitasari, 2009; Umamah, 2008).

With regard to the correlation among the strategy categories, the statistical analysis reveals that all the three strategy categories significantly correlate each other. This means that the higher frequency in using certain strategy of learning writing skill, the higher frequency in deploying the other two strategies, and the vice versa. It can be concluded that the use each category of writing strategies influence the other two categories.This finding is actually predictable as previously, Oxford and Ehrman (1995) report the significant correlation among SILL strategy categories. Along the same line, Mistar (2011), who measures the interrelationship among language learning strategy categories in his Learning Strategy Questionnaire (LSQ), also reveals that the eight strategy categories correlate each other significantly. In addition, other studies with different strategy categories such as Setiyadi with Language Learning Strategies Questionnaire (LLSQ) and Mistar, Zuhairi, & Umamah (2014) with their strategies of learning speaking skill find that statistically each learning strategy category has significant intercorrelation. These findings finally confirm that improvement on one strategy category will improve the other categories.

An interesting result comes up when comparing the strategy applied by successful and less successful learners. Both groups are found to apply cognitive strategies more than the counterparts, meta-cognitive and social/affective strategies. However, this study fails to prove the significant difference between successful and less successful learners in employing the three strategy categories. This shows that both groups share the same strategies and use them almost equally. This insignificant result might be explained by the students' writing score, which is not far different, ranging from 63 to 92. The finding of this study is contrast to the previous studies by Nguyen (2009) and Mistar, Zuhairi, and Parlindungan (2014) who report significant difference between successful and less successful learners in using strategies to learn writing. In addition, Chien (2007) reports that successful learners of Taiwanese university students give their focus more on generating texts, revising and editing, while the less successful learners focus more only on generating ideas. Meanwhile, Alharthi (2011) finds that only skilled writers of Saudi students of King Abdul Aziz University plan their writing globally and locally, while both skilled and less skilled students apply cognitive strategies.To gain deeper knowledge on the difference between successful and less successful learners in applying writing strategies, more studies are totally required.

Conclusion

This study investigates the intensity of use of strategy to learn writing used by Indonesian junior high school students. The analysis reveals that all of the three strategy categories – cognitive, metacogitive, and social/affective strategies – are used at the moderate level (M=2.65) with cognitive strategies found to be used at the highest frequency (M=2.80). Furthermore, it is also reported that there is strong inter-correlation among the three strategy categories. Finally, the difference between successful and less successful learners in using the strategies is reported insignificant. Regarding the intensity of use found in this current research and the insignificant difference in using the strategies by successful and less successful learners, strategies-based

instructions in writing class is strongly required to equip the students with appropriate strategies to improve their writing performance.

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Exploring Arab ESL Students' Perceptions on Integrating Social Networking Websites into English Writing Classrooms

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Abstract
This study explores Arab ESL students' perceptions toward integrating web 2.0 tools into today's English writing classroom through survey, interviews, and a classroom observation. It focuses on these research questions; to what extent the Arab English as a second language students have access to social networking websites? What are their perceptions toward integrating social networking websites into today's English writing classroom? Do they think that using social networking websites improves students' writing skills? The study was carried out in an English language institute in Western Kentucky to find out how using blogs and social networking websites develop Arab ESL learners' writing skill. The intended population for this study was a random sample of Arab ESL students in Murray State University English Program in the United States. This study provides answers to some questioning areas of integrating these technologies into English writing traditional classes. Data were collected by surveys, interviews, and an observation designed by the researcher and analyzed by using percentage. The study results indicate that most Arab ESL students agree that integrating social networking websites into today's English writing classroom would improve their writing skills. So, it is recommended to use social networking websites by educators for educational purposes.
Keywords: ESL, social networking, students, writing classrooms

Introduction

Web 2.0 tools have become essential educational tools in today's classrooms because it supports asynchronous and synchronous communication and E-learning. Also, it supplies multimedia features and easy to handle. Nowadays' generations of students are totally different than the old generations of students. They become more familiar and addicted to computers and they use web 2.0 applications in daily basis. Therefore, we, as language teachers, should consider using these technologies tools for educational purposes in and out of our classrooms.

Today, the most common used web 2.0 tools are blogs and social networking tools. Blogs are valuable communication channels and provide a variety of authentic writing experiences for English as a second language students and teachers. Also, social networking websites (e.g. Facebook, blogs etc.) are considered as good sources for gaining language competency by communicating with native speakers of the target language in English instantly. Furthermore, blogs and social networking websites motivate Arab ESL students to write in English in order to communicate with their American and international friends which gradually develops their writing skills.

In this paper, the researcher presents the research results that he carried out in an English language institute in Western Kentucky to find out how using blogs and social networking websites develop Arab ESL learners' writing skill. The intended population for this study is a random sample of Arab ESL students in Murray State University English Program in the United States. This study provides answers to some questioning areas of integrating these technologies into English writing traditional classes. For this research, the researcher carried out a survey, observed a classroom, and interviewed four Arab ESL students. So, the research results give us English as a second language teachers and researchers answers about how using these technologies will be helpful and to what extent is acceptable from Arab English learners' perspectives.

This study is significant because it explores Arab ESL students' perceptions toward integrating web 2.0 tools into today's English writing classroom through a survey, interviews, and a classroom observation. This study focuses on the following research questions:

- To what extent the Arab ESL students have access to social networking websites?
- What are the Arab ESL students' perceptions toward integrating social networking websites into today's English writing classroom?
- Do they think that using social networking websites improves their writing skills?

This research results and findings indicate that most Arab ESL students agree that integrating web 2.0 tools into today's English writing classroom would improve their writing skills.

This study has an exploratory survey, interviews, and a filed observation. The participants of the survey were 41 Arab ESL students at the English program in Murray State University. The researcher interviewed 4 Arab ESL students at the same program and observed a writing class. The participants were 18-32 years old and for gender, 36 male students, and five were female. Data were collected via online surveys, interviews and a filed observation prepared by the researcher in order to explore Arab ESL students' perceptions toward integrating web 2.0 tools into today's English writing classroom. The results were analyzed in relation to the goal of

the study, presented in graphs, and explained accordingly. Survey data were analyzed using Google Doc and the survey results were interpreted using percentages. The researcher analyzed interviews and observation data manually.

Literature Review

Over the past five years, social networking sites have become one of the most used web 2.0 tools. Nowadays, they are popular all over the world and are used by hundreds of millions of users. Social networking sites such as blogs, Facebook, and Twitter applications are accessible and personal spaces for online conversations and sharing of content based typically on the maintenance and sharing of 'profiles' where individual users can represent themselves to other people (Selwyn, 2009). Using technology for educational purposes has a long history, dating back to the use of sign writing to capture and transmit knowledge. In the recent past, the use of computer applications in the classrooms can be traced to the 1930s when instructors used audiovisual tools to deliver content in the classroom (Roblyer, 2002).

Nowadays' generations of students are completely different from old generations. They become more familiar and addicted to computers and they use web 2.0 applications in daily basis. Young people ages 8 to 18 spend almost six and a half hours a day with media, but because they often use multiple media simultaneously, they are actually exposed to the equivalent of more than 8.5 hours of media daily; about an hour of this time is spent using a computer (Roberts, Foehr, & Rideout, 2005).

Wickersham and Chambers (2006) state that learning is best facilitated in contexts that include hands-on, experiential opportunities and high levels of student participation, interaction with peers, and student-teacher communication. In that Internet-based communication technologies allow students to create and share their writing, as opposed to merely consuming texts selected by the instructor, these tools are inherently well-suited to support these kinds of constructivist, peer-focused experiences.

Although using social networking sites for educational purposes has promising benefits, there are some requirements have to be met before integrating them into today's classrooms.

> After considering this wide examination of L2 blogging, it is clear that this process presents a number of factors which teachers should consider, ideally from the very outset. Evidently, integrating this type of task into the language classroom is not a straightforward issue and thus requires a great deal of groundwork beforehand in order to validate its inclusion in any type of academic course. For our purposes, successful integration was defined as establishing a realistic timeframe for students to assess and exploit the tool as part of their activities as evaluators of technology for language learning purposes. Additionally, we wanted to emphasize in this course that using technology appropriately requires a certain degree of reflective and interpretative skills which students may not necessarily use in their daily consumption of Web 2.0 media. (Hourigan & Murray, 2010, p. 221)

The usefulness of using social networking sites has been presented in many cases. Sun (2010) claims that even though students in the present study tended to use simpler syntactic structure in their latter blog entries, the students' overall writing performance seemed to improve significantly, especially in terms of mechanics and organization. The results of the present study indicate that blogs could constitute an effective task-based environment that prompts authentic, purposeful language use, and enhances writing proficiency in foreign languages. Furthermore, as Richardson (2006) notes that blogging cultivate cognitive strategies and encourages students to focus on their own entries. Blog-based writing can lead students to make a greater, more strategic effort to improve the quality of their learning outcome.

In addition to that, using social networking sites provides a good opportunity to students to establish contact with other people, who are able to share their experiences, observations, and reflections on the target country with family, friends, and classmates back home (Ducate & Lomicka, 2005).

Solomon and Schrum (2007) believe that young students may be better than teachers in using the Web 2.0 tools, but teachers can guide them to use these tools in appropriate ways for educational purposes. Web 2.0 tools may help students with more sources to gain knowledge from. As long as teachers inspect those sources for accuracy and appropriateness, students may get a numerous number of reliable resources. They suggest a good number of valuable ways in using these tools in today's classrooms. Also, they provide some good concrete examples of English as Second Language teachers. For example, Jon Orech's students used wikis for writing projects. Another example, Ted Glazier's students used Flickr photo sharing tool in digital storytelling projects. Another one, April Chamberlain created a blog for her students to communicate with soldiers in Iraq. Also, the book provides examples of using Web 2.0 tools to teach many subjects including English as Second Language (Solomon & Schrum, 2007).

There are many advantages of using blogs in classrooms. For example, students can create their own blogs to record their reflections. Also, blogs can help them to communicate with other students, their parents, and other readers. Moreover, they can use blogs to demonstrate their learning processes. Also, blogs can be used as resource centers in which teachers can use them as teaching and learning aids. Furthermore, blogs allows students to archive their works and to share them with other people. In conclusion, the authors find that blogs' features provide educators with further opportunities to improve their students (Shiang-Kwei & Hui-Yin, 2008).

Social networking sites are at low cost, easy to install, simple, inexpensive, in open sources, and they offer these basic services: a way to communicate, a mechanism to share documents, and some means to discover other members of the community. Also, these tools are useful for people who do not work in the same place, so online collaboration tools can help teams collectively author, edit, and review materials in a group work space, help to move documents through the system in a fast and safe way (Fichter, 2005).

Davis and McGrail (2009) conducted a study about how the use of blogs and podcasts as a classroom activity can help students to develop proof-revising and proofreading skills. As a result, their communication skills and literacy as well as their writing skills will improve. The study was conducted on a class of fifth-grade students who publish stories on their individual

blogs. Then, teachers provide feedback of students' writing by posting podcasts on each student's blog. After observing a lot of audience and teachers' feedbacks through podcasts, Davis and McGrail conclude that students' writing skills are enhanced and improved by blogging.

In sum, although using blogs has a short successful history in education, it has been considered as a promising tool for teaching and learning. Blogs have been used for a variety of educational purposes. For example, they have been used as means of generating elements of electronic portfolios, and as a way of supporting peer support and peer learning. Their usages have been evaluated promisingly across a variety of educational settings, including postsecondary education, higher education in general and in more informal learning settings. Several criticisms have been pointed at blogging as a learning tool, but in comparison to the benefits that are mentioned these could be considered significantly lower in importance (Wheeler & Lambert-Heggs, 2009). Blogs are highly valuable communication tools that provide a variety of authentic writing experiences for ESL/EFL students and teachers (Mullen and Wedwick, 2008).

Methodology

Setting:

This study was conducted at the English as a second language program in Murray State University in Murray, Kentucky, United States.

Participants:

The participants are 41 students, 37 for the survey and 4 interviewees. The participants are Arab ESL students who are studying at the English as a second language program in Murray State University in Murray, Kentucky, United States. Their ages range from 18 to 32. There are 5 females among the participants. Their English proficiency varies from beginner to advanced levels.

Data collection procedures:

1. Interview

For the interview, the researcher designed questions to get answers to some questioning areas in the research topic. He was searching for answers to the major question, which was about the Arab ESL students' attitudes towards integrating social networking websites into their English writing classroom to develop their writing skill. Therefore, the researcher interviewed four Arab adult male students in the English as a second language program in Murray State University. They have been in the United States for more than six month. Two of them were at the advanced level in the ESL program and the others were at the intermediate level. The interviews were conducted in English and some Arabic translation when needed. Each interview lasted for 30 – 35 minutes. The interviews were conducted in English and transcribed by the researcher. (See appendix A for the classroom observational log).

2. **Survey**

The researcher designed an online survey for this study that has 23 questions. The population are Arab ESL students who are studying in the English program in Murray State University. They were randomly selected. The researcher sent the link of the online survey to almost all the Arab students who are studying in the English program. Thirty-seven of them

responded to the survey online. Through this survey, participants answered questions about their experiences with using these technologies and how they are helpful for their writing skills development. In this survey, the researcher used close-ended, Likert scales, and open-ended question as well as some demographic questions. (Check this link for the online survey: https://spreadsheets.google.com/viewform?hl=en&formkey=dEl5cGlCSlduWGxZMzNXUUx5X3Yyb1E6MA#gid=0).

3. Observation

For observation, the researcher has observed the teacher's use of web 2.0 tools in an ESL writing class which is one of the MSU ESL classes. The class was a level 3 writing class. There were sixteen students in the class that the researcher observed. This ESL program is required for international students, who are planning to enroll in Murray State University but they have not met the sufficient TOEFL score or they want to learn English for other purposes. This class is considered to be a lower-intermediate level class. (See appendix B for the classroom observational log).

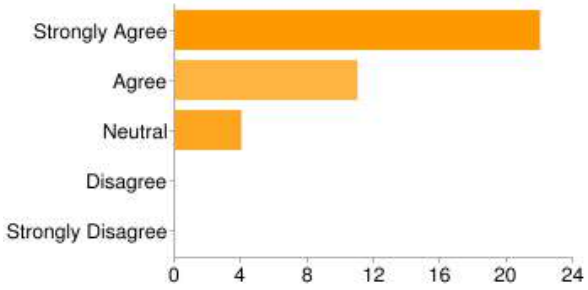
A brief plan of data analysis:

The results were analyzed in relation to the goal of the study, presented in graphs, and explained accordingly. Survey data was analyzed by using Google Doc and the survey results were interpreted by using percentages. Interviews and observation were analyzed manually by the researcher.

Data Analysis and Discussion

- **The 1st research question:** ***To what extent the Arab ESL students have access to social networking websites?***

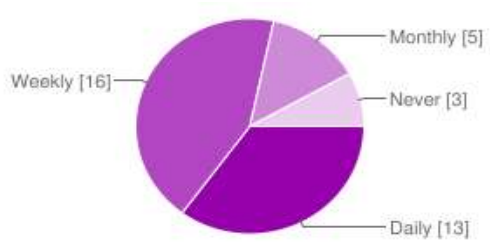
Figure 1 shows that 89% of participants like surfing the internet and 11% are neutral. So, surfing the internet is a favorable activity for the majority of them.



Strongly Agree	**22**	59%
Agree	**11**	30%
Neutral	**4**	11%
Disagree	**0**	0%
Strongly Disagree	**0**	0%

***Figure 1*. I like surfing the internet.**

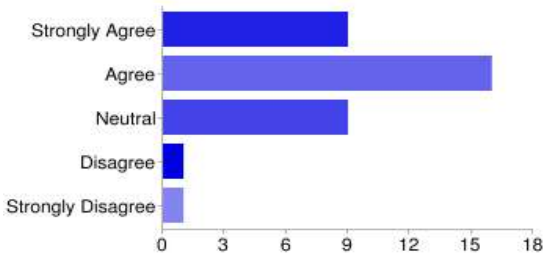
Furthermore, as shows in figure 2, the participants are asked how often they post or comment on others' posts on Facebook? and 35% of them answered that they use Facebook daily, 43% use it weekly, and 14% use it monthly. Whereas 8% of the participants answered by saying that they have never used Facebook. These results show that Facebook has been used by about 92% of the participants. So, that makes this social networking website a good choice to be used by educators for educational purposes due to the students' familiarity with this application.



Daily	**13**	35%
Weekly	**16**	43%
Monthly	**5**	14%
Never	**3**	8%

Figure 2. **How often do you post or comment on others' posts on Facebook?**

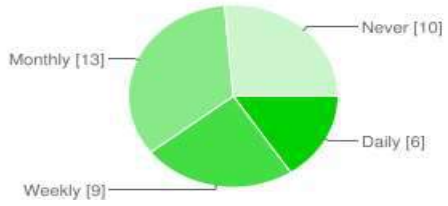
In addition, as shows in figure 3, the participants were asked if they have many American friends on Facebook. Sixty-nine percent of them answered that they have many American friends on Facebook and 25% were neutral. Whereas 9% answered that they do not have many American friends. Hence, that would provide opportunities of communication with English native speakers. Facebook provides an online chatting and discussions features which Arab ESL students can use to express themselves in English and post their class work to discuss and revise them with their classmates and American friends.



Strongly Agree	**9**	25%
Agree	**16**	44%
Neutral	**9**	25%
Disagree	**1**	3%
Strongly Disagree	**1**	3%

Figure 3. **I have many American friends on Facebook.**

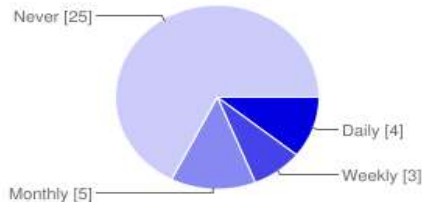
Moreover, as shows in figure 4, the participants were asked this question "how often do you use blog or comment on others' blogs? Sixteen percent of them answered that they use blogs daily, 24% use it weekly, and 35% use it monthly. Whereas 27% of the participants answered by saying that they have never used blogs. These results show that blogs are used by about 73% of the participants. So, using blogs would be a possible choice by educators for educational purposes.



Daily	**6**	16%
Weekly	**9**	24%
Monthly	**13**	35%
Never	**10**	27%

Figure 4. **How often do you use blog or comment on others' blogs?**

Also, as shows in Figure 5, the participants were asked this question "how often do you tweet? Eleven percent of them answered that they use Twitter daily, 8% use it weekly, and 14% use it monthly. Whereas 68% of the participants answered by saying that they have never used Twitter. According to these results, using this social networking website by educators for educational purposes is impractical due to the students' unfamiliarity with this application.



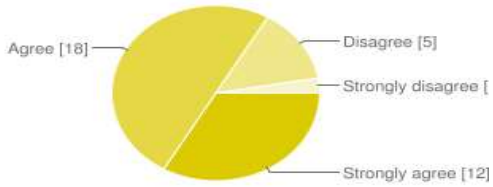
Daily	**4**	11%
Weekly	**3**	8%
Monthly	**5**	14%
Never	**25**	68%

***Figure 5*. How often do you tweet?**

After reading the results we can easily see the first two social networking websites, Facebook and blogs, are highly-accessible to Arab ESL students. As a result, they are good choice for educators to be integrated into their English writing classroom because they are the most used social networking websites among the Arab ESL students.

- **The 2nd research question: *What are the Arab ESL students' perceptions toward integrating social networking websites into today's English writing classroom?***

As shows in figure 6, the participants were asked if they think that using Blogs, Facebook, or Twitter as parts of the writing class requirements would make the class more useful and interesting. For more explanation, the researcher gave them this example to make the question clear, e.g. your teacher asks you to use Blog or Facebook to post your essays and writing homework and let your classmates comment on your writing and you do the same. Eighty-one percent of them answered that they agree that using social networking websites as parts of the writing class requirements would make the class more useful and interesting, whereas 19% of the participants disagree with that. These results show that the majority of the surveyed students believe that using social networking websites as parts of the writing class requirements would make the class more useful and interesting. As a result, the majority of the participants have positive attitudes towards integrating social networking websites into their English writing classroom.



Strongly agree	**12**	32%
Agree	**18**	49%
Disagree	**5**	14%
Strongly disagree	**2**	3%

***Figure 6.* I think that using Blogs, Facebook, or Twitter as parts of the writing class requirements would make the class more useful and interesting.**

During the interviews, the interviewees were asked what they think if their writing teacher would apply writing on blogs or Facebook as part of the class requirements and ask their

classmates to comment on their writing and if that would make the writing class more effective and interesting. One of them said:

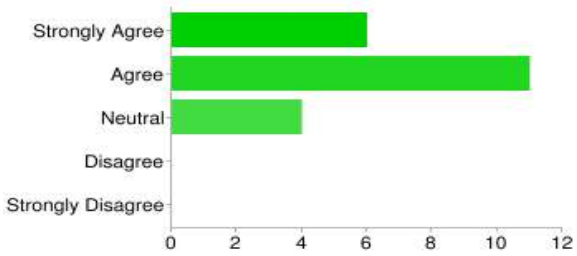
> *I think this will be a good idea. It will make the writing class more active and interesting. I will be happy to write. Also, it will make the class friendly. I can help my classmates and they can help me and the teacher can check our writings and comments for mistakes. It is an amazing idea.*

And another interviewee said that: "*I'm with using them in writing classes because they motivate students to write since technology is the language of the world nowadays and students usually use these technology tools in daily basis outside classrooms.*" The third one agreed with them and said that: "*I truly encourage using new technology such as Blogs, Facebook, and Twitter in developing ESL students English writing skills. I think it's fun and more interesting.*" Their answers claim the possible validity of integrating these technologies into traditional classroom in order to motivate ESL students to participate effectively in a healthier classroom environment. Whereas the fourth interviewee stood against that and said: *"from my experience writing more essays with the teacher correction is the best way to improve English language."* From the answer we can see that although today's students are more opened to technologies, we still have some prefer traditional ways of learning. As a result, the majority of the interviewees have positive attitudes towards integrating social networking websites into their English writing classroom.

In addition to that, in the classroom observation, the researcher found out that the teacher did not integrate the web 2.0 tools into the class. The class that the researcher has observed was so traditional. So, some students felt bored. Therefore, the researcher thinks that using web 2.0 tools in today's classroom, especially the ESL/EFL classrooms would be more useful and interesting for the students. For example, the teacher could ask the students to go to the language lab. Then, the teacher may ask them to login to their blogs or Facebook pages. After that, the teacher could ask them to write their paragraphs and post them on their blogs or Facebook pages. Next, the teacher could ask the students to check each other posts and comment on their blogs or Facebook pages would make the writing class more effective and interesting.

- **The 3rd research question: *Do they think using social networking websites improves their English writing skills?***

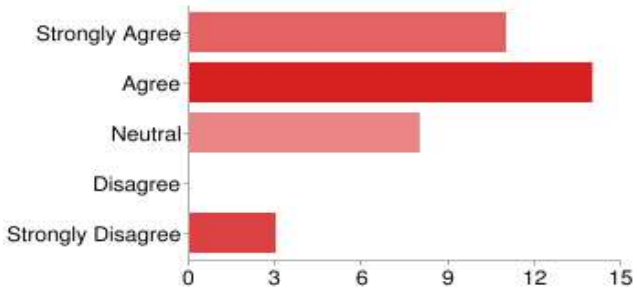
As shows in figure 7, the blog users among the participants were asked if reading blogs in English would develop their English writing skills or not. Eighty-one percent of them believe that reading blogs in English would develop their English writing skills, whereas 19% are neutral. These results show the majority believes that reading blogs in English could be a good source for writing proficiency that reflects the validity of using blogs by ESL educators for educational purposes.



Strongly Agree	**6**	29%
Agree	**11**	52%
Neutral	**4**	19%
Disagree	**0**	0%
Strongly Disagree	**0**	0%

Figure 7. **Reading English blogs develops my English writing skills.**

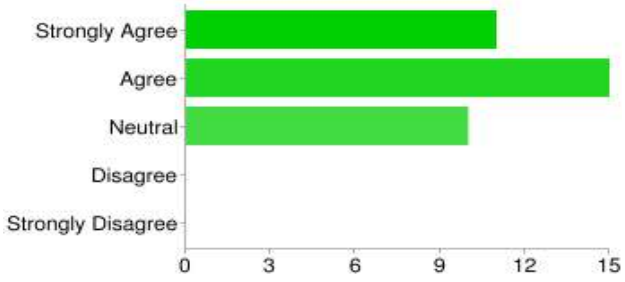
Additionally, as shows in figure 8 the participants were asked if their American friends' posts on Facebook motivate them to comment on them in English. Seventy percent of them said that their American friends' posts on Facebook motivate them to comment on them in English, whereas 8% said their American friends' posts on Facebook do not motivate them to comment on them in English. Twenty-two percent were neutral. These results show that the majority believe that their American friends' posts on Facebook motivate them to comment on them in English. Therefore, I can say that students' communication through Facebook with their American friends could be a good practice for their writing skills.



Strongly Agree	**11**	31%
Agree	**14**	39%
Neutral	**8**	22%
Disagree	**0**	0%
Strongly Disagree	**3**	8%

Figure 8. **My American friends' posts on Facebook motivate me to comment on them in English.**

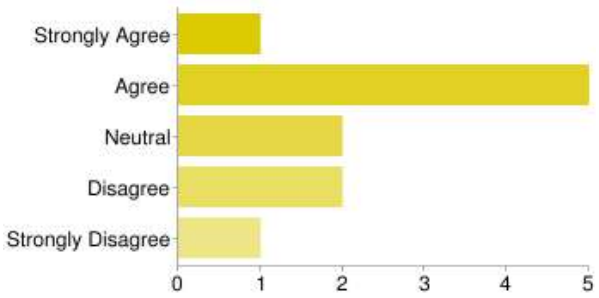
In addition, as shows in figure 9, the participants were asked if they think using Facebook develops their English writing skills. Thirty-one percent of them strongly agree that using Facebook develops their English writing skills and 42% agree with that. Twenty-eight percent are neutral. Whereas none of the surveyed students disagree with that. These results show the majority believe that using Facebook develops English writing skills of the Arab ESL students. So, Facebook could be a good practice filed for ESL students' English writing and that confirm the legality of using Facebook by ESL instructors for educational purposes.



Strongly Agree	**11**	31%
Agree	**15**	42%
Neutral	**10**	28%
Disagree	**0**	0%
Strongly Disagree	**0**	0%

Figure 9. **Using Facebook develops my English writing skills.**

Lastly, as shows in figure 10, the Twitter users (11 students) of the participants were asked if they think using Twitter develops their English writing skills. Fifty-four percent of them agree that using Twitter develops their English writing skills. Eighteen percent are neutral. Whereas 27% of the surveyed students disagree with that. These results show the 54% of the Twitter users, 6 out of 37 participants only, believe that using Twitter develops English writing skills. So, from these results I can say that Twitter is impractical for ESL students' English writing practices due to the Arab ESL students' unfamiliarity with Twitter. This shows the limitation of using Twitter by ESL instructors for educational purposes.



Strongly Agree	**1**	9%
Agree	**5**	45%
Neutral	**2**	18%
Disagree	**2**	18%
Strongly Disagree	**1**	9%

Figure 10. **Tweeting develops my English writing skills.**

Furthermore, the interviewees were asked about their experiences of using those technologies to develop their writing skill. One of them answered by saying that:

> *Actually, the advantages of them are more than the disadvantages. The first advantage is that it helps you to make more native speaker friends. Also, it makes you read and write in English to chat with American friends. When you chat with native speakers, you use and learn more new words. There is only one disadvantage which is that some American friends do not tell if you make a mistake. But I have some close American friends that I told them to correct me when I make a mistake and they usually do.*

His answer enforces the issue of native speakership. Also, it provides stress-free or friendly communicative situations with English native speakers for ESL students outside the classrooms by chatting with friends on Facebook. He believes that the only disadvantage was that some of his American friends respond with no feedback or corrections on his writings.

The others chose to talk about the main disadvantages of using those technologies for educational purposes and especially for writing skill. One of them said that: "*I think, we really do use English to communicate in the Internet, but most the time, we are using unofficial language, which doesn't really help to improve English skills.*" The third one agreed with that and said: "*I disagree because people usually write in very informal way while writing in Face Book and the like that they make a lot of mistakes. For example, instead of writing you, they write U. So, that would ruin writing skills.*" Their answers show that they were aware of the fact that being a native speaker is not enough reason to be a valid source of language. A native speaker may commit some errors or produce vernacular language.

One of the interviewee talked about his experience and if using these technologies developed his writing skill. He said "*I can say using Facebook and second life game helped me a lot with my English writing. Now, I feel comfortable in chatting with my American friends and writing in English.*" From my point of view, I think that Facebook and Second Life provided a stress-free environment to him to practice his writing skill and that is why he liked using them.

Conclusion and Implications

This study explor Arab ESL students' perceptions towards integrating web 2.0 tools into today's English writing classroom. Through survey, interviews, and a classroom observation, the research questions of this study have been answered. The study results indicate that most Arab ESL students agree that integrating social networking websites into today's English writing classroom would improve their writing skills. The pedagogical implications of this study are:

- The study shows that social networking websites are used by the majority of the surveyed students, especially Facebook. So, that makes them the highly-accessible websites to Arab ESL students and the best one to integrate into our ESL writing classrooms due to the students' familiarity with those applications.
- The study shows that the majority of the surveyed students believe that using social networking websites as parts of the writing class requirements would make the class more useful and interesting. As a result, the majority of the participants have positive attitudes towards integrating social networking websites into their English writing classroom.
- The study shows that the majority the surveyed students believe that social networking websites help them to develop their English writing skills. It means that they are good sources for writing practices which reflects the validity of their use by ESL educators for educational purposes.

Limitations:

This study has some limitations. The limitations of this study are; 1) the research should have increased the number of the interviewees to get more deep information, 2) the research should have observed more writing classes to validate and verify the results.

Possible Further Research:

- A longitudinal experimental study on "how useful is integrating social networking websites into English writing classrooms."

About the Author:

Abdullah Alshayee graduated with a master degree in TESOL from Murray State University in 2011 and had his bachelor degree from Qassim University in English Language and Translation in 2007. He works as Lecturer at the English Language Center at the Institute of Public Administration since 2011. His current role is General Manager of Quality & Accreditation at the IPA besides his English Teaching duties.

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Appendix A

The interview questions:

1. In what level you are in the English program? What was your writing score of the last TOFEL test?
2. Do you have a blog or a social networking account?
3. A social networking account refers to a website provides a means of communication over the internet, such as Facebook, Myspace and Twitter.
4. How often do use them?
5. Why do not you use your blog every day?
6. Do you prefer writing in English or Arabic on your blog and Facebook?
7. Do you think using blog, Facebook or the second life game help you improving your English and especially your writing skills?
8. Which one do you like the most?

9. Do you enjoy your writing class? Why?
10. Do you think that if your writing teacher would apply writing on your blog or Facebook as parts of the course requirements would make the class more effective and interesting? What if your teacher asks you to use Facebook to post your essays and reflective papers and let your classmates comment on your writing and you do the same?
11. How do you explain your experience in using Facebook and the second life game in terms of developing your writing skill?
12. As a big fan of Facebook world, can you talk about the advantages and disadvantages of using it to improve your writing skill?

Appendix B
Classroom Observation

Location: MSU ESL writing classroom (level 3)

Date: November 12, 2010

Time: 1:00 PM

Duration: 50 minutes

Purpose: Observe teacher's teaching method, students' responsiveness, teacher and students' interactions, and the use of web 2.0 tools in the classroom.

Setting	**Observer's Comments**
I entered the classroom 2 minutes before the starting time of the class. I sat in the back of the classroom. There were only two students in the classroom. The students became entering the classroom one after another. The teacher entered the class on time and said hi. The students were talking to each other and they were not paying attention to the teacher. There were sixteen students in that class from three different countries. They were so familiar to each other. The teacher started the class by taking attendance.	Each one of them gave me a strange look when they sat on their chairs. They seemed curious to know who I was.

Then, the teacher distributed the students' corrected midterm exam papers. After looking at their grades, most students smiled except two of them they did not seem satisfied about their grades and ask the teacher about some of their answers and how they were counted wrong. Then, the teacher asked each student to get a piece of paper and chose a job to draw a tree map and then write a paragraph about. The teacher gave an example by drawing a tree map on the board and on the top of the map wrote "a teacher" and then the teacher wrote some ideas below the word teacher such as "wake up every morning", and "goes to school", "teach students" and the like. Then, the teacher wrote some sentences such as "a teacher wakes up early every morning. At 8 in the morning, the teacher goes to school to teach his/her students " Each student got a piece of paper and started drawing a tree map. The teacher started checking the students' papers and giving them some comments and suggestions. 10 minutes later, the teacher asked each student to start writing a paragraph about the job the student chose. Some students seemed serious and they started writing about the jobs that they chose. Most of the students were talking to each other and they were not paying attention to the teacher or the class work. Some students asked the teacher many time about some sentences they wrote about the job they chose.	I think it is a good size of an ESL class. There were talking to each other in English and Their native languages to translate to each other and to deliver some ideas to their classmates who spoke different languages. Some students were participating by suggesting some jobs and ideas.

One of the students went to the teacher's desk and asked about some sentences he wrote. The teacher gave him positive verbal feedback by saying "good job! Keep writing".	
Ten minutes before the end of the class, the teacher started checking the students' papers to see what they wrote so far.	I heard some words such "doctor" solider". The students were asking each other about these jobs if they were appropriate or not.
The teacher found some students who did not even try to write a word and told them they were supposed to learn English and not just to talk to their classmates in their native language and do nothing for the class.	
Two minutes before the end of the class, the teacher asked the students to stop writing and pay attention. Then, the teacher told them that they could keep their papers and complete their paragraphs at home and bring them back the next class.	
	The teacher tried hard to get them busy and engage them in the class work but no luck.
	The student got motivated when the teacher praised his writing and went back to his seat and kept writing.
	I think that the students who the teacher was taking to became embarrassed of their carelessness.
	I noticed that the teacher repeated and articulated some of announcements and instructions throughout the class to make sure that the students understood them.

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Document Analysis as a Tool in the Evaluation of an English as a Foreign Language Grammar Course

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Abstract

The present article reports on an evaluative study undertaken on a language course so as to indicate its strengths and weaknesses with the purpose of improving future ones. Third-year undergraduate students of Applied Linguistics at the Higher Institute of Languages of Tunis are supposed to receive grammatical instruction from a course labelled 'Communicative Grammar' (CG) following the theory of Communicative Language Teaching. In order to provide an account of the extent to which the current teaching practice conforms to the theory behind it, the main research instrument used in this study is document analysis. Analysis of the aims stated in the syllabus and the objectives of the course book revealed a significant mismatch between theory and practice. It showed that discrepancies exist especially in terms of content as the linguistic information specified in the syllabus and contained in the course book are not consonant with the type of content postulated by Communicative Grammar. Inadequacies exist also at the methodological level, mainly because the activities used throughout the course include linguistic activities instead of communicative tasks. Since this mismatch is attributed mainly to the teachers' academic ability, the article ends with some recommendations of suggestions that can be adapted to meet the daily challenges of improving learning in the classroom.

Keywords: course, evaluation, mismatch, practice, theory

1. Introduction

The place that grammar should occupy in a language classroom has been one of the most hotly debated issues by language teachers, applied linguists, and language teaching specialists (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Rutherford, 1987; Harmer, 1987; Prabbu, 1987, etc...). In fact, with the failure of traditional approaches to language teaching (The Grammar-Translation Method and The Audio-lingual Method) which were replaced by the Notional/Functional Approach developing later into Communicative Language Teaching, the place retained by grammar in language classes became unsure.

Some second language acquisition researchers and supporters of Communicative Language Teaching suggest teaching in which language learning is concomitant (Krashen, 1988;Prabbu, 1987). According to them, teachers should not teach grammar but should rather conceive circumstances to enable their students to acquire language rules. Accordingly, grammar came to be regarded as a language component that can be acquired naturally without any formal instruction. This entails that all students receiving such teaching can take time to assimilate the language through use.

However, while this approach might attain good results with language programs where teaching hours are spread all along the students' timetable, with students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), like the Tunisian ones who generally do not have enough time for the gradual acquisition of language, overt instruction of grammar remains prerequisite. In that respect, many teachers and researchers wonder if it is enough to provide students with rich and varied input and opportunities for practice and interaction with no clear teaching of grammar.

There are even strong proponents of Communicative Language Teaching like Celce-Murcia (1991), Ellis (1993), and Long & Crookes (1992) who stress the need to review the question of form-focused teaching in classrooms where the main focus is on communication. They consider that it is important to give prominence to form within task-based curricula. The results of the debate were summarized in the following statement by Thompson (1996): "In the consensus view of CLT [...], it is now fully accepted that an appropriate amount of class time should be devoted to grammar" (p. 9).

However, while the question of whether to teach grammar explicitly or not was settled with the view that Communicative Language Teaching is flexible enough to allow for that, there is still an inquiry on how much of the communicative approach is actually discerned in the classroom. Remaining doubtful about the shift that has genuinely transpired in language classrooms as a result of Communicative Language Teaching, Whitley (1993) says:

"Despite its active promotion in journals, conferences, and teacher training, most teachers have only a vague notion of what it entails, and visits to their classrooms often reveal a continuing reliance on earlier or idiosyncratic approaches, and even a determined preference for them" (p. 137).

Conjointly, Rivers (1987) admits the strong emphasis on teaching language for communication since the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching "but whether this has brought about a change in the average classroom is another question" (as cited in Rehorick, 1990, p. 285)

The present study is conducted within the framework of Applied Linguistics (AL), the study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems. Lynch (1996) defines AL as "research and practice concerned with the application of knowledge and methods from a variety of disciplines (e.g., anthropology, sociology, linguistics, psychology, and education) to the range of issues concerning the development and use of language" (p.1). AL concerns itself, among other things, with ensuring the success of the learning/teaching process. In so doing, it makes use of evaluation, which consists in the systematic gathering of information for purposes of decision making. Johnson (1989) calls for the need to provide feedback and information on all that may contribute to the construction of a language course (materials, syllabus, performance, teaching and learning roles, etc....). Nunan (1988) quotes Candlin and Widdowson advancing that "if language teaching is to be a genuinely professional enterprise, it requires continual experimentation and evaluation" (p. 9).

In order to provide an account of the extent to which the current teaching practice conforms to the tenets of Communicative Language Teaching, the following research questions were addressed:

- Is the syllabus designed according to the communicative needs of the learners?
- To what extent do the materials teach grammar with an emphasis on its use for communication? These questions should be highlighted briefly in the abstract.

1. Research Methodology:

This section describes the methodology used to answer the research questions asked above. It presents the data gathering instruments as well as the procedure followed for the data analysis.

1.1. Document analysis:

Because as Sheldon (1988) suggests, "whether we like it or not, these represent the visible heart of any ELT programme" (p. 237), the primary research tool in this evaluative study consisted in analyzing the course materials. Going in the same direction as Sheldon (1988), Patton (1987) argues that program documents can provide valuable information because they allow the evaluator to learn directly as he/she reads them.

Analysis of program documents in the present study involved analysis of the course description, that is the syllabus (Appendix A), and the textbook used in the classroom, as these are perceived to be the "route map of any ELT programme, laying bare its shape, structure and destination" (Sheldon, 1988, p. 238). The syllabus and course book were analyzed using a simplified version of Sheldon's (1988) and Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) checklists of evaluation criteria (Appendix B).

Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) checklist was originally designed to evaluate English for Specific Purposes (ESP) materials. However, the evaluation framework was deemed to be applicable to this study since the criteria could be used in any ELT situation. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) themselves argue that this type of evaluation should be a feature of any kind of ELT course as "there is nothing specific about ESP methodology. The principles which underlie good ESP methodology are the same as those that underlie sound ELT methodology in general" (p. 142).

1.2. Evaluation checklist:

The checklist is divided into three major sections; Aims, Content and Methodology, under which a number of questions was asked and answered. The main question under the category 'Aims' seeks information on the purposes for which the syllabus and the materials were written in the first place and on the gaps they are intended to fill.

There are three questions under the category 'Content'. The first question asks about the nature of the linguistic items introduced both in the syllabus and in the course book. The second question asks whether there is a discernible system at work in the selection and grading of these items. Question three checks the extent to which the linguistic items presented are appropriate for the purposes of the course.

The third section; 'Methodology', comprises three questions. Question one asks about the theory of learning the materials are based on. Question two seeks information on the kinds of tasks/exercises included in the materials (e.g. guided or free, problem-solving, role-play, simulation, drama, games, tasks involving visuals, or some other kinds). Question three asks about the teaching/learning techniques to be used with the materials (e.g. pair-work, small-group work, student presentations, 'lockstep', or some other kinds).

2. Results and Discussion

This section reports the results of the evaluative study. It consists of a discussion of the findings yielded by the research instruments and the methodology presented in the second section. The findings generated from document analysis are presented using the headings employed in the evaluation checklist (*Aims*, *Content*, and *Methodology*). The results of the materials analysis activity are interpreted qualitatively in the form of commentaries upon the answers to the questions asked in the checklist. That is, the activity consisted mainly of a description and a discussion of the content of the syllabus and the course book.

3.1 Aims:

The main question under this category focuses on the purposes for which both the syllabus and the course book were written in the first place and on the gaps they were intended to fill. More precisely, it seeks information on whether or not the course objectives as spelt out in the syllabus and in the course book are congruent with the overall goal of a CG course, which consists in the teaching and study of English grammar with an emphasis on the use of grammar for communication (Leech & Starvick, 1975).

The title of the syllabus suggests that the course is intended to teach 'Communicative-Functional Grammar' to third-year students of AL. However, what the curriculum committee has assigned for such students is a course labeled 'Communicative Grammar' only. This looseness at the level of terminology is indicative of inconsistencies within the course as a whole, for the title of the course should reflect its content and approach. In other words, it should be either 'communicative' or 'functional' as the difference between the two adjectives is not merely a matter of terminology but suggests differences at the conceptual level as well. Each of the two labels derives from a separate underlying theory and thus should adopt its own teaching approach.

The syllabus designers do not seem to be equipped with the necessary theoretical background which would enable them to make scientific and correct decisions regarding the exact language points to teach and the precise aims to focus on. The fact that they claim that the course is teaching 'communicative-functional' grammar suggests that they do not fully understand the essence of each of the two theories, that CG is something and Functional Grammar (FG) is something else, and that the two cannot be taught together because each one implies a separate method of teaching.

Reading the title of the course book, one can notice another major source of inconsistency. In fact, the course book is entitled Functional English Grammar (Graham Lock, 1996); it preserves only one of the two labels appearing on the syllabus (communicative-functional); and makes no reference whatsoever to CG. Thus, there is a clear departure from the instructions of the curriculum committee. Originally, what the curriculum designers have assigned for third-year students of AL is a communicative grammar course. However, from 'communicative' in the curriculum, to 'communicative-functional' in the syllabus, the students ended up attending to a course that teaches only FG since the course book used is only about functional grammar, and as Sheldon(1988, p. 238) suggests, course books are "the visible heart" of any teaching program.

Besides, the aims stated by the existing syllabus and materials appear to be highly opposed to the objectives of CG. The syllabus stipulates that the major aim the course seeks to fulfill is to introduce students to FG where the focus is on the "meaningful functions of grammatical forms and structures". Going in the same direction, the author of the course book states that the primary concern of the book "is with the functions of structures and their constituents". Thus, the approach implied in the syllabus and dictated by the course book is one which seeks to introduce students to *analysis* rather than *use* of language.

Analysis of the way the term 'function' itself is employed can be very revealing in this regard. In the course book, it refers to what the different classes of phrases and groups are doing in particular clauses. Accordingly, the main task of learners should be to try to identify the functions of grammatical structures (whether they are subject, finite, adjunct, etc). The functions meant by CG, on the other hand, are the ones developed by the Council of Europe (1972), and refer to the social purposes of a piece of language (describing, requesting, asking for information, introducing oneself, etc). Consequently, what students need to learn is how to use the structures of language in order to perform these functions.

It is clear, thus, that the aims of FG are not consonant with those of CG. FG deals with the functions of grammatical structures within clauses and sentences where the task of students is to analyze language in order to identify these functions. The CG advocated by the curriculum committee, on the other hand, should aim at teaching the social purposes for which language might be used, where the task of students is to relate the structures to their communicative purposes.

This section has focused on the course aims; namely, on the extent to which the objectives the existing syllabus seeks to fulfill on completion of the program are congruent with the ones a CG course should teach. It has been found out that the syllabus aims first and foremost at teaching FG which is very different from CG in terms of both content and methodology. This

difference will be further investigated in the subsequent sections which address more thoroughly the two questions of *content* and *methodology*.

3.2. Content:

3.2.1. Language Description:

This section focuses on the particular language points that the course is teaching. Reading the syllabus, one can see that there is no specification of particular grammatical points for students to learn. There is no discernible indication of particular structures or communicative functions in the syllabus, nor is there any demonstration of how students can relate particular structures to particular functions in order to use them for communication.

The syllabus cannot be said to be structural as well, for it does not lay out what structures are to be taught (e.g., present, past, present progressive, past progressive, etc). Nor can the syllabus be compared to the kind of functional syllabus in which students are taught how to express language functions (e.g., describing, introducing oneself, asking for permission, suggesting, requesting, etc). The syllabus is not communicative either; it does not tell how learners should relate particular structures to their communicative uses and meanings. Had it been so, it would have specified how various functions of language and different concepts can be expressed showing what particular structures are related to them.

The syllabus at hand focuses rather on the mechanisms that govern the different ways in which speech acts can be made. The syllabus is about functional grammar; the term 'functional' is used here not as a reference to that approach of language teaching that seeks to teach the social functions for which language is used, but rather relating to the functional approach to language itself. This linguistic approach seeks to describe and analyze sentences and texts applying Halliday's systemic functional linguistic theory where people analyze and explain how meanings are made in everyday linguistic interaction. Accordingly, what the syllabus and the course book are about is the functional interpretation of the linguistic system.

The students' task, according to this approach, is to understand, describe and analyze how language is structured for use. This type of content adopts a functional view of language. That is, the primary question it seeks to answer is how language is used. Students are called to learn how to explain the way in which a word or a phrase is employed in a sentence and what they learn here is not how to use specific words and phrases in particular communicative situations, as the claim is, but rather how to explain the internal relationship between linguistic units.

3.2.2. Content Selection and Grading:

The purpose of this section is to seek whether there is any discernible system at work in the selection and grading of the new linguistic items to be taught to the students.

The syllabus consists of five units which are presented in the way the chapters in the course book are organized. However, it selects only five chapters of the adopted book; which originally contains thirteen chapters. The syllabus designers do not mention the reasons for choosing those particular chapters to teach. In other words, the selection and grading of the course content do not seem to have been done on the basis of any predetermined needs analysis. Rather, it is the content of the course book that seems to have imposed what the syllabus should specify.

All the units that appear in the syllabus correspond respectively to the chapters figuring in the course book, except that there is a slight modification in the titles. Unit one in the syllabus, which represents the introductive unit and in which some basic concepts about functional grammar are introduced and illustrated, appears in the opening chapter of the book (pp. 1-21). The original title of the unit (i.e., title of the chapter in the book) is "Some Basic Concepts"; in the syllabus, it is "Introduction". The second unit stated in the syllabus, "Interaction or the Study of Interpersonal Meaning", is the ninth chapter of the book (pp. 174-191), and was originally entitled "Interaction: Speech acts and Mood".

The third unit, "Expressing Judgments and Attitudes: Modal Auxiliaries and Adjuncts and Modality", corresponds to the tenth chapter of the book (pp. 192-218), and was initially entitled "Expressing Judgments and Attitudes: Modal auxiliaries and Modality". Unit four corresponds to the eleventh chapter of the book. In the syllabus, the title is "Clause as Message: Thematic and Information Structure of the Clause"; in the course book, the chapter is entitled "Organizing Messages: Theme and Focus" (pp. 219-245). The last unit specified in the syllabus, "Combining Messages: The Clause Complex" corresponds to the last chapter in the course book, which was originally entitled "Combining Messages: Complex Sentences" (pp. 246-264).

The syllabus designers do not state on which basis the content of the course is to be organized. What could be noticed, instead, is that the grading of the content was dictated by the readily printed organization of the adopted book. In other words, both the selection and grading of the content throughout the course were imposed by the already existing materials. The syllabus designers do not seem to have selected and organized content from most needed to less needed for learners, nor from the general to the specific, but rather according to the questions addressed by the course book's author in each chapter.

3.2.3. Appropriateness:

It is beyond the scope of this study review the literature on FG; however, it would be useful for the purposes of elucidating the difference it has with CG to try to define briefly what it consists of. FG is a theory of the organization of language deriving from Halliday's systemic functional linguistics theory which centers on the notion of *language function*. While accounting for the syntactic structure of language, Halliday's theory places the function of language as central (what language does and how it does it), giving priority to more structural approaches, which place the elements of language and their combinations as central.

In Functional Grammar (Halliday, 1994), functional notions play an essential role at different levels of grammatical organization. These functional notions which represent the rules and principles of FG can be distinguished as follows:

- Semantic functions (Agent, Patient, Recipient, etc) which define the roles participants play in the states of affairs.
- Syntactic functions (Subject and Object) which define different perspectives through which states of affairs are presented in linguistic expressions.
- Pragmatic functions (Theme and Tail, Topic and Focus) which relate to the embedding of the expression in the ongoing discourse, that is, are determined by the status of the pragmatic information of Speaker and Addressee as it develops in verbal interaction.

FG offers a platform for both theoretical linguists interested in representation and formalism and descriptive linguists interested in data and analysis. It is a theory in at least three interrelated senses; first, because it takes a functional view of the nature of language; second, because it attaches primary importance to functional relations at different levels in the organization of grammar; and third, because it wishes to be practically applicable to the analysis of different aspects of language and language use (retrieved from http://www.functionalgrammar.com/).

There is a clear difference between the type of content of a CG course and that of an FG one. CG should aim at showing its students how to use specific structures in order to achieve particular communicative functions in specific situations. The syllabus and textbook made use of in the course under study, however, only teach the students how to analyze sentences and texts and to explain how they are internally structured.

So far, the researcher has analyzed the content of the syllabus and the course book comparing it with the type of content suggested by the curriculum. She/he ended up with the conclusion that they have divergent objectives and different linguistic content. It is clear that the top down instructions of the curriculum were frustrated by the syllabus and probably by the actual teaching practice. The curriculum stipulates that the course is to teach CG; but what the course is teaching, however, is FG.

To conclude the content section, it has been found that the content that is being taught does not match the one postulated by the curriculum. A thorough examination of the content has shown that it is essentially based on FG. The language description does not reflect aspects of communicative grammar, nor does the selection and grading of content throughout the course take into consideration the students' needs and preferences. This certainly represents a shortage since the prevalent theories on second and foreign language acquisition and Communicative Language Teaching suggest that students should have a say in what they should be learning.

3.3. Methodology:

3.3.1. Theory of Learning:

The first item under this category seeks information on the theory of learning the syllabus and the course book are based on. The aim behind integrating this point is to check the degree with which the learning theory of the materials is consonant with the one advocated by Communicative Language Teaching.

Starting with the syllabus, one can see that it does not clearly mention what theory of learning it is based on. The only clearly stated aspect of learning is that "the method is both deductive and inductive". Inductive learning is one characteristic of the communicative approach and suggests that learners are to be involved in genuine communication in order to find and understand how the system works on their own. Inductive teaching expects the learners to take responsibility for their own learning and makes their role in the classroom center while reducing that of the teacher. The more the course incorporates features of inductive learning the more communicative it can be said and vice versa.

As for the underlying theory of learning, the materials should be based on a theory that involves the learners in the learning process. That is, the learning must take place through natural

processes, which operate when the learners are involved in using the language for communication. However, the syllabus does not specify the kinds of techniques that will be relied on in the course. The claim that the method incorporates features of inductive teaching can be confirmed only after focusing on the kinds of tasks and techniques to be used by the teachers, which will be dealt with in the subsequent sections.

3.3.2. Tasks/Exercises:

This item evaluates the kinds of tasks the materials are based on and compares them with the ones suggested by the theory of Communicative Language Teaching. Tasks will be analyzed mainly as they figure in the book, that is, as a work plan (Nunan, 1989) to see the extent to which they are designed in such a way to foster natural communication in the classroom.

The syllabus does not specify the types of tasks that will be used throughout the course. However, one can still go through the tasks as they appear in the course book and try to assess their theoretical value. Besides the fact that they are based on content that does not teach communicative grammar, the activities do not seem to be designed in such a way as to allow for interaction in the classroom. Analysis of tasks revealed that most of them are of the type which asks students to identify the functions and the internal structures of sentence constituents, where students have to engage in controlled practice and work individually to answer the questions of the textbook. Following is a list of examples of tasks existing in the course book:

- Identify the Subject and Finite of each finite clause in the following sentences.
- Identify all the Adjuncts in this sentence from Extract 3.
- Look at Extract 6 in the Appendix :

  - Find at least one example of each of the following (declarative statement, Wh-interrogative question followed by a full declarative answer).

- Identify expressions of likelihood in the following examples.

- How would you categorize the modal auxiliaries in the following examples in terms of high, mid, and low likelihood?
- Identify the Modal Adjuncts of likelihood in the following sentences and rank each according to likelihood: high, mid, or low.
- Identify the expressions of requirement in the following examples.
- The following three versions of a text are identical in their experiential and interpersonal meanings. Which version reads best? Can you suggest why?

The above types of tasks cannot be compared to the ones suggested by Communicative Language Teaching theory both at the content and the methodological levels. In a CG course, the tasks must be based on content that places the learners in situations where they must use language as an instrument for satisfying immediate communicative needs. In terms of methodology, the course should make most use of free exercises such as role-play, simulation, games, tasks involving visuals, etc. The above kinds of tasks, however, which are almost all identical, only expect the learners to analyze and identify the functions of constituents of the language and do not reflect the communicative aspect of the course.

The activities are not designed in such a way to encourage genuine communication and exchange of information in the classroom in pairs and small groups. Communicative activities

require the design of real situations and real roles, and real needs and purposes for communication. It seems that the teachers do not distinguish real communicative activities from false ones. The tasks students are to work on can merely be described as linguistic activities, in which the students have to work each on his own in order to apply Halliday's systemic functional linguistics theory on sentences, and can by no means be compared to communicative tasks.

Besides, the course book, only source of input in the classroom, contains activities which are neither presented nor likely to be exploited in such a way as to keep the students motivated throughout the lessons. It is one that seems unenjoyable to use, with exercises and tasks that do not seem to give the students the opportunity to express their own ideas and opinions.

3.3.3. Techniques:

This section focuses on the techniques used with the tasks in the classroom. In Communicative Language Teaching, such techniques as pair and group work are features of a good communicative lesson. It is important at this point to notice that the textbook both students and teachers are supposed to work with is a teacher's textbook. As indicated on the cover paper, the subtitle of the book is "an introduction for second language teachers". The fact that the textbook relied on in the course is not a textbook for learners but one for the teacher is an additional factor that could explain much of the overlap surrounding the course. The book does not state how learners have to work either; whether individually, in pairs or groups, or in some other way beyond working out the linguistic tasks contained therein.

What can be deduced so far is that neither the teachers nor the learners were playing the roles assigned to them by the Communicative Language Teaching theory according to which the role of the teacher in the classroom reduces and that of the learner centres. In Communicative Language Teaching, the teacher is only a facilitator of learning. It seems from the materials analysis undertaken that the main role the teachers were performing is the traditional role of the language instructor which suggests that the teacher dominates classroom interaction. Students, on the other hand, seem to be passive recipients who do not contribute in the learning process.

Like with the aims and content of the course under evaluation, analysis of the methodology dictated by the book revealed that it represents another major source of discrepancy with the theory of Communicative Language Teaching. The materials to be used in the classroom only include linguistic activities rather than communicative tasks. The techniques to be used with the book seem to be old ones, which do not foster, and which even hinder, the creation of a positive communicative atmosphere in the classroom.

3. Conclusions and recommendations:

This section presents the main conclusions regarding the course under evaluation. Then, it moves on to a presentation of the main contributions of this work. A third major part is devoted to suggesting some recommendations for improving future courses based on the evaluation findings. The thesis concludes with a presentation of the limitations as well as the implications of this work.

4.1. Conclusions

Analysis of the aims stated in the syllabus and the objectives of the course book revealed that there is a significant mismatch between theory and practice. The existing syllabus aims

mainly at teaching FG dealing with the functions of grammatical structures within clauses and sentences and where the task of students is to analyze language in order to identify these functions and to understand how language itself functions. The aim of communicative grammar advocated by the curriculum committee, on the other hand, is the teaching of the social purposes for which language is used, where the task of students is to relate the structures to their communicative purposes.

Discrepancies exist especially in terms of content. The linguistic information specified in the syllabus and contained in the course book are not consonant with the type of content postulated by CG. The content is essentially based on the functions of sentence structures and their constituents. CG, on the other hand, departs from the question of how to teach the students a language so that they use it in real communicative situations.

Inadequacies exist also at the methodological level for at least three reasons. First, the *materials* made use of only include linguistic activities instead of communicative tasks. Second, the *teachers* seem to use old techniques which do not enhance the creation of a positive communicative atmosphere in the classroom. Third, the *syllabus* does not specify how teaching time is divided among the lesson phases, as the biggest proportion of time seems to be devoted to the presentation of new input through lecturing.

4.2. Contributions:

The main contribution of this work directly relates to curriculum development. The conducting of such an evaluative study was necessary in order to pinpoint the existing mistakes in the third-year Applied Linguistics curriculum. The evaluation findings have shown that the course clearly falls short of following the curriculum instructions. The benefit of such work is that it helps detect shortcomings in the course in order to overcome them and improve future practices. The results of such work are more fruitful if the recommendations made in the following section are followed by future teachers of the same course.

4.3. Recommendations:

An examination of the evaluation findings brought us to the conclusion that it is the teachers' academic ability that is at the heart of the discrepancies existing in the course. Therefore, the following recommendations can be made:

- Teachers should realize the importance of Communicative Language Teaching and try to catch up with the new trend.
- Teachers should systematically study linguistic theories and theories of second language acquisition in order to keep up with developments in Communicative Language Teaching. In fact, if teachers have understood the essence of Communicative Language Teaching and its scientific modification, they will acquire a positive attitude towards Communicative Language Teaching and teach more scientifically, avoiding errors.
- Teachers should spend time analysing learners' needs and designing their own syllabi. Since Communicative Language Teaching is concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner, teachers need to learn that learners should have a say in what they should be learning and how they should learn it.
- Teachers should collect suitable materials to create communicative tasks and activities.

- Teachers need to learn that teacher-dominated classrooms cannot by their nature be interactive; "interaction can be two-way, three-way, or four-way but never one-way" (Rivers, 1987, p.9). Real interaction in the classroom requires the teacher to cede a full role to the student in developing and carrying through activities.
- Teachers should draw students out and build up their confidence and enjoyment in what they are doing. An atmosphere of excitement and trust can be created where confident students initiate and cooperate in imaginative activities, sharing with each other real messages in authentic and exhilarating interaction.
- Teachers should realize that learning grammar is not listening to expositions of rules but rather inductively developing rules from living language material and then performing them.

In summary, teachers can be qualified in making creative decisions related to Communicative Language Teaching only if equipped with sufficient knowledge of linguistics. Accordingly, the most effective means of cultivating teachers' academic awareness is through proper in-service and pre-service teacher training courses, which should be organized to promote teachers' theoretical as well as linguistic abilities.

4.4. Limitations:

This section of the article addresses the limitations of this work; two main ones could be noted:

- The study relied only on document analysis and did not use systematic classroom observation in order to detect what actually goes on between teachers and learners in the classroom. But since the conditions under which instruction proceeded were clear from the document analysis activity, the materials analysis activity was deemed fairly reliable to understand and describe actual classroom practice. We hope that future researchers will increase the reliability of the findings by using classroom observation as an additional research tool.
- The course shortcomings were mainly attributed to the teachers' misunderstanding of the essence of Communicative Language Teaching. Yet, other possible constraining factors, such as the fast pace of lessons, the crowded classrooms, the unavailability of resources, may exist. Such administrative factors can prevent the teachers from appreciating the deserved value of Communicative Language Teaching and make teaching preparation a painstaking process. Thus, it is hoped that further research will take these factors into consideration.

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APPENDIX A

Communicative–Functional Grammar: A Course Description

Course Objectives:

This course has been designed for the 3rd Year students who are assumed to have acquired enough traditional, formal, and structural grammar in their secondary education and in the first cycle of higher education. They are ready at this level to be introduced to communicative-functional grammar which focuses on the relation of form to meaning. Therefore, students should make most use of their background knowledge of structural-formal grammar in order to be able to delve into the meaning conveyed by such a grammar and understand ***how*** messages are organized. It follows that this course seeks to fulfill the following aims:

1. It introduces students to language in use " by placing meaning firmly in the context of grammar " (Downing, 1995 : ix) and by " stressing the meaningful functions of grammatical forms and structures " (ibid : xii).
2. It introduces the students to the exploration of functional grammar where the focus is on semantic roles and information categories.
3. This course also serves as a bridge to courses in 4thYear and postgraduate courses namely those dealing with text linguistics, discourse analysis, genre analysis and pragmatic values and intentions in the framework of the speaker-hearer relationship.

Syllabus:

Introduction:

1. Formal and functional grammar
2. Levels of analysis : lexis, grammar, semantics
3. Some basic concepts: Subject, Finite, Rank, Class, Complement, Predicator, etc...

Interaction or the study of Interpersonal meaning:

1. The nature of dialogue : Questions, Directives, Exclamative and Imperative clauses
2. Speech acts and Mood
3. Mood structure of the clause including the structure of the Residue
4. Polarity and Modality

Expressing judgements& attitudes: Modal auxiliaries & Adjuncts and Modality

1. Likelihood
2. Requirement
3. Other areas of Modality

Clause as Message: Thematic and Information structure of the clause:

1. Theme &Rheme
2. Given & New
3. Theme and Mood
4. Markedness

Combining Messages: The Clause Complex:

1. Complex sentences & clausal relationships: Parataxis &Hypotaxis or Linking & Binding
2. Semantic relationship between clauses: Expansion & Projection
   2.1.Expansion2.1.1Elaboration2.1.2Extension2.1.3Enhancement2.2Projection2.2.1Direct Speech 2.2.2 Indirect Speech

Teaching Method:

Following the functional approach, the method is both inductive and deductive. It enables students to recognize and produce patterns of language. They have to perceive the relationship between what is said and the context of situation of the utterances. Authentic texts will be used for the purpose.

Reading Material and Practice Tasks:

The students' textbook is taken from Lock (1996), but further readings are selected from Halliday (1994), and Downing (1995). Exercises are selected from Lock and other various authentic sources.

APPENDIX B

Materials Evaluation Checklist

The checklist is adapted from Sheldon (1988) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987). Only the criteria that were felt relevant to the materials under evaluation were chosen and employed.

Aims:

1- Why were the syllabus and the materials written in the first place and what gaps are they intended to fill?

Content:

1- What new linguistic items are introduced in the syllabus and in the course book?
2- Is there a discernible system at work in the selection and grading of these items?
3- Are the linguistic items presented appropriate for the purposes of the course?

Methodology:

1- What *theory of learning* are the materials based on?
2- What kinds of *tasks/exercises* are included in the materials (e.g. guided or free, problem-solving, role-play, simulation, drama, games, tasks involving visuals, some other kinds)?
3- What *teaching/learning techniques* are to be used with the materials (e.g. pair-work, small-group work, student presentations, 'lockstep', some other kinds)?

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Programme Identity in Academia: The Case of One EAP Unit in the Arabian Gulf

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Abstract
Researching the identity of language education programmes in academia is critical because of the pivotal role these programmes play to induct students into the academic communities of their disciplines. Despite this criticality, there is markedly very little research activity in the area. Viewed as remedial rather than academic and peripheral rather than central to university education, these programmes sit uncomfortably in today's higher education, and their identity is often in tension and in a state of conflict. Principally set to survey departmental faculty regarding English for Academic Purposes requirements using a needs analysis framework, this research partially reports on doctoral research regarding the identity of one English for Academic Purposes unit at one higher education institution in the Sultanate of Oman. Qualitative data were collected from interviews, programme and institutional document review, and observation of the setting. Using an ethnographic approach, the paper situates the identity of the EAP unit within historical and contemporary discourse which became most visible at a time of institutional change. The status of the EAP unit, constructed and mediated through power, was discernible in both discipline (i.e., that the language programmes are remedial in nature solely existing to cover language-related gaps reminiscent of school level) and enterprise (i.e., that teaching English is not characteristic of academia). The paper ends by offering future research on identity a possible model for researching language education programmes in higher education.
Keywords: EAP, higher education, identity, Oman, status

Introduction

Research on the identity of English for academic purposes (EAP) as a field and as practice in higher education is not common. Perhaps the rapid development within EAP has led to a focus on the 'doing' rather than the 'being' and has delayed a treatment of programme identity. Hamp-Lyons (2011) characterizes the early beginnings of EAP as "grass roots, practical response to an immediate problem… [and] ad hoc, small-scale, quick fix" (pp.91-92). Theorization of EAP between pragmatism and critical theories is a recent trend. Additionally, Second Language Acquisition research, which applied linguistics has traditionally drawn from, has itself until recently been pursued from a purely psychological perspective (Menard-Warwick, 2005). Despite its criticality, the literature available on programme identity is anecdotal in nature, observational, purely theoretical or incidental (e.g., Al-Maamari, 2001; Daoud, 2000; Melles, Millar, Morton & Fegan, 2005).

The characterisation of EAP programme identity as incidental is premised on the fact that identity issues usually crop up in the treatment of other EAP areas. Such is the case in this paper, for issues of status and identity of language education programmes in a tertiary setting have come to the fore through a needs assessment study of three credit-bearing EAP programmes at one higher education institution in Oman. The study aimed to examine the assessment policies and practices in/around these EAP programmes. Therefore, in addition to this, in this paper the author further draws on more extensive documentary evidence to stress the importance of research into EAP programme identity. Such studies are timely especially as research in EAP makes the transition from the doing to the being.

While there are various frameworks for researching identity such as social identity theory, situated learning and community of practice and others (e.g., Gioia, Price, Hamilton & Thomas, 2010; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005), in this paper the author draws on social identity theory proposed by Tajfel (1978) and developed further by Hogg and Abrams (1998) as a theoretical and analytical basis to shed light on the identity of one EAP unit in tertiary education. This theory is appropriate as it defines identity in discoursal terms, thus allowing the data to be seen through relations of power.

To the best of my knowledge, no research has explored the identity of EAP programmes or units, centres and institutes despite their criticality in preparing students for their academic studies. In the same way, the very few studies which exist (e.g., Daoud, 2000; Melles et al., 2005; Pennington, 1991) discussed the status of EAP programmes, but have not attempted to theorize identity in the studied programmes. The study featured here attempts to firstly shed light on the identity of an EAP unit in one tertiary setting in the Sultanate of Oman using a social identity theory perspective, and secondly propose a framework for researching identity informed by this perspective.

The paper is organized as follows. After a brief literature review of identity theory drawn from educational research, the paper proceeds with presenting the classic debates in EAP at theoretical and institutional levels as a way to document the modest progress made in the research on EAP programme identity. Next, the ethnographic study of a language education unit at one higher education institution (HEI) in Oman is presented. Here, the data are triangulated with a view to offering a model for researching identity of language education programmes in

HE. Finally, the author concludes by (a) drawing implications for language education programmes in academia and the people inhabiting them and (b) justifying the need to research programme identity explicitly and directly.

Theoretical Framework

Educational Theories of Identity

To date, research on programme identity relating to language education in academic settings (EAP) is lacking. To compensate for the lack of research in this area and to advance the argument of this paper, the extant literature on academic identity based on educational research is reviewed. The theoretical frameworks for understanding identity here are more advanced (Henkel, 2005; Varghese et al., 2005).

Henkel (2000, 2005) reviews two theories of identity construction. Essentialist and liberal individualist theories of identity consider the individual as the bearer of the community tradition primarily responsible for forming identity. Identity here is a reflexive activity wherein the individual internalizes their own identity through continuously comparing the self with the available images of significant others. Building on Mead's (1934) symbolic interactionist framework, Jenkins (1996) proposes an identity interface based on an "internal-external dialectic of identification" (p.20), a definitional synthesis of oneself (i.e., private sense of academic identity, or claimed identity) and that defined by others (i.e., a recognized public identity, or assigned identity). Communitarian and interactionist moral philosophies construe identity based on the social interaction within which the embedded individual interacts. One criticism against communitarian theories of identity however is that they do not factor power relation differential into the equation of identity construction.

Further, while identity may be viewed through various theoretical frameworks such as Lave and Wenger's (1991) theory of situated learning and Simon's (1995) concept of image-text (Varghese et al., 2005), this paper utilizes Tajfel's social identity theory (1978) to study the identity of EAP. Social theory sees identity through the structure of social categories (i.e., nationality, gender, status, etc.), which are relational in power and status, thus depicting identity in positivist, dichotomous 'either or' categorizations. Though using this framework to research identity is limiting in the sense that it merely offers a cross-sectional and static picture rather than a longitudinal and dynamic evolution of identity, social identity theory is appropriate when an emphasis needs to be placed on the "concrete way of conceptualizing the hegemony—that is, unequal power and status relations—inherent in conflicting identities" (Varghese et al., 2005, p.37). In this regard, Bernstein (1996) argues that "the social construction of identity always takes place in a context marked by power relationships", thus forming a legitimizing mechanism by which disciplines "extend and rationalise their domination" (pp.7-8). Similarly, in second language education, quoting Mansfield (2000) Morgan and Clarke (2011) differentiate between identity theories which see identity as a 'thing' to be discovered, and theories of Foucauldian power which see identity as written by and legitimized through discourse and power.

Identity construction can be strengthened proportional to the degree of acquisition of social (e.g., editorial boards) and cultural (e.g., prestige) forces. Also, power differential (i.e., in the form of the institutional and academic freedom and sense of professionalism) contributes to

the construction of strong identities. Further, the interaction between discipline and enterprise happens as follows:

> The discipline and the enterprise modes of linkage converge in the basic operating units—the department ... or the institute is simultaneously a part of the discipline and a part of the enterprise, melding the two and drawing strength from the combination(Clark,1983,p.23).

This article focuses on the academic identity of an EAP unit as a case bounded in a particular context. The context is EAP teaching in a country where English is taught as a foreign language. Further, the author argues that both discipline (i.e., in the tangible forms of the unit or department or the curriculum) and the enterprise or HEI are fertile communities or contexts for the construction and manifestation of academic identities (Clark, 1983; Henkel, 2005).

EAP: Theory and Discourses

EAP as discipline and practice is a function of internal and external, political dynamics. The field has been characterised by a scarce body of literature and the absence of a solidly integrated body of research. Pennington (1991) and Melles et al. (2005) identify the challenge of the EAP field internally (theoretical tensions within the field) and externally (institutional challenges). Specifically, drawing on the work of John Swales (1988, 1990), Melles et al. (2005) identify the absence of (a) "a common disciplinary paradigm" and (b) "institutional skepticism" as impeding "a credible view of the [EAP] discipline" (p.296).

With regard to (a), the philosophical or conceptual nature of EAP as a field demonstrates the abundance of debate and dispute in its theories, discourses and practices—adding to the view of EAP as a growing yet an incoherent discipline of inquiry and practice. The debates are premised on arguments regarding the objectification of language (separation between language and content), the concept of remediation, and the polarized view of EAP as principally humanistic or pragmatic. With regard to (b), the institutional discourse also parallels and confirms the conceptual view—(a) above—by highlighting the secondary place and uncertain status of EAP within the academy. The paper will take (a) and (b) in turn.

Theoretical Discourse

Internally, EAP faces tension amongst its community of practitioners/researchers divided by debates between humanistic, ethical and critical approaches, and pragmatist and efficient approaches. The tension refers to the epistemological dichotomization between pragmatism and critical realism in EAP. Santos (2001) characterises this dichotomization as one between "an ideological approach to teaching, with its goal of sociopolitical transformation", and "a pragmatic approach, with its goal of socializing students into the academy" (p.177). This dichotomization defines the concomitant discourse—a discourse characterised by different and often conflicting conceptions, and different agendas, on how to conceptualise EAP and how to elevate the status of EAP within the academy.

Based on the taken stance about the nature of EAP (curriculum), the differences between pragmatist general and specific advocates also reflect different beliefs on ways to raise the status of EAP programmes in HEIs, where these normally reside. EAP generalists see education as

concerned with teaching grammar, rhetoric and culture as an option to elevate the status of the field (Raimes, 1991) in what is called "the butler's stance", a position which "overvalues service to other disciplines" and seconds them to marginal EAP units (p.420). In contrast, those advocating increased specificity in EAP focus on inducting learners into the community practices of the disciplines, thus overturning the generalists' argument:

> In fact the opposite is true. The notion of a common core assumes there is a single overarching literacy and that the language used in university study is only slightly different from that found in the home and school. ... EAP then becomes a Band-aid measure to fix up deficiencies. (Hyland, 2006, p.12)

Critical EAP theorists have a different conception of how to elevate the status of EAP units in HEIs. Benesch (1993) suggests that the "normative" discourse characterising pragmatist ideology is responsible for the marginalisation of the ESL curriculum. For this reason, Pennycook (1997) claims that "the conservative" pragmatic approach to EAP is not helpful:

> If one of the difficulties faced by EAP practitioners is marginalisation and displacement into a secondary role compared to the other disciplines, this problem cannot be overcome by accepting a role as a service department providing what other departments feel they need. (p.263

In summary, these differences have implications on the resulting curricular orientations and their view of the identity and status of EAP as a field with the pragmatists, based on their accentuation of either language or content, at times seeing a focus on language and skills as the basis for the discipline and its identity, and at times seeing it in the investment in the discoursal practices of the disciplines. By contrast, critical theorists, regardless of content type and form, reject the subordination of EAP to discipline subjects, thus highlighting the unbalance in the *status quo* and seeking a rebalance by fighting inequalities.

Institutional Discourse

The status of EAP generally and its programmes specifically inside institutional borders, or enterprise, which belongs to what Melles et al. (2005) dub "institutional skepticism" (p.296), is uncertain. Bolton (1990, as cited in Melles et al., 2005) claims that institutions view ESL/EAP as 'pre-college' instruction, (p.284), where any association with it is perceived to lower academic standards of the disciplines. Turner (1999) studied the institutional meta-discoursal conceptualisation of EAP, where notions of "service", "remediation", "language training" and "support" predominated (pp.64-65). This skepticism can be tracked to varying views of language teaching, one seeing it as a "preparatory or subsidiary activity for truly academic studies" and the other regarding it a "legitimate academic pursuit in its own right which can co-exist on equal terms alongside other aspects of professional preparation" (Malcolm, 1993, p.3). The *status quo* of EAP programmes or ESL Centres in HEIs is best described by Allison (1992):

> Such units—even though they may be called "centres"—typically occupy the periphery of university life, especially when it comes to wider curricular questions. Once a remedial brief has been accepted, such a state of affairs appears normal and

> right to many people, since remedial teaching, however laudable, is not what universities are for. (p.16)

Daoud (2000) states that ESP provision in North Africa suffers from "a status problem" (p.81). He contends that "current ESP/LSP practice is largely *ad-hoc*, lacking in course design, teacher training, sufficient instruction time, and proper evaluation" (p.77). This is attributed to three major factors: central control, institutional inertia, and resistance to the spread of English in an originally French-dominant educational and economic system. With regard to centralised control, Daoud (2000) writes:

> the agencies in charge of curriculum planning have a top-down approach. They do not listen to the practitioners in the field, allocate too little time for ESP instruction, and set common examination criteria that are at odds with the nature of ESP practice. (p.81)

Further, Melles et al. (2005) present a historical case study of one discipline-specific credit-bearing EAP programme at an Australian university, and "trace some of the discourses and practices that influenced its development" (p.291), showing its ebb and flow within the institution. The year 2000 saw the first discipline specific credit-bearing EAP programme, called *Introduction to Architectural Studies*, which was designed and taught by the Centre for Communication Skills and ESL staff. The name of the programme reflected the faculty's concern against a potential perception of the programme being seen as remedial. However, in 2003, because of a subject review, the programme extended its audience to other engineering students who were deemed in need of ESL instruction, and the name was changed to *Introduction to Built Environment Studies*, reflecting its broader nature and wider audience. Consequently, the content had to be retailored to more generic language and communication skills. Melles et al. pointed that the collaboration between the EAP staff and engineering faculty and its residence within the Faculty of Engineering were key to the success of the programme. One example of collaboration between the EAP and engineering faculty was feedback given by ESL staff on the lecturer's teaching style. However, cooperation was not unanimous across faculty and the predominant discourse at the University was not positive:

> Concerns about the subject have been voiced at various times in terms of … the compromising of Faculty standards, the status of the subject as a core versus an elective, and epistemological issues relating to whether language and communication skills are valued sufficiently in the Faculty to warrant a subject. (Melles et al., 2005, p.295)

In the end, the programme was abolished because some academics resisted the attempt by ESL staff to embed academic literacies in the curriculum coupled by the existence of double standards, with some staff employed as academics and others as general support staff. Further, because the CCS&ESL unit was dismantled, the programme was moved under another academic unit.

Pennington (1991) examines the image of the ELT profession in tertiary education from outside, and internally. Externally, she argues that the field is characterized by the abundance of acronyms/abbreviations (e.g., EFL, ESL, etc.). Further, Pennington points out that because of

ELT units' incongruence in terms of academic practice and scholarship compared to the disciplines, their location within the academic structure of organisations is variable and uncertain and is characterised by paradox; while like other disciplines they are interested in issues of instruction and curriculum, they generally perform a service function and do not count towards graduation or degree credits (Williams, 1995). Lastly, people and academicians do not perceive ELT and by interpolation the concomitant discourse about teachers and learners to comprise a specialised field of study—a position further facilitated by practitioners "mak[ing] it seem to others that the work we perform is natural, usual, and effortless" and by the absence of articulation of a statement "to codify what it is that we know and what it is that we do in ELT" (pp.12-13).

The Present Study

This paper forms a part of a PhD research study (Al-Maamari, 2011) which documented and critiqued the assessment policy and practices in and around three credit-bearing non-foundation EAP programmes at one English language centre (ELC) in a HEI in the Sultanate of Oman. This paper presents the needs assessment (NA) of that larger study from the perspective of departmental faculty, but further draws on more extensive data from the foundation English programmes to shed light on the identity of the language education unit as a whole. The main research question guiding the NA was:

What are the departmental faculty requirements of the EAP programmes with regard to reading and writing?

Research Context: Situating the Language Unit

The ELC where this research was situated was a language unit, which was separate from the disciplinary departments such as engineering, science, medicine, and others, which it existed to serve. The ELC offered both foundation (pre-sessional and non-credit-bearing) and non-foundation (in-sessional and credit bearing) English language programmes for the students enrolled in those departments. Upon entry to any HEI in the country, including the one under research, the students sit for a placement English language examination, where they are subsequently placed in one level of instruction in the English foundation programme (EFP). After completing the EFP or passing the Exit exam, the students then enroll in the credit language and subject programmes. While instruction for the credit-bearing EAP programmes was provided by ELT staff from the ELC, these programmes are part of departmental degree requirements, and so the departments are the commander in chief in determining their (dis)-continuation. Based on the data, identity issues permeated the English foundation and non-foundation programmes in the ELC. This is significant in that the foundation programme is much bigger than the non-foundation programme as defined by volume and student course registration, and it usually takes over two thirds of the ELC's resources directed at staffing, curriculum development, testing, etc. This predominance has resonance for the transferability of the findings and far-reaching implications for the identity of the ELC *writ large*. Therefore, the study's applicability to other English language centres with foundation and/or non-foundation English language programmes becomes more certain.

Research Methodology

Ethnography seemed an appropriate approach to study the identity of the language education unit (ELC) in relation to its institutional context from a cultural perspective. The

ethnographic approach allows us to focus our attention on the unit's cultural understandings, examine contextual practice, and explore multiple points of view (Watson-Gegeo, 1988).

Data Collection

Taking an ethnographic stance made it easier for the researcher to participate in various settings, and devote the amount of time required by an ethnographic study. Here, the affordances or the "distinctive assets and liabilities" (Merton, 1972, p.33) of this position of insiderness (Mercer, 2007) are teased to show how it helped the data gathering and analysis process in several ways: (1) access to and membership in a community of practice, (2) the nature of participant observation, and (3) the use of multi-methods for gathering data.

As this is an example of insider research, the researcher did not enter the research site "in a mindless fashion" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.302). The data collection happened when he was a language instructor in that institution, and time was therefore devoted fully to the research. Though during the time of research author had no teaching assignments as was the case before embarking on the study, he was a regular participant in the sense that he attended regularly, and participated in all public events that happened during the time he was in the site.

Further, being part of the community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) helped me stay in situ for four complete months. This insiderness enabled me to explore "the movement, instantiations, and effects of symbolic and material forms in various places" (Eisenhart, 2001, p.22) which involved the engagement in a series of "small talks", and witness firsthand major institutional meetings/events as will be delineated further below. These all helped me gather observational field notes, collect archival data, zero in on the dynamics of this setting and sharpen the focus of the interviews. Although such data were not of direct relevance to my research focus on assessment at the time, they helped me locate my understanding within "the interrelationships of factors" (Morrison, 1993, p.88), which would become important subsequently.

Not only physical presence, but ever since the fieldwork-proper ended, the researcher remained in the loop via electronic email, and various other communication means. Similar incidents to the one which were recorded and witnessed in the field relating to the status of the unit in the mother institution were repeated in November 2010, in the form of what was called 'The Great Debate between the Block System vs. the Semester System'. These helped me understand the "social relations" (Carspecken, 1996, p.42) taking place and reinforced my understanding of my data, long after leaving the field. At that stage, the researcher already matured into understanding my theoretical lens (Creswell, 2009), and sought to participate in the discussion unfolding in the ELC.

Further, the participant observation undertaken was more focused on observing the whole setting of the ELC as institution and the surrounding ecology, akin to the immersion called for by Morrison (1993). Therefore, my presence in the site was normal, though such membership further required that field notes could not sometimes be written as simultaneously as observation was carried out. Instead, those were recorded in my notebook or in the computer subsequently.

In addition to participant observation, the study utilized face-to-face interviewing, researcher reflection/journaling and analysis of archival records (Appendix A). The latter involved the collection of programme and departmental documents, and the review of institutional reports and handbooks. For the interviews, a total of nine department professors participated. Those were equally sampled from three Departments, some of whom held head of department positions (HoD). Recruitment of the professors for the interviews was initially done through the Administration of the Departments. Later however, individuals were contacted personally for concerns of data sufficiency and validity. During participant recruitment, participants were briefed about the research study where each signed a consent form, they were informed about the general research area, and they were sent the themes making up the interviews. Participants were also promised confidentiality and anonymity. The audio-recorded interviews, lasting approximately 30 minutes, were all conducted in English. The interviews aimed to "understand the shared experiences, practices, and beliefs that arise from shared cultural perspectives" (Brenner, 2006, p.358). In this sense, a major focus was firstly the faculty assessment of the students' overall ability in English, and secondly the departmental requirements of the EAP programmes with regards to reading and writing (See interview schedule in Appendix B).

Data Analysis: The Analysis Grid

The path pursued to develop the analysis was a marriage between ethnographic and critical realist approaches in the sense that different data methods were allowed to consolidate one another. The research saw the role of ethnography in constructing observations and producing a number of thick and "focused descriptions" (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999, p.50) in order to build a "primary record" of the events and processes in the site under study (Carspecken, 1996, p.41), but also in focusing the analysis on the power of discourse.

Though focused on assessment of learner writing and reading needs as perceived by academic faculty, data were examined as social practice in order to investigate needs critically (Shohamy, 2001), by focusing the analyses onto power differential evident in the discourse in both the verbal and written data. A central principle guiding the analysis was the excavation of the horizontal and vertical dimensions of the data. The horizontal (i.e., historical) dimension "refers to description of events and behaviors as they evolve over time" whereas the vertical dimension "refers to factors which influence behaviors and interactions at the time at which they occur" (Nunan, 1992, p.58). The research has attempted to highlight both the historical factors that shaped the discourse related to the ELC and the local factors that were being influential at the time of the research.

With these principles in mind, the analysis proceeded as follows. Upon transcription of the interviews, the entire dataset (including the field notes and all retrieved archival records) was transported onto NVivo 8, which is a program manager with the capability of storing, retrieving and analyzing qualitative data. In this program, the data were coded inductively over a long period of time and involved writing nodes and then categorizing them. Nodes were not pre-determined, but were grounded into and emerged from the data. As staying in situ focused the interviews initially, it was normal that the field notes were first coded. This involved singling out "critical incidents" (Tripp, 1993) and then providing focused descriptions based on their criticality in highlighting "the justification, the significance, and the meaning given to them"

(Angelides, 2001, p.431). Incidents are critical in the sense that when interpreted, any taken social action leads "in particular directions, and they end up having implications for identity" (Measor, 1985, p.61). Subsequently, the gathered records were examined for similar meanings. Finally, the interviews with the professors were coded selectively with the aim of highlighting identity in power and status terms. For each method, the process proceeded in creating free nodes (i.e., meaningful chunks of data), tree nodes (i.e., a collection of free nodes akin to categories), and themes. This horizontal move (from free nodes to tree nodes to themes) complemented with the vertical move (from field notes to documentary evidence to interview data) made up the analysis grid (See Appendix C).

Findings

The main findings of the study cut across three types of discourse, based on the analysis grid described above, and though themes are presented in solo in the forthcoming sections for reasons of presentation, in actuality these three discoursal triodes collectively make up, as well as offer a preliminary framework for researching, the identity of language education programmes in academia:

(a) Discourse of status—Records of the lower status of ELC in which the EAP programmes resided relative to the Departments.
(b) Discourse of being—Perceptions by the departmental professors related to the practice and importance of language education programmes in the academic setting.
(c) Discourse of change—At times of institutional change, attempts by the powers to be in the setting to abolish the foundation and non-foundation EAP programmes.

The term 'discourse' signals the fact that power relations did construct and reinforce marked identities in the environment where the ELC resided. Also, these discourse types related to instances where the EAP programmes' identity became visible with regard to discipline and enterprise, the former in the sense that they could not compete with content courses in the disciplinary departments, and the latter in the sense that they did not belong in HEIs.

Discourse of Status—Through Documentation

In the context researched, the status meta-language (See Turner, 1999) has been long institutionalized, which was discernable in both discipline and enterprise. In the HEI Website, the ELC in question was classed under "Support Centres" in contrast to "Research Centres" and "Departments". Formal correspondence (i.e., memoranda, letters, circulars) relating to academic teaching matters often saw the ELC separated from the Departments. In the Executive Bylaws of the Institution (2009), the ELC was treated under "support centres" with regard to its administration, despite these centres not performing a teaching function, and although the Bylaws made exception in this pedagogical area, this did not seem to be enough to elevate it to an academic unit. Remediation as well as so called "accelerated courses" formed part of the discourse within the ELC. With the national staff, who formed a minority, there was a sense of disappointment regarding inequity in academic treatment with regard to promotions and status in comparison to academic faculty within the various Departments and amongst senior Omanis within the ELC.

Further, drawing on the researcher's review of HEIs websites and the accompanying discourse, it is clear that the great variations on the type of job titles held by/given to teachers engaged in teaching students in EAP settings reflect the uncertain status and the unstable identity of EAP in the country. In some institutions, teachers are listed under "Staff" as opposed to "Academic Faculty". In others, they are treated on equal planes with academics and are given academic titles on the professorship scale. Still in others, academic titles are given based on qualifications so that PhD holders are given academic titles. In the ELC in question teachers including PhD holders were designated as "Staff" and followed a general scale in the sense that they were not given professorial titles. Further, examining the General Foundation Programme (GFP) Document reveals a significant difference about the manner by which these English language GFPs are perceived. Conducting a cross-comparison on the minimum academic qualifications required for teaching in the three areas of GFP (i.e., mathematics, IT and English) shows that while in Maths and IT the minimum qualification is a BA in mathematics or IT or a relevant subject and a teaching qualification, for English this is set to "a Bachelor's degree (in a relevant subject and taught and assessed in English) and a qualification in English Language Teaching (ELT) (e.g., CELTA, Trinity TEFL certificate)" (p.10). Further, in the Oman Institutional Classification Framework (2004), which is a classificatory framework of types of HEIs in Oman, it is stated clearly that GFPs are not part of higher education (p.28).

Discourse of Being—Through Interviews

Interview data with disciplinary professors revealed three important points related to their perception of the importance of language (teaching) as discipline and at the enterprise, or the HEI: (a) Teaching English is a school rather than a university business, (b) Study in the Departments as opposed to study in the language unit is the 'real world', and (c) Learning (teaching) English should be done at a very early age. One of the professors commented, thus

> English is learned at a very early stage, and I think trying to remedy English at the age of 18 is not working … My own children learned both languages at the age of 5. And by the time they were 16 and they went to finish from school, they speak perfect English and they speak perfect Arabic, and they can write both.

Another professor drew a distinction between learning English at the ELC and the learning that happens in the Department, and directly contrasted the inadequate proficiency level of the medical students after leaving the ELC and the improvement at the Department level:

> In the years students spend in our Department, they mature in the language, and in the confidence with the speech, so obviously there is a lot of language learning in the Department informally in our discussion with the students. … the students come to us [from the ELC] really hardly able to say two sentences continuously.

There was also skepticism from the Departments' faculty on the period of instruction that students spend learning English in the language unit, and skepticism about methods appropriate for teaching English at the ELC, specifically suspecting its assessment mechanisms. One professor stated:

> My suggestion, I already expressed it to your colleagues from the [ELC], is that you need independent, international evaluation of the final output from your centre

> [such as] TOEFL and IELTS exams. So, if a student passes through these international exams, then that's the best criteria.

These data reiterate comments often made in the literature, which see the purpose of language education programmes in HE as remedial in nature with the mission of covering the gap in English skills produced by the school system rather than see it as a field in its own right. Further, they regurgitate the conception that English is a school subject rather than an inseparable part of academic preparation.

Discourse of change—Through Observation

As was indicated at the outset of the paper, the original research sought to explore the assessment practices in and around non-foundation English language credit bearing EAP programmes. The historical review below relating to the major events incidentally coinciding with the data-collection period happened at a time of institutional change, and show tension in both discipline and enterprise.

During data collection in 2009, a discourse of change in the ELC was evident. This saw the abolishment of one of the two medical EAP programmes, both of which were offered by the ELC to satisfy the requirements of the department of Medicine. This left one single medical EAP programme struggling to maintain the original two programmes' standards. The whole medical EAP programme was upset by this change, as the medical department circumvented any consultative processes with them or the ELC *writ large*. Following Pillay (2004, p.132) on her investigation of the micropolitics of educational change, micropolitics can also manifest itself in 'silence', in this case the quietness of the medical department on the motivation of this change. Paradoxically, the interviews with the professors from the Department revealed that either the decision was the direct outcome of an external medical curriculum evaluation or that the change was not known to them. Ironically also, as evinced from the research, the Department faculty were still complaining about the students' language proficiency.

The ambiguity of the rationale for this restructuring was possibly contributed to by the pseudocompliant collaboration between the EAP medical programmes at the ELC and the various departments (Davison, 2006). This happened when the EAP programme was left to carry out the needs assessment on which to base the new programme with little contribution of data from the Department. This ended in a classic catch-22 situation: While research writing existed in the original EAP programme before abolition and non-existent in the Department, the reverse was true after the abolition. In other words, at the time, the EAP medical on-credit programme did not teach and assess the researched essay genre, and the new curriculum in the medical Department more recently emphasized research writing in its curricula.

In the case of the potential abolition of the engineering credit-bearing EAP programme, it was the direct result of the General Foundation Programme Standards (GFPS), which aimed (a) to prepare GFPs for national accreditation by the Oman Accreditation Council, and (b) to achieve minimal threshold quality benchmarks in FPs across the country. A discourse of apprehension in an already charged, volatile ELC was unmistakeable. The heightened activity between the credit language engineering programme and representatives from the respective Department culminated in the scheduling of a high-ranking meeting attended by policy makers

from both sides. The end outcome was that the engineering EAP programmes were allowed to continue, as they still do at the time of writing this paper. However, while the situation regarding the Department's perception of the importance of these credit-bearing EAP programmes may be far from resolved for good, the volatile situation pre-meeting best captures the accelerating tension between the language programmes and the envoys from the Engineering Department.

The third example took place *post hoc* data collection-proper, and it was also the direct result of the GFPS. The first signs of change to the EFP (English Foundation Programme) at the HEI surfaced one semester after the implementation of the whole foundation programme, which saw the institutionalisation of Maths and IT foundation programmes side by side the EFP. To this end, a discussion Forum was established by the ELC Administration to debate the possibility of the EFP change from a Block system (i.e., 8 week-long) to a Semester system (i.e., 16 weeks). From the proposal, the teachers read that the EFP was asked to align, similar to Hargreaves' (1983) "administrative convenience", with the Maths and IT foundation programmes, which were a recent arrival compared to the twenty-five-year-old English foundation programme. A sample of a few positional responses from a number of teachers, including the researcher, is presented below for illustration:

> The drive for many institutional changes is largely administrative yet there is little attention paid to the long-term, and sometimes even short-term, consequences which affect the real stakeholders, in this case the students themselves. [Participant 1, Omani EFL teacher]
> We should keep our students, especially our weak students, in mind when considering making a major change. Timetabling convenience should not determine how we operate. [Participant 2, one of the policy makers in one of the researched credit EAP programmes]
> If we can establish that the Block system isn't helping our students to succeed in English, then we as EFL practitioners are primarily responsible to seek to advance change. [Researcher]

Based on the ELC recommendations, the Institution's Council approved the EFP movement to a semi-semester system effective Fall 2011, wherein instead of students' sitting for final examination after an eight-week period, they now only sit for one final examination on two combined levels. This also meant that the EFP was now 'successfully' made to align with the Maths and IT foundation programmes. The consequences of this change, which will have profound pedagogical and assessment implications, remain to be seen.

Parallel evidence to the above can be drawn from the Symposium on National Programmes in Higher Education convened in 2004 at Sultan Qaboos University. The symposium aimed to outline a national policy on the placement of EAP in the enterprise, or the country's HE map. The proposal originated from SQU, as the leading HEI in the country, and was originally meant to solicit support for the displacement of English language centres/units from HEIs to fall outside the latter's borders. A group of ELT scholars, educationalists and practitioners met for two days over discussions and sessions. In the end, there was an almost unanimous consensus against this movement, as the participants saw in it an attempted threat to marginalise these units from the academy.

Discussion

The social identity theory of Hogg and Abrams (1998) offers a rich understanding of identity in contexts characterized by marked power relations. In this research, the identity of language education programmes is defined using the comparative category of status in relation to disciplinary programmes. Status, constructed and mediated through power, has achieved the highest visibility in both discipline (i.e., that the language programmes are remedial in nature whose sole purpose is to cover language-related gaps created at school level) and enterprise (i.e., that teaching English is not what universities are for). The case of the EAP unit in this context depicts an attempted or actual change in the structure and contents of the EAP programmes, fed from a perception by the institutional powers that these programmes are easily malleable as far as discipline and enterprise.

Varghese et al. (2005) identified three themes prevalent in research on identity. These are: (a) identity is multiple, shifting and in conflict, (b) identity is related to the social, cultural and political context, and (c) identity is constructed, maintained, and negotiated primarily through discourse (p.35). Though the absence of a cross-site comparison, by virtue of the longitudinal design of the study, the identity of the EAP programmes as multiple and shifting obtained; also, the conflict between the two entities (language & disciplinary programmes) has been captured in interview, observational and documentary evidence.

The social context of the HEI at the time of institutional changes and the political context in the shape of the introduction of the Oman Academic Standards for Foundation Programmes (OASFP), a form of state intervention (Levin, 1999), have produced this contrast and high visibility in discipline and enterprise between the language education and the content programmes. The prevalent discourse brought about by OASFP at the HEI sparked a discourse of EAP credit programmes' redundancy (Al-Maamari & Al-Sabti, 2013). The propensity of hastening to do away with these EAP programmes was pre-emptive, as OASFP do not on their own promise the improved quality of the curricula of the English language foundation programme or the increased proficiency of the students. In so assuming, the Engineering and Medicine Departments seem to have conflated potential change for actual or on-the-ground change, but this move has uncovered their conception of how remedial and redundant they perceived those EAP programmes to be (J. Swales, 1990).

Additionally, these meanings were embedded, preserved, and shared through discourse and did thus define the identity of the EAP unit. These discourses can be summarised in the following three-tier model:

(a). Epistemological discourse (e.g., Pennington, 1991): uncertain academic status of ESL/EAP staff, skepticism with regard to the worth of the language content or its use to faculty through embedding academic literacies, related perception of compromising discipline standards, and lack of data on effectiveness/quality of language programmes;

(b). Institutional restructuring discourse (e.g., Melles et al., 2005): structural and subject reviews and evaluations affect the institutionalisation of subject-specific EAP programmes and their sponsoring units or centres, turning them into generic programmes before eventually abolishing them, and changing the units and centres to "service" departments; and

(c). Policy and planning discourse (e.g., Daoud, 2000): top down policies ignore the special academic requirements of EAP programmes and ignore practitioners; the scarcity of resources renders increased professionalism for programme self-improvement unachievable.

What this research offers is the above model informed by and grounded into social identity theory. The model can be considered a possible framework for researching identity of language education programmes in HE from a power perspective.

Conclusion

The focus of this paper, the identity of language education programmes in academia, is a by-product of PhD research which investigated the assessment policy and practices in and around three credit-bearing EAP programmes at one Omani HEI. Utilizing ethnographic and critical analysis techniques, it has become evident that identity issues characterized the foundation and non-foundation English language programmes in marked difference to disciplinary programmes in the Departments.

To conclude the paper, two important points are highly important to state. The first is to do with the legitimacy of these credit and foundation language programmes to exist as part of HEIs. We as insiders (i.e., EAP practitioners) *believe* in the pivotal role of our programmes in helping students succeed in academia and inducting them into the academic disciplines of their specializations. In addition to the immense work with which we usually engage in materials development and testing, we also need to pay attention to the quality of learning opportunities that these programmes purport to offer to EFL students.

The second is to do with researching EAP identity directly and explicitly rather than rely on incidental evidence, theoretical philosophizing, or anecdotal observation. This presupposes an identification of a research programme with EAP programme identity as an important research dimension. Up to now, most research on the identity of ELT has restricted itself to researching learners and teachers (e.g., Norton, 2000; Pennington & Richards, 2016); the identity of language education programmes or institutions has not been seriously studied. Researching identity directly with maximal capitalization on both breadth and depth research designs is timely. Such studies can recruit participants who are high in the administration ladder in HEIs, henceforth affording an in-depth exploration of further venues, spaces and discourses.

Postscript

The research study including this paper write up was completed in 2011; subsequently , the manuscript underwent several reviews before it finally made its way to publication. This is the right time: The English language unit in question has been changed by force more recently, and has lost its long-earned name. Instead, it is now assigned a new generic label, once more depriving it from its core identity as a unit with an English language teaching mission, and reiterating once again the validity of the arguments presented in the above study.

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Appendix A Data Sources

List of fieldwork critical incidents

- General foundation programme standards (GFPSs) meetings (Language Programmes with corresponding Departments)
- GFPSs discussion board (Block vs. Semester System Debate)
- ELC orientation to disciplinary Departments
- Institutional Meeting with ELC & Departments to discuss GFPSs
- Symposium on National Programmes in Higher education

List of retrieved archival data

- HEI website
- Letters of formal correspondence
- Executive bylaws of institution
- Staff and programme policy documents at ELC
- General Foundation Programme Document
- Oman Institutional Classification Framework

Interviews (See schedule in Appendix B below)

Appendix B Interview schedule for departmental professors

(a). Faculty assessment of students' English level

(b). Coordination between Language Unit & Department

- Department knowledge about Language Programme related to Department

(c). Needs Analysis

- Writing/Reading requirements by the Department
- Opinions about tasks which students do when they join Department
- Departmental variation/expectations

(d). Progress/changes

Students' progress over the years at Department and their language skills

Appendix C Analysis Grid: methods vis-a-vis analysis paths

NVivo free nodes	Tree nodes	Theme
* Medical EAP programme not informed about rationale for change * Little cooperation about earlier needs assessment from Department	Communication issues	Discourse of Change
* Scheduling of meeting by engineering Department to talk about need for programme * ELC called upon to explain role to whole institution * ELC called upon to explain programmes in relation to GFPSs	Call to meeting	
* Apparent (announced) aim of set-up discussion board * Actual (interpreted) aim of set-up discussion board (administrative, timetabling convenience, not owning change) * Aim of Symposium on National Programmes in Higher Education	Apparent vs. actual aims	
* Attendance not good * ELC staff speakers, and Departments' staff listeners * Monologue, not much discussion as anticipated * Meeting of language professionals from all around the country for Symposium	Ensuing discourse	
* One medical EAP programme abolished * Final outcome of symposium: rejection of proposal * English FP aligned with Maths/IT FP	Final outcome	

NVivo free nodes	Tree nodes	Theme
* Two divisions in HEI Website: Centres vs. Departments	Hierarchical	Discourse of

* ELC under Support Centres * ELC subordinate to Departments in order of reference in formal correspondence	status	
* Titles & promotion in ELC intermediary between administrative and academic status * Inconsistent titles given to staff teaching in these language programmes	Lower title & promotion status	
* ELC separated in teaching matters compared to other support centres in Bylaws * Academic requirements for teaching in English FP less than in Maths/IT FP * In Classification Framework of Oman's Institutions: FPs not part of HE	Lower academic status	

NVivo free nodes	**Tree nodes**	**Theme**
* English is a school, not university, business * Language learning happens at Departments in a transformative way * Language learning happens at Department informally successfully * Departmental study is the real world * Based on faculty education experience, there is no need for ELC. Study at the Department is the reality	View of language (learning)	Discourse of Being
* Example of faculty children learning English when they are at a very young age * I learnt English through memorizing lots of words * Learning English should be done at a very early age	Schooling perception	
* The faculty questions the time the students spend in the ELC without language improvement * The faculty does not think the students' English benefit in the ELC	Role & perceptions of ELC	

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Issue of Identity and Boundary between Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching

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Abstract

This paper examines debate in applied linguistics stemming from disputes surrounding its nature, scope and relationship with theoretical linguistics and English language teaching. The paper inspects radical ideas on applied linguistics and the discipline's connection with linguistics and English language teaching, through an examination of conflicting definitions and contemporary research interests. Set against the theoretical frames of post-modernist and post structuralist perspectives, the discipline of applied linguistics presents a wide spectrum of perceptions and models, ranging from the restricted to the open field. The current crisis of identity and boundary between applied linguistics and English language teaching is traced to historical and conceptual premises. The historical development of the field and the main changes affecting its focus are correlated with the global spread of English and the ensuing concerns. The conceptual premise is addressed with respect to the changes in the linguistic theory. The position adopted in this paper is that applied linguistics is not an extension of English language teaching. Applied linguistics incorporates English language teaching or language in the classroom perspective and with the same clarity and precision offers through disciplined and methodological enquiry a macro frame that incorporates all aspects of language in communication. The paper concludes with the proposition of two frames in applied linguistics, each with specific concerns and possibilities: a macro applied linguistic frame which considers applications of language within the large area of interdisciplinary language-related studies, and a micro applied linguistic frame which considers pedagogic and educational concerns and is reserved for ELT.

Keywords*:* applied linguistics, ELT, macro and micro frames, post-structuralist, post-modernist.

Introduction

Controversy surrounding the substance and practice of applied linguistics remains a strong feature that indicates lack of agreement on the nature of the discipline, its scope and target, specifically in relation to theoretical linguistics and English language teaching (ELT) (Kaplan, 2002; Davies, 2007; Cook, 2005). Widdowson (2006) perceives that despite institutional recognition for the field of applied linguistics, consensus in relation to what the term actually encapsulate remains a long term goal.

Radical proponents of the pedagogic perspective perceive that applied linguistics should be solely concerned with language problems in the classroom setting (Stern, 1983; Catford, 1998; Lantoff, 2000). While contemporary research considers applied linguistics as an open field (Rampton, 1997) of meticulous enquiry into contexts of application where language, and not necessarily English, is the main focus (Kendon, 2004; Kress & Van Leeuwan, 2001).

The aim of this paper is to explore contemporary arguments and research interests in applied linguistics to identify the scope of the discipline and hence contribute to profiling its nature and characteristics, both in relation to theoretical linguistics and English language teaching(ELT).

Issue of Identity and Boundary

The Nature and Scope of Applied Linguistics

Grabe (2002) proposes that contemporary applied linguistics includes linguistics but is not merely linguistics; it is relatively new and few people understand it. Within its bounds, it includes several perspectives that recognize overarching connections between predominant entities and develop theoretical models that can account for practical language use in diverse contexts. Kramsch notes (2000), "the field of applied linguistics speaks with multiple voices". It incorporates multi-disciplinary knowledge and is, therefore, of necessity, interdisciplinary (p. 317).

Cook (2003) and Davies (1999) explain that in the last twenty years, the field of applied linguistics has considerably expanded to transcend the familiar territory of traditional scholars, and this, in Cook and Davies' view, constructed the basis of the controversy in setting the discipline's current boundaries and defining its focus. Cook (2006) confirms that applied linguistics has come to mean many things to many people.

On the one hand, traditional scholars have recognized applied linguistics as bound in focus and orientation to making language pedagogy more effective (Catford, 1998; Lantoff, 2000; Stern, 1983). Traditional views have always associated studies on language with the educational enterprise. On the other hand, more recent scholarly works brought new conceptions of applied linguistics that make no mention of language teaching, e.g. Kaplan (2002), Schmitt & Celce-Murcia (2002), Kress & Van Leeuwan (2002), Cook (2003), and Gass & Makoni (2004).

Contemporary Research in Applied Linguistics

In exploring contemporary works in applied linguistics, new research interests emerge that developed beyond the pedagogic focus of the classroom. A major contributor to the discipline, Fairclough (1999) focuses his works on investigating the relationship between language and

power in the context of British politics and institutional discourse. Goddard (2002) explores the language of advertisement and electronic texts. North (2007) focuses within applied linguistics, on the role of new technologies in supporting the development of language and literacy skills. Van Dijk (1989) works on racial prejudice in language. Stubbs (2001) presents discourse prosody as an area of enquiry. Hart (2013) explores novel applications that incorporated socio-cognitive approaches in discourse analysis, to evaluate grammar patterns and structural configuration.

From a sociolinguistic focus Swann (2012a, 2012b), researches within applied linguistics, areas pertaining to the interrelationship between language, gender and sociolinguistics. Maybin (2012) authors courses for the Open University on the informal language and literary practices of children and adults, within the area of applied linguistic. Cook and Walter (2005) explore language rituals and language play within the discipline of applied linguistics. In contemporary research the focus of applied linguistics expanded beyond English language teaching and the classroom context.

Expanded Fields of Enquiry

In proposing new connections and orientations, Eckert (2013) examined the relationship between linguistic variation and social identity. Rampton (2014) explores through ethnography, ethnicity and language in adolescent communication. Macdonald (2001) focuses within applied linguistics, on the relationship between graffiti and identity and their role in the emergence of subcultures in London and New York.

Furthermore, in expanding the context of language investigation, Wilson (2009) researches within applied linguistics the language of inmates to explore prisoners' efforts to maintain social rather than institutional identities. Woodak (2000) explores the construction of national identities through language and discrimination in mass media and politics in Austria.

In extending notions of language to semiotics and communication, Scollon and Scollon (2003) employ visual semiotics in considering discourse. Chandler (2007) focuses extensively within applied linguistics on visual semiotics in relation to gender and identity.

This overview of contemporary works in the field of applied linguistics reflects a wide array of interests that transcends theoretical linguistic models and is at the same time not restricted to language teaching. Rutten (2014), in the 48th anniversary of the linguistic societies in Europe, proposed a shift in focus from structural assessment of language and language contact to explore the stakeholders' sociolinguistic conditions of the language contact, explicitly in terms of attitudes, perceptions, ideologies, identity and planning. Language analysis focused on levels beyond the correct applications of grammar and phonologic rules.

It follows from the above that contemporary research in applied linguistics expanded to include pedagogic interests, political interest, socio-cultural concerns, socio-cognitive approaches, visual semiotics, in addition to interests and applications that attempt to solve contemporary concerns where language, in all its forms, is the main feature. Our first proposition, therefore, is that the field of applied linguistics has expanded in recent years to focus on all aspects of language use.

Applied Linguistics and Contemporary Theoretical Frames

Post-Modernist and Post-Structuralist Influences

Current theoretical perceptions on applied linguistics are rooted in the post-modernist and post-structuralist thoughts of the 1980s. With the rise of relativism (Peim, 1993; Block, 1996) new possibilities were explored that extended beyond the structural realms of linguistic theory. Peim (1993) proposes a chaotic model of applied linguistics in which,

> the implications of post-structuralist, sociological and sociolinguistic theory throws into doubt all the language practice of (the discipline) English…the realization of a general field of language and textually systematically excluded from English represents greatly extended possibilities…to reconstruct English language and textuality to address issues of race, class and gender, issues in relation to culture and democracy, concerning among other things language differences and power… means to be literate (pp 8-9)

Against the stipulated structural models, Block (1996) argue for an approach to language study that is, "extremely sensitive to changes of context" (p.77). Views on the necessity of perceiving harmony with context in language use and the diverse types of knowledge and performance started to mark a new belief in the inability of any single theory to account for a phenomenon by reducing it to elementary systems. Block proposes (1996), "that we evaluate (language) theories in relation to context and purpose" (p. 77).

Critical Theoretical Models

Fairclough (1989) advocates a critical theoretical model of language studies in which he suggests that a theory on language study cannot content itself with an evaluation of the distribution and classification of language units. Fairclough (1989) proposes the need to treat language holistically and apply critical discourse technique to

> show up connections which may be hidden from people – such as connections between language, power and ideology … to study and analyze social interactions in a way which focuses upon the linguistic elements, and which sets out to show up their generally hidden determinants in the system of social relationship as well as hidden effects they may have upon that system (p.5).

Pennycook (1994) provides a similar view on an approach that, "offers a number of possibilities for engaging critically with language and meaning … (that) locates the context of language user, the speakers and their interaction in a wider social, cultural and political context.."(p. 133)

Post-structuralist and post-modernist critiques on language study, therefore, paved the way for an explanatory theory on language that extends beyond the normative perspectives of the linguistic or the social, to account for centripetal and centrifugal forces entwined with the language application. Hammersley (1996) explains, "a central feature of both linguistics and much social science in the twentieth century has been a rejection of normative approaches in favour of an exclusive concern for factual inquiry" (pp.4-5).

Extreme Open models

From an extreme post-modernist view, Rampton (1997) proposes a fluid theoretical model of applied linguistics that involves all users. Rampton's (1997) model is:

> understood as an open field of interest in language, in which those inhibiting or passing through simply show a common commitment to the potential value of dialogue with people who are different, there is no knowing where, between whom or on what the most productive discussions will emerge (p.14).

Brumfit (1997, p. 91) frames the discipline more reservedly, as concerned with the task to "theorize and analyze social roles and institutions which address language problem". Brumfit's model is structured around the notion of applied linguistics as, "the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue" (1997, p. 93). The contemporary theoretical frames of applied linguistics yield models of a wide spectrum, ranging from the focused and restricted to the relativist, open field and even chaotic archetypes. The following section examines the models from theoretical and pedagogic perspectives.

Applied Linguistics and Linguistics

Accommodation or Expansion?

From a more focused perspective, Brumfit (1997) perceives applied linguistics as "the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue" (p.93). In attempting to position applied linguistics in relation to linguistics beyond mere accommodation, the discipline incorporates, in practice, expanded fields of investigation where language is the main concern.

Davies (1999) explains that the purpose of applied linguistics is to solve or at least ameliorate social problems involving language. The current applications, as evident in the above review, did not confine language investigation to the reconfirmation of the subfields of phonetics, phonology, syntax or morphology. Wilkins (1997) provides:

> In a broad sense, applied linguistics is concerned with increasing understanding of the role of language in human affairs and thereby with providing the knowledge necessary for those who are taking language related decisions, whether the need for these arise in the classroom, the workplace, the law court, or the laboratory (P.7).

The structural components of theoretical linguistics: sounds and their production, words and their formation, sentences and their organization are enacted in applied linguistics to serve particular cases of enquiry. Schmitt & Celce-Murcia (2002) perceive that, "applied linguistics is using what we know about language, how it is learned, and how it is used, in order to achieve same purpose or solve some problems in the real world" (p.1).

Contemporary Language Applications

Following the expansion of English to become an international language, "the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue" (Brumfit, 1997, p. 93) revolved mainly around communication in English in the global context. The focus

of western scholars turned to miscommunication, racial discourse, media and institutional discourse, among other fields of language application.

Contemporary research in applied linguistics identifies new language applications introduced by a large variety of approaches to language and discourse (Flowerdew & Li Wei, 2013). Existing sub branches of the field now include: language and education in areas of studies pertaining to first language and additional language; clinical linguistics; neurolinguistics and the study and treatment of speech and communication impairment; psycholinguistics and the study of psychological factors that enable the comprehension and production of language; language assessment and testing; the evaluation of language achievement and proficiency both in first and additional languages; workplace communication and how language contributes to the nature and power relations in institutional discourse; language planning and decisions about official status of languages and their institutional use; computational linguistics and the use of computers in language analysis and use; forensic linguistics and linguistic evidence in criminal and legal investigation; literary stylistics and the relationship between linguistic choices and literary effects; critical discourse analysis and persuasive uses of language; marketing and politics; translation and interpretation; lexicography and the planning and compiling of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries and thesauri; pragmatics and sociocultural and ethnographic communication.

It follows thus that, due to the nature of its focus and since the field of the language application is frequently associated with social and psychological contexts of politics, power, culture, ideologies, perceptions and others, applied linguistics has moved beyond the structural components of linguistics to examine interdisciplinary phenomena arising from the intersections between the fields of theoretical linguistics, pedagogy, psychology, ethnography and sociology.

The analysis of the conditions and consequences of the language application mandates interdisciplinary assessment that cannot be confined to pure theoretical linguistics profiling. Our second proposition, therefore, is that theoretical linguistics remains concerned with structural linguistic description while applied linguistics involved the application of knowledge that stems from linguistics to practical interdisciplinary matters that involves language use.

Applied Linguistics and ELT

Dependency or Autonomy?

As mentioned earlier, controversy surrounding the nature and scope of applied linguistics raised concerns on its focus. The golden enterprise in real world problems involving language was English language teaching which was exported to the globe, in all its English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as an Additional Language (EAL) forms. As a consequence of this fragmentation, applied linguistics started to slip back towards the orbit of linguistics as propositions started to resurface that applied linguistics is no more than the application of linguistics.

In this contemporary period and following the above discussion, two radical positions on applied linguistics emerge: the position of pioneering scholars who advocate applied linguistics as a dynamic and interdisciplinary field, embracing several perspectives and theoretical trends, and the position of orthodox scholars who continue to exert unyielding opposition to any

exploration that challenges the English language teaching (ELT) oriented conservatism. Applied linguistics remained vehemently defended against explorations beyond ELT focus.

Smith (2011) refers to "a current crisis in the relationship between applied linguistics and English language teaching" (plenary address). Smith (2011) identifies three substrands of the crisis that underlined the controversy, "a crisis of neglect; a crisis of unfulfilled possibilities and a crisis of faith".

The crisis of neglect refers to the inadequate treatment of the field of applied linguistics by traditional ELT practitioners. The fossilized views, maintained by academics of the previous decades whose conceptions of applied linguistics constrain it within the realms of 1970 theories, restricted conceptualizations of the discipline to linguistic driven notions. This resulted in stunted acknowledgement of its subfields. Applied linguistics, for these academics, remains the application of linguistic theory to practical tasks with the overall aim of improving English language teaching.

The crisis of unfulfilled possibilities marked overlooking the interdisciplinarity progression of the principled eclecticism that applied linguistics offered, between practice and a variety of possible source disciplines, incorporating social, political and educational considerations, to name but a few. Proponents of disciplinarity defended discipline orthodoxy within area studies, on the basis of attaining good scholarship. However, "embracing silos" has come under a lot of criticism by contemporary scholars who argue that disciplinarity, or the belief that academic work should suffice itself by its internal standards, can no longer be valid in the twenty-first century, specifically when knowledge requires more predisposition towards larger frames that can provide a more coherent and holistic representation. Frodeman (2013) argues that living in an age where academic autonomy is increasingly monitored by greater demands for accountability to society would require academics to recognize interdisciplinary trends and work with them, rather than mindlessly dismiss them. Orthodox views on pure disciplines were no longer sufficient for the state of knowledge required in the twenty-first century (Grabe, 2010).

The crisis of faith identifies doubts in the minds of conformist ELT proponents and disbelief in the ability of applied linguistics to embrace vast applications of language, above the clause level, that can inform long established theories such as Saussure's structuralism (1967), functional linguistics (Halliday & Hasan, 1989), semantics (Jackendoff, 1990; Levin & Pinker, 1991; Schiffrin, 1987), pragmatics (Austin, 1962; Levinston, 1983; Leech, 1983; Van Dijk, 1977; Yule, 1983), cognitive evaluation (Geeraerts, 2006; Croft & Cruse, 2004; Tyler, 2002; Evans *et al*, 2007), as well as pedagogic and developmental areas.

Autonomy and Interdisciplinarity

Despite fluctuating conceptual opinions, applied linguistics continued to develop beyond ELT boundaries. Spolsky proposes, "applied linguistics is now a cover term for a sizeable group of semi-autonomous disciplines, each dividing its parentage and allegiances between the formal study of language and other relevant fields, and each working to develop its own methodologies and principles" (Spolsky, 2005, p. 36).

According to Brumfit, applied linguistics must draw on psychology, sociology, education, language teaching, success and failure, cultural and gender issues, technology and lack of resources in its attempt to find solutions to real world problems (1997).

Widdowson (1997) proposes to differentiate between perceptions of "linguistics applied" and "applied linguistics". In his seminal work on Models and Fictions, Widdowson (1984) explains that, "applied linguistic can be understood as a kind of linguistics, like historical linguistics or folk linguistics. This presumably allows its practitioners to define an independent perspective on the general phenomenon of language and to establish principles of enquiry without necessary reference to those which inform linguistics. With linguistics applied we do not have this option. Whatever, we do with linguistics; however we apply it, the informing principles which define this area of enquiry, already pre-established, must remain intact"(p. 21).

It follows that linguistics applied is theory-driven application that tests the extent of a specific linguistic feature, while applied linguistics is an autonomous and problem oriented discipline. Our third proposition is that while linguistics applied is solely focused on ELT and its subcategories of ESL, EFL and EAL, applied linguistics is concerned with all contexts of language use, beyond the classroom. The following section provides a chronological analysis of the development and change in the field of language studies.

The Chronological Perspective

The Historical Premise

Cook (2005) identified three historical phases contributing to the change in focus and the resulting controversy: the pre-1980s period, the pre-1990s period and the present time. According to Cook (2005) each period was associated with a change in the conception of applied linguistics as well as a change in its perspective and focus.

In its early use, applied linguistics was taken to mean a more linguistically informed approach to language teaching. Between 1960-1970 it was taken for granted that applied linguistics was about language teaching. Early applied linguistics was largely seeking to bridge the gap between the theoretical linguistics and the reality of classroom pedagogical practices. One of the factors that contributed to this association was the development of second language acquisition field of study, following the spread of English to non-native contexts of use. Therefore, in the minds of English language practitioners of the period, English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL), as ELT precepts, became synonymous with applied linguistics. In 1970s two new trends were developed: contrastive linguistics and the psychology of second language learning, both seen from the perspective of classroom needs. Therefore, the development of applied linguistics gained more territory, as an ELT-focused discipline, with the increasing interest in EFL and ESL. The popularity of the term grew later on when journals and institutes in many countries embraced this designation.

Progressive Recognition in Research

Since 1980 the term, applied linguistics, has begun to be used to refer to a growing diversity of language-related areas beyond pedagogic contexts (Brumfit, 1991). The Journal of Applied Linguistics published by the University of Michigan, which was one of the most prominent orthodox journals belonging to the orthodox tradition of Charles Fries and Robert Lado, started

to accept in 1993 a range of coverage beyond the pedagogic context. This in itself constituted a significant departure from the traditional ELT oriented perspective. The journal's editors remarked that they encouraged the submission of manuscripts from diverse disciplines, including applications of methods and theories from linguistics as well as culture, cognition, pragmatics, psycholinguistics, cognitive sciences, ethnography, ethnomethodology, sociolinguistics, sociology, semiotics, educational inquiry and cultural studies.

Moreover, the contemporary brochure of applied linguistics of Mouton de Gruyter, one of the world's leading publishers in the fields of linguistics and communication now includes a diverse range of humor studies, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, rhetoric, language teaching, language acquisition (L1 and L2), psycho/neuro linguistics, text processing, translation, computational linguistics, corpus linguistics, machine translation, language control and dialectology. Routledge series on applied linguistics now publishes in the areas of intercultural communication, pragmatics, language and education, language and interaction, language and gender, literacy, bilingualism, English for academic purposes, second language acquisition, translation, grammar and context.

In addition, the Oxford journal of Applied Linguistics now accepts contributions in the areas of computer mediated communication (CMC), conversation analysis, corpus linguistics, critical discourse analysis, deaf linguistics, discourse analysis and pragmatics, first and additional language learning, teaching and use, forensic linguistics, language assessment, bilingualism and multilingualism, language planning and policies, language for special purposes, lexicography, literacies, multimodal communication, rhetoric and stylistics and translation. Therefore, contemporary reputable publishers are now considering a wider spectrum of works in the field of applied linguistics that surpass ELT and encompass research and theory from an array of interdisciplinary fields.

Beyond Normative Models

Conversely, in more recent works, conversational analysts, semioticians and sociolinguistics are proposing highly revolutionary frames for applied linguistics that focus on paralinguistic models. Cook (2001), Kress & Van Leeuwan (2001) and Finnegan (2002) are suggesting that multimodal systems of communication, nonverbal communication and paralanguage are inseparable from language and essential to language and communication analysis. Ironically English language testing providers were the first to incorporate such propositions in their models, e.g. Oxford Online Placement Test (OOPT), International English Language Testing Scheme (IELTS) and others. Therefore, our fourth proposition is that, in the current period of computer mediated communication, applied linguistics is considering nonverbal and multimodal modes of communication. It is ameliorating according to the new dimensions of application and users. It is making use of technology to develop its focus and application beyond traditional prescriptivism and to embrace communication in all its forms. The following section examines the conceptual development of applied linguistics.

The Conceptual Premise

Developments in Conceptual Frames

The changes in linguistic theory in the 1970s saw a shift away from the description and study of language, seen purely as a formal system, towards the study of language as

communication. The structural approach to language was not able to deliver the anticipated outcomes. Moreover, linguistics itself has changed over the last twenty years (Applied Linguistics 21.1, pp. 3-25).

However, the above contemporary growing conceptions of applied linguistic were not accepted without opposition. Traditional scholars continued to work within the preset structural boundaries of applying language theories to teaching and learning and thus ignoring the interdisciplinary developments in the field.

Universal and Unitary Frames

Chomskyan linguistics and other cognitive and structural approaches considered language as a structural universal and uniform system regardless of the context of application. This view continued to influence conceptions and approaches to language studies despite diverse learners' needs. The proposed structural components influenced applied research specifically in second language acquisition. Chomsky's linguistic rules were not pedagogic explanations of language functioning but rules of great abstractness and intricacy, inherent in the structure of language. Focusing on structure was not helping language students communicate effectively. Insights into the abstract nature of language and the structural theories could not explain aspects of language in communication.

Language teaching was exclusively about getting learners to understand and use language in its spoken and written forms. This was not successful without reference to influential social and cultural prompts and expectation, which are integrated with it and fundamental to the appropriate imparting and comprehension of the linguistic performance. Stern (1983) points out that, "the practical demands of a communicative approach to language teaching ran ahead of existing (linguistic) theory and research" (p.178).

Contextual Frames

Lyons (1999) explains: "theoretical linguistics studies language and languages with a view to constructing a theory of their structures and functions and without regard to any practical applications that the investigation of language and languages might have, whereas applied linguistics has its concerns in the applications of the concepts and findings of linguistics to a variety of practical tasks including (but not solely constrained to) language teaching" (p.35). The linguistic form was no longer the main concern.

The changes from structural and phonetic to communicative language approaches resulted from realizations of the impractical and unreliable considerations of language theories dissociated from psychological and social considerations. Krashen's influential theory on second language acquisition in 1982 reflected the increasing influence of pyscholinguistics and advocated new pedagogic principles of comprehensible input in second language acquisition. This again challenged the foundations of purely theoretical perspectives in language teaching and provided a radical alternative to the memorization of structural and linguistic rules. Mimicking in audiolingualism and drilling in grammar were soon abandoned as research established the need to consider the language performance within real communication encounters and assess the appropriateness of language in relation to context of application.

A substantial body of work on communication moved away from a view of language as a separated self-contained system towards the description and analysis of language as a channel of communication that complements other semiotic systems (Finnegan, 2002; Kendon, 2000 & 2004; McNeil, 2000). The shift included in the analysis of language theoretical concepts from sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, pragmatics and semantics. Instructing linguistic knowledge was not enough, as evident in the performance of learners.

The conceptualization of language as communication had an impact on the micro-context of ELT, among others. Language teaching started to include aspects of social and cultural norms of communication. Students were required to develop communicative skills and functional competence in addition to mastering language structures. At the same time, the developing conceptions on language application and language as communication could not be restricted to English language teaching and the classroom.

Widdowson (1997) contends, as oversimplistic, the reigning conceptions on applied linguistics as synonymous with language teaching, "I want to question the common assumption that a linguistic model of language must of necessity serve as an underlying frame of reference for language teaching" (p. 9). The joint American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL) and the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) world congress in 2005 presented 1263 sessions covering novel topics, themes and approached. The journal Applied Linguistics currently identifies areas of interest where submissions are invited in the following fields: first and second language learning and teaching, critical linguistics, discourse analysis, language in education, language planning, languages testing, lexicography, stylistics and rhetoric, translation, multilingualism and multilingual education. A similar range of interest is reflected in British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL) conferences Special Interest Groups (SIGs), scientific commissions of the learned societies for applied linguistics as well as post graduate programs and survey books (Cook, 2005).

Synthesis of Multiple Frames

Hudson (1999) conceives of applied linguistics as a synthesis of research from many disciplines, including but not solely focused on, linguistics. Cook (2003) perceives of applied linguistics as, "the academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in the practical world" (p.125).

Sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, semantics, speech act theory and pragmatics had a major impact on the analysis of language in context, culminating in a radical reaction to the predominant restrictive view of language teaching. Wilkins (1976) produced a notional syllabus of language teaching that changed the traditional foundations of language teaching as it applied Halliday's functionalism and Austin's speech acts which focused, in guiding the teaching syllabus, on the notions and functions that the learner needs in order to communicate .

In addition, the Council of Europe, in the 1970s, developed new syllabi to language teaching that were based on semantic and sociolinguistic concepts including the notions and functions of language (Van Ek, 1975). The new syllabi provided inventories that specified learners' roles in specific situations, settings and topics. English language teaching expanded to target the sociolinguistic context of the language in its quest for appropriateness of performance.

At a later date and with the extension of scope to cover, "the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue" (Brumfit, 1997, p. 91), applied linguistics was utilized in the study of spoken and written discourse and incorporated gender issues, social stratification, neurological concerns, language dysfunction, learning strategies, special learning needs, power and ideology. Pennycook (2004) argues, "critical applied linguistics opens up a whole new array of questions and concerns, such as identity, gender, access, ethics, disparity, difference" (pp. 803-804).

Widdowson (2000) notes that in the past, "it all seemed straightforward enough: linguistics decontextualized language and applied linguistics re-contextualized it, and reconstructed reality in the process. In this respect, linguistics was the science (like physics) and applied linguistics its technology (like engineering)" (p.4).

Baynham (2001) confirms that, "applied linguistics … has undergone a significant broadening of its scope and now contributes its theoretical perspective to a range of areas" (p. 26). It has expanded its scope to understand practices and recognize the complexities of language communication not only in the classroom. Major subfields now include; discourse analysis, conversational analysis, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, translation studies, computational linguistics, language learning and teaching including second language acquisition and language testing, pragmatics and corpus linguistics (Brumfit, 1991; Cook, 2003; Widdowson, 2000). The fifth proposition is that the discipline started a strong departure from conservative beliefs and practices to embrace contemporary multiple concerns and offer, through methodological and disciplined enquiry, linguistic insights assisting other disciplines. This expansion, however, was not without a price. So amidst arguments and counter arguments on the nature and scope of applied linguistics how should we perceive the discipline and construe its relationship with linguistics and English language teaching?

The Macro and Micro Frames of Applied Linguistics

Pedagogic Focus

The growing number of English language learners in the last decades compelled English language studies to focus mainly on the problems of language teaching and learning within a pedagogic perspective of English language in EFL, ESL and EAL contexts in the applied linguistics approach. Crystal (1997) provides that there will be around 350 million second language speakers of English and 100 million highly competent foreign language speakers. Native speakers of English are around 427 million, according to the same source (p. 360). The spread of English to non-native contexts provided reasons to focus on developing the area of English language teaching in the main subfields of language acquisition through research and experimentation. In some contexts, the relationship of applied linguistics to second language pedagogy is misleading to the point of misrepresentation. However, the current debate is also expanding the ELT theme through arguments and counter arguments on World Englishes, global English and the internationalization of English in lingua franca contexts.

On the one hand, Crystal (2001) defends the need to associate applied linguistics with English language teaching, "the most well developed branch of applied linguistics is the teaching and learning of foreign languages, and sometimes the term is used as if this were the only field involved" (p.23). Corder, too, adopts a pedagogic orientation to his proposition, (1973), "of all

the areas of applied linguistic, none has shown the effects of linguistic findings, principles and techniques more than foreign language teaching – so much so that the term 'applied linguistic' is often taken as being synonymous with that task" (ii).

Therefore, following the spread of global English as an international language to many parts of the world, applied linguistics developed a separate area of theoretically inspired and respectable research into language acquisition. The term applied linguistics became mainly associated with second language acquisition. However, in the process of language acquisition, a learner was expected to learn the discourse of the target language within a short period. Form was not the only concern. Learners needed to be able to use structural elements appropriately in different social situations.

Sociolinguistic Frame

Hymes underlined the need to expand the focus within ELT itself, "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, pp.153-155). In addition, the global spread of English brought with it new anxieties on cultural relativity and appropriateness and wider concerns on identity, ideology and dominance as language became the vessel of thoughts and ways of life to its users.

After World War II and the expansion of English, English Language teaching brought to focus a number of problems that learners encountered in second language acquisition, as well as a number of problems associated with teachers, trainers and supervisors who lacked adequate language knowledge and teaching skills. From this perspective, applied linguistics in the pre-1980 period was mainly focused on solving pedagogic language problems; ESL, EFL, EAL, first and second language acquisition including cognition and understanding, assessment, practices, training and all aspects relating to pedagogic linguistics (Grabe, 2010) .

Jenkins (2014) proposed that from the late 1970s research into English for speakers for whom it is not the mother tongue has grown dramatically (CLERA conference). Interest in different English varieties used and more recently English as the lingua franca (ELF) explored how English is used in intercultural communication. From this perspective, applied linguistics moved to a wider cultural arena and was no longer centrally engaged with English language teaching (ELT). Despite pedagogic interest in this context, applied linguistics is concerned with the application of linguistic theories, methods and findings to language problems in contexts of application that are not limited to the classroom. Sociolinguistics, a major field within applied linguistics, focuses on language problems in all social contexts of use.

The golden years of ELT oriented applied linguistics in the UK were between 1970s and 1980s with the wide spread of the communicative approach that charted syllabus design and the principles of practice. Communicative language teaching (CLT), or the communicative approach, emphasized interaction as both the means and ultimate goal of language study. Language was conceptualized in the context of communication. The communicative approach, however, acknowledged the societal influences in the academic and educational syllabi. A later expansion of the scope included language problems in translation, lexicography rhetoric, advertisement, marketization, journal gendered language, racial discourse, institutional discourse, language and power, computer-mediated-communication, cultural, political alignment

and stranding of language, pragmatics and miscommunication. Seidlhofer & Breivik (2004) perceive of contemporary applied linguistics as a "mediated intervention which seeks a negotiated settlement of language problems through the reconciliation of different and sometimes conflicting perspectives" (ii-iii).

From another angle, the widening of the scope brought with it implicit threats of embracing interdisciplinary to scholars accustomed to working within the safe havens of their monolithic disciplines. Seidhofer & Breivik (2004) confirm: "since such (language) problems do not fit neatly into the idealized categories of any particular discipline, dealing with them, must involve ranging across disciplines. The impression is sometimes given, indeed that it is this interdisciplinarity that distinguishes applied linguistics from linguistics itself" (ii-iii).

Language in the Classroom or Language in Communication?

With regards to the latest developments in applied linguistics, the problem is unmistakably reflected in mainly two strands of academic positions: the first position characterizes early perceptions, during the mid-seventies, that associates applied linguistics solely with language teaching. The position remains vehemently defended by old fashioned scholars who resist views on the development of the field beyond classroom boundaries. The second position characterizes more contemporary claims, advanced by scholars who adopted a functional interpretation and applied the discipline across a wider interdisciplinary area.

Our final proposition concerns arriving at a reconciliation that incorporate orthodoxy and liberal trends in applied linguistics and hence overcome the controversy. Chapelle (2013) in his Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics argues that the future of Applied Linguistics is in the constant evolution of communication and specifically through technology. Orthodox scholars are concerned with assessing rapprochement with ELT through expanding language emphasis. More contemporary trends are advocating multiple lines of approach that can provide linguistic insights and assist other disciplines.

There are large implications for language planning and language teaching in terms of strict adherence to linguistic orthodoxy or the incorporation of current socio-cultural approaches brought about by globalization and the major issues within its focus. It seems reasonable to propose macro and micro frames for the field of applied linguistics, each committed to specific concerns and dimensions. The macro frame for applied linguistics is associated with the large area of interdisciplinary language-related study, including forward onlooking and computer mediated communication. On the other hand, all relevant issues related to its educational application and classroom work can be associated with a micro frame of applied linguistics reserved for ELT.

Conclusion

In the late twenty years or so there has been considerable expansion in the field of applied linguistics into new domains of real world problems, where new topics were explored. This has had the consequence of developing the focus and scope of applied linguistics beyond the pedagogic perspective.

Applied linguistics has developed in the previous years from applications of the structural components of language in the primary context of the classroom to an interdisciplinary field of enquiry that encompass language and communication in contemporary contexts of use. The historical development of the discipline was associated with the conceptual evolution of the term to embrace functional and pragmatic domains, in addition to pedagogic and structural components.

In contemporary times, the theoretical foundations of languages have been set. These continue to function as the basis for language analysis and experimentation. However, with the advancement of communication modes to include the verbal and the visual, the explicit and the implicit, the field of applied linguistics continues to expand. Pedagogic and educational concentration on ELT in applied linguistics, legitimate as they be, cannot discount or substitute current or future wider areas of application.

Old distinctions and comfortable boundaries are becoming blurred and new conceptualizations and realizations are emerging. The current state of affairs in relation to ELT is in flux. The pre-defined static and "neat" categories no more hold true. The position of one standard pedagogic model of English is challenged by the multiple models of World Englishes. Distinctions between English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a lingua franca (ELF) incorporate into the debate notions of power, legitimacy and social justice. The current state of research necessitates revisiting ELT practices and a counter movement from the restricted core to the interdisciplinary bounds of applied linguistics where meanings, users and texts combine to add insights to interpretations and pedagogy.

Reforming the concept along the line suggested above should provide a means to construct a model of applied linguistics that incorporate English language teaching or language in the classroom perspective and with the same clarity and precision offers through disciplined and methodological enquiry a macro frame that incorporates all aspects of language in communication.

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Enhancing the Saudi EFL Students' Pronunciation of the English Phoneme /v/ via Immersion in Virtual Platforms

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Abstract

This study provides findings about Saudi English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' pronunciation of the English phoneme /v/. Since the Arabic phonological system does not distinctly differentiate between /f/ and /v/, some Saudi (EFL) learners occasionally and unintentionally overlap these phonemes. One of the tools in the virtual platforms is online games such as the massively multiplayer online role playing games (MMORPGs) that offer English as the medium of instruction. Saudi families buy nearly three million PlayStation or X-Box sets per year to play MMORPGs. Generally, almost every family in Saudi Arabia Arabia owns an average of one set. Therefore, this study generally aims at investigating the effect of these online games, namely MMORPGs in enhancing pronunciation of the English phonemes /v/ by the Saudi EFL students at King Saud University-College of Languages & Translation (KSU-COLT). This study attempts to answer the two questions. First, will the incidence of EFL Saudi students' substitution of the NL /f/ for the TL /v/ be greater at the initial, medial or final positions while being immersed in MMORPGs? Second, will the incidences of error decline at ascending weeks of immersion in these virtual platforms? The findings showed that the students' overlapping of the /f/and /v/ phonemes varied according to the position of these phonemes in the English words (whether initial, middle, or final) and by their co-occurrence with other phonemes (whether vowels or consonants). Furthermore, Saudi EFL students' communication in English via immersion in MMORPGs have generally shown an ascending improvement through out the four weeks of experiment regarding their pronunciation of the English phoneme /v/ in all positions.

Key words: Constructivistism, MMORPGs, phonology, virtual worlds

Introduction

Acquiring native-like pronunciation in the target language is one of the most complicated tasks in foreign language Acquisition. This complexity has been attributed as the "Conrad phenomenon," after the famous English novelist who spoke with a strong Polish accent throughout his remaining life in England. The Conrad phenomenon suggested that there is "a biologically determined period of life" when the phonology of a language can be acquired without difficulty and beyond which time this phonological competency becomes gradually more difficult to acquire (Arishi, 1991, p.92).

Attempts to explain the adults' acquisition complexity of first and second languages have led to the development of the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). This hypothesis assumes that there is "a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired more easily and beyond which time language is increasingly difficult to acquire" (Brown, 2000, p. 53). This hypothesis when emerged focused only on first language acquisition, but later researchers have also included second language acquisition. Genesee's (1988) explains the research of linguists who tried to relate the CPH to second language acquisition starting with Lenneberg (1967) who suggested that language acquisition is difficult after puberty. Based on the concept of children's innate neuromuscular plasticity, they have concluded that native-like speech is not an easily acquired competency for adult students. Although adult foreign language students may learn conscious rules about pronunciation in the target language they invariably 'fall back' on native language phonological competence, resulting in an 'accent'. The main reason why language acquisition is difficult after puberty is due to the lost of the plasticity of the brain "at puberty, after which complete or native-like mastery of languages, first or second, is difficult and unlikely" (Genesee, 1988, p. 98). This plasticity assigns functions to different areas of the brain and cannot be changed. For instance, when the native language lacks one of the voiced-voiceless members, as Arabic does, since it has the /f/ phoneme but not the /v/ phoneme, the problem is that the brain of foreign students cannot perceive the difference while hearing this sound. Accordingly, the students assign the English phonemes /f/ and /v/ to the Arabic phoneme /f/. Inability for the foreign students' brains to perceive the difference while hearing these sounds consequently result in many instances of failures to pronounce such sounds accurately. This is why neuroscientists hypothesize that as humans grow older, information is embedded in the neural tissue as cells form circuits. Because speech comprises only a small section of the brain, speech sounds have limited space and "strong boundaries." Therefore, if the critical period does exist for humans, it should be impossible for adults to achieve native fluency in pronunciation.

Although, Lenneberg (1967) agrees that language learning after puberty was more difficult, he argued that another neurological reason "the completion of lateralization of language functions in the left hemisphere" (p.98) was the cause. Lenneberg studied children who suffered damage to the left hemisphere of the brain before and after the age of 12. The transfer of language function to the right hemisphere was found in children who suffered damage before age 12, but rarely in those who suffered damage after age 12.

Nevertheless, "research on the acquisition of authentic control of the phonology of a foreign language supports the notion of a critical period" (Arish, 1991, p.93). The most compelling disadvantage for adults is the failure to "acquire authentic (native-speaker)

pronunciation of the second language" (Brown 58) which unfortunately, many people judge as an extremely important feature of successful acquisition. Many adults who learned a second language can have fluent control of grammar and communicative functions, but also a foreign accent. This does not mean, however, that their acquisition of the second language was not successful. There are several individuals who learned a second language after puberty and attained native pronunciation.

Amongst the pioneering studies related to Saudi EFL students' mispronunciations was Al-Arishi's in the 1990s. It focused on the mispronunciations of phonemes /*b*/ and /*p*/ by Saudi students learning English as a foreign language. Although his study recognized that there were many operatives affecting the phonological competence of target language learners, it was set out to develop a method for testing position discrimination of /*p*/ and /*b*/ ability only. His study concluded that there was a systematic relationship between position and production of the /*p*/ and /*b*/ phonemes. However, it only addressed the /*p*/ and /*b*/ pronunciation problems by Saudi EFL learners and his study was more than two decades ago before the emergence of many technological aids including virtual platforms such as MMORPGs which can more effectively enhance Saudi EFL learners' pronunciation.

During the last two decades, MMORPGs became widespread among children and young adults in Saudi Arabia similar to many other countries of the Arab World. A number of Saudi researchers observed, especially after the widespread of the Internet, that children and teenagers spend many hours daily in playing online games without any clear educational objectives. That led to the emergence of a new generation that is more attracted to online games. So, the researcher started wondering if it is possible to use these interesting and attractive games in learning English as a foreign language. Hence, those children and young adults will learn English while having some entertainment. MMOGRPGs as a one of the widely spread and well-liked online games amongst Saudis seem to have this potential since there are many games that might serve the goals of the English Integrated course (Eng 118) the research was assigned to teach and consequently wished enhance the learning outcomes of this course.

What are and Why the MMORPGs?

MMORPGs are virtual platforms in which users inhabit and interact via immersed avatars (digital representations of the user). The Association of Virtual Worlds (2008) has listed over 250 MMORPGs including *Croquet, Quest Atlantis, Exit Reality* and *World of War Craft*…etc. Often these platforms, or subsets thereof, are referred to by a variety of other terms including multi-user virtual platforms (MUVEs), massively multiplayer online role playing games (MMORPGS) and the Metaverse, Second Life Reviewer (SL)…etc. Specifying an agreed upon definition of second or virtual worlds in any detail becomes problematic due to the great diversity in media, interface, goals, systems, technological agency, user autonomy and social environment to name only some of the variables (see Schroeder, 2008 for a discussion of the complexity of defining Virtual Worlds). Consequently, it is more productive to describe the particular virtual environment in which this study is set and by which subsequent researchers can gauge the relevance of this study's findings to their own context.

At any rate, the virtual platforms chosen for this study are, more precisely, the prominent platforms which provide online rich 3D massively multi-player role playing games referred to

later as (MMORPGs). These immersive platforms have been used for many different purposes. Teaching and learning other languages via such platforms is one of the relatively new technological tools. A range of factors might have contributed to such deployment including its wide use amongst youth and constant innovation of immersive learning tools. These MMORPGs are synchronous communication tools, so they enable users from all over the world to interact and meet at the same time. Users can have voice or text based chat and they meet physically through their avatars. These features could provide foreign language learners with an impressive learning experience with native speakers from all over the world. In addition, nowadays students are heavy users of computer games, so MMORPGs as prominent second life platforms might be good platforms to attract students to learning while having fun (Alarifi, 2008, 28).

Usually in traditional learning students study the new English vocabulary including new phonemes by heart and are not given enough opportunities to be involved in real life situations to practice these new words in their natural contexts or real situations. The reason of this is the difficulty and sometimes impossibility to have the learners practice in the real scene. So, these MMORPGs might be effective tools in learning foreign words and phonemes through and continue practicing them. Learners can live in immersive platforms in which everything in real life can be simulated in 3D shapes. Learners virtually would be able to see, hear, touch and practice things around them. This might enable teachers, in turn, to create a very rich environment to foreign language learners. A teacher of English as a foreign language told his experience in one of these online games saying, "I once dressed up as a pirate, had a ship and everything. I was kind of rough on the students," he admits. "I put some of them in cages, and had them confront language in a shock-and-awe kind of way. They seemed to like it, and they learned all sorts of new words, like 'loot' and 'booty' (Alarifi, 2008, p.15).

MMORPGs convenience to constructivist teaching methods

The history of language teaching and learning witnessed the emergence of a number of methods of language teaching and learning, each of which was based on one or more of prevalent linguistic theories. In fact, any method of linguistic represents a linguistic theory that is trying to shed light on the nature of language, and the method of learning that the theory's supporters take it to be the most suitable means for language learning and teaching. Amongst the most prominent linguistic methods that became popular in recent times is the Constructivist Method that continued to be developed and modified.

The diversity of the aforementioned theories of language teaching and learning does not mean that each of them has a special method of its own. Thus, more than one method can be linked to one or more theories. The constructivist method in language teaching is not a method that depends on a specific theory, but rather tries to make advantage of all various methods. Thus, it benefits from the grammar and translation method, direct method, audio-lingual method, communicative method. So, its characteristics became more consistent with modern technological trends of language teaching.

Perhaps it’s worthy to summarize some principles of constructivist method in language teaching. First of all, the constructivist method unifies the form and content in language teaching so as not to diffuse the language components during the process of teaching. This method stresses that language consists of:

(A) Oral or written symbols: these symbols have no meaning if taught in isolation from their natural setting, which are words.
(B) Words: these words remain with insufficient meaning if isolated from their contexts, or taught individually. Hence, if language teachers want to clarify the meaning of new words, they should not introduce them to students as abstractly or merely with synonyms, but rather introduce them within context to show their clear meaning.
(C) Sentences and phrases: these sentences and phrases, once again, won't be clear if introduced as isolated segments to students. Their exact and full meaning can only be delivered to students within the situational context of the whole text.

Mere articulation of sounds does not necessary constitute a language unless they in actuality represent conceptual contents, otherwise the human voices parrots imitate would be considered a language. This requires the language teachers to start with contextualizing linguistic situations including form (spoken sounds), and content (meanings and connotations), and not just incoherent words and sounds. Examples of underestimating context might include teaching letters and sounds, starting with disconnected sentences, or providing synonyms or antonyms while explaining vocabulary, repetition and memorization of foreign sounds.

Secondly, the constructivist method stresses that language should be taught as a set of skills, like any other skills, that can be acquired through understanding, guidance, practice, reinforcement and setting model examples. The constructivist method also stresses on integration. In other words, the constructivist method also emphasizes that teaching any language skill should serve all the four basic skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), and other skills.

What the constructivist method strongly underlines is gradual teaching of language skills. Hence, it recommends starting with listening, then speaking, then reading and finally with writing. This method appears to be consistent with the basic principles of learning. It urges language teachers to start teaching the easy skills to the more difficult ones and assumes the easiest language skill to a beginning learner is listening, and the most difficult is writing. Furthermore, the constructivist method gives emphasis to identifying learning objectives. It demands defining objectives since they help to choose the most appropriate way to achieve them. In addition, the constructivist method varies the use of teaching materials and actual or virtual realia. Since, learners vary in their abilities to learn, and in their attraction to these teaching materials and actual or virtual realia, therefore, varying such materials and actual or virtual realia helps to fulfill an important principle of learning principles, namely the principle of taking into account individual differences among learners. Also, the constructivist method encourages deploying modern technologies. This include many language programs such as computer and online games that enhance acquiring the language skills more efficiently since those techniques present great potentials in providing reinforcement, and feedback that have a significant role in language learning progress.

The constructivist method also supports varying assessment techniques because language is an integrated whole, and students vary in their ability to acquire language skills. Therefore, focusing on assessing one skill in isolation of the remaining skills is utterly not objective, and simply violates the principle of equal opportunities to all students. This, hence, requires careful

comprehensive assessments of all language skills using a variety of assessment techniques that consider all the capabilities of the students taking oral or written exams.

Last but not least, the constructivist method emphasizes employing language. This method considers that the utmost goal of teaching a language is its employment in actual or virtual life, not having it memorized in the learners' minds.

Statement of the problem

A great deal of discussion has been raised in the field of language acquisition regarding whether or not foreign students are prepared for a perfect adaptation with a new phonological system. These discussions mostly rotate around the age of learners as a determining factor for acquiring a native-like accent. However, linguists, such as Krashen (1982), shifted the discussion to the manner and setting of learning as other determining factors. He provides evidence against the rigid completion or loss of plasticity or lateralization by puberty (P. 99). He assumed that evidence of children outperforming adults in second language acquisition is misleading because the manner of learning instead of age may be the main factor in determining successful acquisition. Most children learn a second language in a natural setting, whereas adults learn in a formal classroom setting. In fact, the problem with learning in a formal classroom setting is that after intensive-class phonological training, phonological fallback continues to occur outside class (Arishi: 99). For instance, an Arabic student learning English might be able to distinguish between /v/ and /f/ in *favor* [feɪvə] in a listening and speaking drills and produce both /v/s in *vivid* [vivid] in a pronunciation exercise in class. However, under certain circumstances outside a controlled phonological environment, he might say *fivid* [fivid], *vifid* [vifid] *fifid* [fifid] or even *vivid* [vivid]. The term "phonological variability" is used to designate this phenomenon where a target language learner uses a wide assortment of pronunciations of the same word. This phonological variability may also be determined by shifts in communication situations whether free speaking, interactive dialogue, or spontaneous conversation and speaker mood.

When tracing the source of this problem, different causes can emerge, including the lack of effective deployment of teaching aids that can immerse learners in semi-natural learning settings. MMORPGs as virtual platforms might compensate for this lack in the following ways: Through their avatars, learners can live in an immersive environment in which everything in real life can be simulated in virtual shapes. They virtually would be able to see, hear, touch and freely speak about things around them. These features could provide them with an impressive learning experience with native speakers from all over the world. More specifically, MMORPGs give the opportunity to create the inside world the way users like it to be, and hence gives the opportunity to design the learning scenarios as favored. In these scenarios, learners can play the roles of actors which might promote their learning since they learn by immersion. If foreign language learners get involved with native speaker of English in virtual scenes that resemble scenes of their natural life, this might enrich their phonological competency of the English new sounds and enable them in the future to more accurately pronounce them while speaking. Also, using such practices in language learning might help learners in the memorization and practicing of these sounds more accurately. Usually in formal drilling, students study the new sounds by heart and are not given enough opportunities to be involved in natural life situations or pronounce the new words in its natural context or real situation. The reason of this is the difficulty and sometimes

impossibility to have the learners speaking in the real scenes. MMORPGs can be an effective alternative environment for learning foreign sounds especially to nowadays students who are heavy users of computer games. In fact, MMORPGs might be a good environment to attract them to learn native-like pronunciation while having fun.

Significance of the Study

This study investigates the effect of the virtual platforms (namely MMORPGs) in learning English phonemes by EFL Saudi undergraduate students at KSU. Many studies have shown the usefulness of technology integration in second language learning. However, no studies in KSA have researched the effect of such platforms on the pronunciation of EFL Saudi learners, Therefore, this study is significant because there is a need to assist the impact of such most innovative and widely-used virtual platforms in learning English phonemes and helping students acquiring accurate pronunciation more successfully for their daily oral communication.

Again, the widespread usage of MMORPGs whether in the Arab region or over the globe is inevitable. Alnnafiei (2009), in a report - published in the Saudi economic newspaper on 7-1-2009, wrote 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 owing at least one. Therefore, this study may help to facilitate the general acceptance of these advanced online platforms as a teaching aid to improve students' pronunciation of English sounds. More specifically, the results of this study will, hopefully, encourage EFL language instructors to consider deploying online MMORPGs to reinforce their students' pronunciation rather than relying only on class or lab-formal pronunciation drillings.

Finally, this study will hopefully contribute to the general field of foreign language acquisition. The results may also provide insights into previous research on EFL/ESL teachers' use of MMORPGs by either supporting or challenging earlier findings. While doing so, it may also shed light on other areas of related research in need of investigation.

Hypothesis and Questions of the Study

The hypothesis of this study is that immersion in virtual platforms could be a factor that might affect the EFL Saudi students' pronunciation of the /v/ and /*f* /, whether initially, medially, or finally. More specifically, this study attempts to answer the following questions.

1. While being immersed in MMORPGs, will the incidence of EFL Saudi students' substitution of the NL /f/ for the TL /v/ be greater at the initial, medial or final positions?
2. Will the incidences of error decline at ascending weeks of immersion in these virtual platforms?

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 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 one 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.

Data collection

Although, resembling Al-Arishi's analysis methodology of the mispronunciations of the phonemes /*p*/ and /*b*/, the scope this study is discuss the mispronunciations of phonemes (/*v*/ and /*f* /) instead by EFL Saudi learners. Also, the subjects of this study have been immersed in interactive virtual environments (MMORPGs) rather than been set in regular audio-labs of the 1990s. Additionally, subjects' free virtual interaction was recorded rather than reading aloud of pre-prepared texts as was in Al-Arishi'd study. These three factors may provide additional insights that either support or challenge the earlier findings of Al-Arishi's study. These factors may also trigger other areas of related research in need of investigation. So, after recording the subjects' virtual interactions, their videos were attached as links on the *Learning Management System* (LMS) of the (Eng 101) English course entry. Then the researcher and an English instructor, logged in to watch the content and recorded a list of all the words produced by the students' avatars containing the phonemes /*v*/ or /*f* /. Numbering the videos and providing the precise and exact timing for the production of each word were essential procedures agreed upon by both raters for easy tracing in cases of disagreement. Correlation of the two revealed that there was a .87 inter-rater reliability. The correlations indicate that the raters' judgments were similar to one another. In the few areas of disagreement, the two raters watched and listened attentively to those relevant portions of the videos together and came to a consensus on whether a /*v*/ or /*f* /sound was produced. However, due to the free interaction environment of the MMORPGs, the approximate traced productive number of these sounds varies from one group to another. The assumption is that immersion in MMORPGs could be a factor that might have affected the pronunciation of the /*v*/ or /*f* /, whether initially, medially, or finally.

Data Analysis:

The data was analyzed by position and vowel-consonant/consonant-vowel clusters.

(1) *Initial Position*

Many students had greater difficulty pronouncing [v] initially before a vowel. However, no specific model emerged from the use of [v] before vowels in the initial position. Thus, during the fourth week, three students substituted [v] for [f] before [ɑː] as [fɑːz] *vase*, and before [ɛ] as [fɛri] *very*. In the third week, two students pronounced [v] as [f] with all vowel forms, while other two students substituted [v] for [f] only before [ɛ]. As to the second week group, four students at least once pronounced [v] as [f] before the most vowel forms. In the first week, five students at least once pronounced [v] as [f] with all vowel forms. The rating reveals that three of fourth-week subjects, four of third-week subjects, five of second-week subjects, and five of first-week subjects had at least one instance where they substituted [f] for [v] before a vowel.

Out of the total number of the subjects who mispronounced the [v] before a vowel, seventeen substituted [f] before [ɛ]; fifteen before [ɑː]. However, variations are common amongst the subjects. For instance, three students (first week) sometimes pronounced *very* correctly, but as [fɛri] at other times. Five students (first week) sometimes pronounced *very* as [fɛri] but as [vɛri] at other times. Among the second-week subjects, three students always pronounced *very* as [fɛri], the remaining students pronounced it mostly correctly but at few times as [fɛri].

(2) *Medial Position*

A tangible number of students had problems in pronouncing [v] medially. Concerning consonants occurring before or after the phonemes under discussion, almost all the ten subjects who used (*twelve*) and *lovely* words made errors substituted [v] for [f] before and after the [l] consonant with only two exemptions from this error; a subject who had long residence in an English speaking country and another subject who was exposed to extra English programs in a private academy often used and pronounced these two words correctly. Concerning the words where the [v] was followed by a vowel, eighteen students had at least one instance where they pronounced the medial [v] as a [f] in words such as [lɪfɪŋ ruːm] for *living-room.*

(3) *Final Position*

Subjects throughout the four weeks often substituted [f] for [v] in the final position; three incorrectly pronounced [f] for [v] in the words ending with /v/ such as *have* [hav], *attractive* [əˈtraktɪv], and *expensive* [ɪkˈspɛnsɪv]. During the third week, four of the students mispronounced words ending with /v/ such as [haf] for *have*,[əˈtraktɪv] for *attractive*, [ɪkˈspɛnsɪv] for *expensive*, [twɛlf] for *twelve* ,and [kɑːfz] for *calves* . Throughout the second week, five substituted [f] for [v] in their pronunciations of such words. During the first week, almost all the first-week group incorrectly pronounced the */v/* in these words.

(4) *Proficiency by Weeks*

As anticipated, the incidences of [v] error decline during the later weeks of the study. The decline is relatively slight between the first and second-week students but dramatically significant thereafter with most positions. While 70% of the second-week students committed pronunciation errors with the /v/ phoneme, 56% of the third-week students showed such a high incidence. Of the fourth-week students, 46% committed such pronunciation errors. While 84% final errors for [v] were made by first-week students, this percentage declined steadily: 67% (second week), 54.3% (third week) and 35% (fourth week). Less significant declines are seen with [v] medially: from 78.4% (first and second week) to 55.4 % (third and fourth week). In the initial position, the decline in [v] errors is more significant, from 78.4% errors in (first week), 72.7 % (second week), 55.7% (third week) and 44.4% (fourth week), although the weekly decline is more evident between the second-week (69%) and third week students (51.5%) with the /v/ phoneme in all positions.

The *p* value is calculated to compare the mean scores of the students' overall pronunciation improvement after immersion using the multiple comparisons-Repeated Measures Anova- as evident in the following table:

Table 1: ***The Students' overall Pronunciation Improvement of the English Phoneme [v] after Immersion in MMORPGs during Four Weeks.***

Week	Mean	Standard deviation
1	27.08	0.55
2	29.08	0.54
3	32.6	0.61
4	34.68	0.56

Table 2***: Multiple comparisons and statistical significance of the difference between the mean scores of the subjects in applying the scale trend to measure the Saudi EFL Students' overall Pronunciation Improvement of the English Phoneme [v] after Immersion in MMORPGs during four weeks.***

Week (A)	Week (B)	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig. (2 tailed)
1st Week	2nd Week	200	0.33	Sig. at (.o1)
	3rd Week	5.80	0.50	Sig. at (.o1)
	4th Week	7.60	0.46	Sig. at (.o1)
2nd Week	3rd Week	3.80	0.31	Sig. at (.o1)
	4th Week	5.60	0.28	Sig. at (.o1)
3rd Week	4th Week	1.80	0.17	Sig. at (.o1)
4th Week	4th Week	0.17	0.17	Sig. at (.o1)

Previous table shows the existence of differences between the Saudi EFL students' overall pronunciation improvement of the English phoneme [v] after immersion in MMORPGs during four weeks, that is, the progress scale of their trends was dramatically increasing.

Table 3: ***The (p) Value and Statistical Significance of the Difference Between the Mean Scores of the Saudi EFL Students' overall Pronunciation Improvement of the English Phoneme [v] after Immersion in MMORPGs during Four Weeks.***

Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean of squares	**p-value**	**Sig**	**Eta square** (η^2)
Intercept	161,507.23	1	161,507.23	**3841.19**	**.01**	**.99**
Error	1009.11	24	42.05			

The previous table shows that the (P) value calculated (3841.19), at the level (0.01), it is clear that the effect size is greater than 0.8 equal to (0.99). It is already clear that there is statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects' pronunciation improvements.

(5) ***Hypercorrection***

A small number of subjects tended to hypercorrect by pronouncing the Arabic phoneme

[f] in words with the English phonemes [v] mostly initially before vowels. Only three subjects (12.5% of all immersed students) made this mistake habitually. One first-week student (who had long residence in an English-speaking country) made no mistakes of substituting a [f] for a [v], but he made four mistakes (quickly corrected) where he did the reverse: *Peautivul* (for beautiful), *fillagers* (for villagers), and *expensife* (for expensive). Also, one second-week student (who had been exposed to extra English programs in a private academy in Saudi Arabia) showed this tendency. He frequently corrected himself after pronouncing fine as *vine*, and television as telefision. This same student, however, pronounced very as *fery*, expensive as *expensife*, and vase as *faz*. No third-week student showed this reversal. Among fourth-week students, one made the unexpected reversal. He made no mistakes of substituting the Arabic phoneme [f] for the English phonemes [v], but made five mistakes substituting [v] and [f]: *verry* for ferry and *vine* for fine. The remaining [[f]-sounds that he used, he pronounced correctly. These contradictions propose that some students might endure extraordinary difficulty in acquiring a consistent *v/f* distinction in non-controlled phonological environments as it is the case with MMPRPGs.

Conclusions

The study cannot claim full credit for these enhancements in Saudi EFL students at KSU-COLT. It was short-term, and the students had only two periods each week, all of which must claim some credit for the increase in this course periods per week. The effect of pedagogical interventions may not be visible in a single semester. In particular, enhanced learning performance resulting from different types of instruction would be visible only after a relatively prolonged period of time (Felix, 2005). A longitudinal approach would allow a deeper understanding of the learning platform investigated (Chapelle, 2001b). This area should be considered for further study with a larger number of students. The limited number of participants in this study was due to the limited capacity of this version of online games, and the requisite of a certain level of online playing skills, in addition to the low number of students already registering in this course. Still, the enhancement observed indicates, hopefully, a very positive approach to enhance pronunciation particularly in English integrated courses and more precisely in listening and speaking skill courses of English. Recognizing the small size of the group immersed, caution must be considered not to over generalize the abovementioned findings. However, some emerging implications from this experiment can be summarized as:

I. The first- and second-week learners had slightly higher problems with the [v] phoneme in the initial position preceding a vowel and in the final position preceded by either a vowel or consonant.

2. Subjects during later weeks (third- and fourth-week students) showed obvious declines in mispronunciation of the [v] phoneme at the medial position, and the initial position where these phonemes occur before vowels. Nevertheless, the decline is less dramatic for /v/ where it occurs at the medial position before vowels.

3. As mentioned earlier, relatively high percentage of subjects mispronounced the [v] when it occurs finally is followed by consonant as in *lovely* [lʌvli], most of the subjects made at least one mistake in pronouncing this consonant-cluster pattern. Arishi (1990) provided possible explanations, "failure to differentiate between voiced and voiceless consonant clusters, which

occur in Arabic infrequently" Thus, English clusters with a minimum of one voiceless member seem to be a problem for Saudi Arab EFL learners.

In addition to the previously mentioned potentialities, the substitutions of [f] for [v] may be attributed to native language interference. Weakening or producing voiced intervocalic consonants such as the English [l] is one example of native language interference of the EFL Saudi learners. Thus, the subjects were confronted with a new phoneme followed by a new allophone.

3. Some subjects pronounced the [v] in words, such as *visitors*, correctly while being immersed in one online game, but surprisingly enough pronounced the same words incorrectly while being immersed in different stages of these online games. In fact, some subjects pronounced these sounds sometimes correctly and sometimes incorrectly in different places while immersion within the same online games. These observations might reinforce the concept of phonological variability with additional amendment that the degree of immersion in virtually simulated situations and the degree of student's excitement can also affect phonological variability.

To conclude, the position of the English phonemes [v] and [f] within a word affects the pronunciation of Saudi EFL learners. However, interaction via immersion in virtual platforms such as MMORPGs is suggested to have improved the students' mispronunciation of English words containing these phonemes. However, more remedial phonological drillings via such platforms are recommended for more accurate pronunciation of these phonemes with greater emphasis on their positions within words since some positions constitute more difficulty to Saudi EFL learners. Overcoming this difficulty will hopefully enhance Saudi EFL learners' pronunciation of English words having the /v/ phonemes. Finally, immersion of EFL learners in virtual platforms with language teachers and/or native speakers of English can be introduced to the remedial phonological drillings.

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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 HEPL 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 will benefit by immersing in online games to enhance their pronunciation 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******* Participant's Signature Printed Name Date

Researcher's Signature Printed Name Date

Appendix C: A Sample of Online Games' Contests Held by the Student Activities Committee at the Colt-KSU

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Language Learning Strategies Use in Teaching the Writing Skill for EFL Algerian Learners

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Abstract

Language learning strategies (LLSs) have been the focus of an enormous number of foreign language studies. However, many researches in this field have not been thoroughly examined especially in relation to the writing skill. For this reason, the current study investigates Strategy Based Instruction (SBI) implementation in the writing skill, particularly for students of English at the Intensive Language Teaching Center of Mostaganem University, Algeria , to enable them find out which strategies that best suit them, and most importantly, to employ cooperative learning strategies so as to enhance their writing. It aims also at raising students 'awareness of the strategies use, identifying them and providing opportunities for practice and self-assessment. More importantly, the research is an attempt to investigate whether there is any significant difference in students' writing achievement after the implementation of SBI. Students are, then, tested before and after applying SBI that encompasses Oxford's six kinds of LLSs, cooperative learning strategies and POWER strategy which is an acronym for plan, organize, write, edit and revise. To collect data, students' writing paragraph samples are analysed based on five checklist assessment rubrics: focus, content, organization, style and conventions. The results showed that there was a significant difference in all students' writings after integrating SBI. Therefore, more practice should be allotted to writing instruction so as to pave the way of facilitating the development of more confident, more strategic, and in particular, more autonomous and successful language learners.

*Keywords: c*ooperative learning, language learning strategies, POWER strategy, SBI, writing

1. Introduction

For decades, the field of applied linguistics and language education have witnessed a drastic change in the teaching and learning processes. A shift from the teacher-centred to more learner-centred approach is remarkable. In this respect, numerous researchers have emphasised how different learners manage to learn by using different kinds of language learning strategies (LLSs). It is worth stressing that studies of LLSs have proliferated to such an extent that it has been proved that successful learners make use of various types of LLSs in an orchestrated way than do less successful learners.

The term language learning strategy has been differently highlighted and defined by a number of researchers. Rubin and Stern (1975) are considered as the pioneering researchers in the field of LLSs during the mid 1970s. Rubin states that learning strategies are "techniques or devices which a learner can use to acquire knowledge." (Griffiths, 2004:2) According to O'Malley et.al., (1990) "language learning strategies have been broadly defined as any set of operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information." (p. 23) Pouring in the same vessel, Chamot (1987) gives that definition of LLSs as: "techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area of information*."* (Ching-Yi, C.; Shu-Chen, L.; Yi-Nian, L. 2007: 239)

Congruent with this, Oxford claims that, *"*LLSs are steps taken by students to enhance their own learning." (1990: 1) More importantly, she expands her definition to "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferrable to new situations." (1990: 8) Since 1970s, various theorists have contributed to giving different definitions of LLSs. Such outstanding theorists have proposed different models to classify and create a hierarchy of strategies on the basis of how they are related to the learners and the task they employ in the learning process.

However, among all these different categorisations of LLSs, Oxford's classification has been referred to in many studies. She defined direct strategies as "language learning strategies that directly involve the target language which include memory, cognitive and compensation strategies." (1990: 37) Indirect strategies, for her, "are for general management of learning." (1990: 15) Therefore, the direct strategies are employed for learning the language; whereas, indirect strategies are for using the language. Notwithstanding, Oxford's classification remains the most comprehensive, systematic and detailed one. That is why, I have purposefully adopted it as a theoretical framework for this study.

According to Graham (2012), "a strategy is a series of actions (mental, physical or both) that writers undertake to achieve their goals." (p.16) Oxford (1989), in her Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), orchestrates six categories of LLSs, namely, memory strategy (e.g., grouping, representing); cognitive strategy (e.g., repeating, analysing, etc); compensation strategy (e.g., switching to the mother tongue); metacognitive strategy (e.g., linking new information with already known one); affective strategy (e.g., lowering anxiety by listening to music, motivating oneself) and social strategy (e.g., working collegially). Relating learning strategies to the writing skill, Grenfell and Harris (1999) put forward the following definition:

"writing strategies are the conscious behaviour and techniques that can be taught and instructed in writing." (Alnufaie, M.; Grenfell, M. 2012:410)

Therefore, using LLSs helps learners cope with new bewildering situations, evaluate their own work and learn how to learn from their own success and failure in such a way that helps them be more efficient learners in the future. Furthermore, working together facilitates solving problems and develops proficiency in the English language writing. In this way, a great need for a workable strategy to develop writing competence is needed. Admittedly, to be effective writers, instructional strategies become a necessity to make students understand the purpose and process involved in writing. Hence, to promote learner autonomy, SBI is implemented in the writing skill so as to help learners become better language learners and writers as well

In this connection, Cohen and Weaver (2005) define SBI as: "A learner-centered approach to teaching that focuses on explicit and implicit inclusion of language learning and language use strategies in second language classroom." (MC Mullen, 2009: 420) The underpinning of the strategies based method is that learners should be given the chance not only to learn the language but also to know how to learn that language proficiently and successfully. Therefore, to meet students' needs, research seems to focus on a wide variety of LLSs. SBI, then, helps learners become more aware of the kinds of available strategies to them, understand how to gear and use them systematically and eventually learn how and when these strategies can be transferred to other new language contexts.

As also suggested by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), SBI may help learners achieve some prominent features any good language learner has, namely, to be self-reliant, self-confident, but most importantly, to be motivated as they comprehend the intricate relationship between LLSs use and their success in learning the target language. Working together as a team may also improve students' writing proficiency, cooperative learning strategies, then, involve inquiry and discussion with peer and small groups through sharing ideas and communicating as well. Concisely put, Suhair (2013) explained: "whilst working in groups, learners have the opportunity to improve their writing skills by means of exchanging ideas, sharing experiences, as well as enriching knowledge." (Suhair, 2013:139)

Concomitantly, interactive structures help students think and write effectively. Students work cooperatively in asking questions, clarifying, making choices or being for or against a particular concept or point of view in order to develop arguments for writing paragraphs. Students are expected to assist each other, discuss and assess each other's current knowledge. As contended by Adeyemi, "cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups in which students work together to maximize and gain from each other." (Adeyemi, 2008:696)

It is noteworthy that students' poor writing stems from their poor thinking that is why, a problem-solving strategy for writing is a recommended approach through which successful writers pass by different stages, some of these are analyzing the task, clarifying thinking as one draft, moving to revision and then editing for correctness. What is eminent is that students must be encouraged to work together, to draft and redraft their writing and have their peers edit their work. Thus, working cooperatively is a favoured method that enables learners to enhance their writing. Slavin (1991) stated that "cooperative learning is the structured, systematic, instructional

technique in which small goups work together to achieve a common goal." (Adams, A. 2013:7) More importantly, according to Mandal (2009),

> Cooperative learning is a successful teaching strategy in which small teams, each with students of different levels of ability, use a variety of learning abilities to improve their understanding of a subject. Each number of a team is responsible not only for learning what is taught but also for helping teammates learn, thus, creating atmosphere of achievement. (p. 97)

Within cooperative learning strategies, another strategy, adopted from Englert et.al., (1991) is labeled POWER strategy through which some of Oxford's six strategies are integrated. POWER strategy is an acronym for planning, organizing, writing, editing and revising. It is presented to help students organize their ideas and the target language when writing a paragraph. This strategy is composed of three stages. The first stage is the prewriting stage, it is before what you actually start writing, it includes planning and organizing. The second step is writing. The third stage is post-writing which embraces editing and revising steps.

The following questions, then, were addressed in this study:

1. How can SBI be integrated in teaching paragraph writing?
2. Is there any significant difference in students' writing achievements after implementing SBI?

2. Method

To conduct this study, the sample was a class of forty students that include 26 females and 14 males. Data from two sources were collected. Students' writing samples before SBI constituted one source, and students writing paragraphs after SBI was the other source. Each individual student submitted a writing paragraph in November before SBI was implemented and other paragraph samples of forty students were collected at the end of the investigation in April, that is, after teaching and integrating SBI within writing. Students' writing paragraphs were scored on a five point-scale for focus, content, organization, style and conventions, an assessment of 3 to 4 was considered as acceptable; whereas, scores of 1 to 2 were unacceptable The data obtained from investigating students' papers was analysed by using percentage.

3. Findings

Before SBI, students were given an assignment, they wrote a paragraph individually without the help of their classmates. The teacher's role was just to explain the topic and the type and the elements to be included within paragraph writing. Students, at this level, were unaware of LLSs; thus, they produced poor writing full of errors, disorder, misspelt words, no coherence and the like. However, when integrating SBI, students writing paragraphs changed positively. All participants improved their writing skill especially the structure, the development of the topic sentence and the mechanics of writing. Thus, the questions that one is prompted to ask are: was SBI effective to improve students' writing? Was there a significance difference in students writing before and after SBI?

Table 1: ***Students' Pre and Post Test Writing Achievements (N= 40)***

Scores	**1**		**2**		**3**		**4**	
	Nov	**Apr**	**Nov**	**Apr**	**Nov**	**Apr**	**Nov**	**Apr**
Focus	0	0	8	0	19	2	13	38

Content	1	0	13	2	19	15	7	23
Organisation	14	0	6	9	16	8	4	23
Style	20	4	15	16	5	17	0	3
Conventions	22	3	11	13	6	17	1	7

Table 2: ***Pre and Post-test Writing Achievement Statistics***

Scores	**1**		**2**		**3**		**4**	
	Nov	**Apr**	**Nov**	**Apr**	**Nov**	**Apr**	**Nov**	**Apr**
Focus	0%	0µ	20%	0%	47.5%	5%	32.5%	95%
Content	2.5%	0%	32.5%	5%	47.5%	37.5%	17.5%	57.5%
Organisation	35%	0%	15%	22.5%	40%	20%	10%	27.5%
Style	50%	10%	37.5%	40%	12.5%	42.5%	0%	7.5%
Conventions	55%	7.5%	27.5%	32.5%	15%	42.5%	2.5%	17.5%

Table 1 shows students pre-test and post-test scores from one to four in each of the five rubrics. It was found that students did not have weaknesses within the three first domains, since before the test, they scored higher from three to four in focus, content and organization but still some students did not score well. However, after implementing SBI, the majority of students' scores were good. For instance, in focus domain, none scored from one to two, the results were higher. The same was found within content and organization, only 11 students out of 40 had less scores. Table 2 shows the percentage for each domain before and after the writing test. The scores increased in each of the five domains i.e., focus, content, organization, style and conventions.

4. Discussion

After analyzing students' sample writings, it was found that there was a percentage difference in all five writing domains before and after SBI. This means that the training program was helpful in increasing students' ability to write better coherent and structured paragraphs. More importantly, it was noticed, for example, that after SBI, students began to indent the first sentence in their paragraph as a sign of a well- structured paragraph. They also learnt to take bullet point notes before producing clear and easily understood paragraphs. Moreover, through peer correction, students were able to detect their classmate's mistakes and theirs too; thus, they learnt from each others. Students are also known for the incredible mistakes they make in spelling; hence, it was effective for them to compensate for the lack of spelling knowledge by using the easy-spelt and remembered words.

What is more important was the fact that all participants learnt to listen to each other, to avoid selfishness by working together and thus become active and autonomous learners as they get involved in using strategies already explicitly explained by the teacher for achieving better writing. Connectedly, the conclusion that one may draw from this empirical study is that SBI can really help EFL learners improve their writing skill.

To wrap up the whole discussion, it is worth mentioning that nearly all participants improved their writing skill in English, especially regarding the structure, content and mechanics of

writing. Obviously, participants needed guidance with clearly and explicitly taught strategies on how to structure a paragraph for writing. Therefore, using cooperative learning strategies, sharing and constructing their ideas provided opportunities to boost up writing as they continuously learn from each other. By talking about the writing topics, students were able to share the content of their thoughts, structure their ideas and outstandingly gain knowledge from each other.

Participants did much collaboration and interaction during planning, organizing and revising stages. Thus, they improved their English communication. Notably, to triangulate this study, interviews were conducted. It consists of open-ended verbal questions between the teacher and students. The audio-tape was used to record these conversations. Students were interviewed individually. The interviews were carried out to see students' reaction on the evaluation of SBI, that is, whether working cooperatively helps them write better, how interaction in groups helps develop paragraph writing and whether their writing has improved after SBI.

Some students said *"learning cooperatively helped a lot, as well as, interacting in English with my classmates helped me think in English"* others saw that interaction with other students and working together helped them write better. Many students said**:** *"before we write as if we are speaking but when learning strategy instruction, we know now how to organize our thoughts."* Moreover, others commented on the first step of POWER strategy –plan step– where they have to take as much notes as possible about the topic as being effective. One student's comment was: *"The more we talk about the topic, the more we generate ideas. We have learnt a lot from each other and we are still learning." Another student remark was about the second step –organize step– as: "I liked the second step where in we wrote an outline for our paragraph. It helped me a lot, through it, we respected the ideas to be included within the paragraph, without adding or skipping over other ideas. This is good."*

All students favoured the usefulness of LLSs in improving their writing skill. Most of them said that they loved these instructions in writing. They learnt how to write coherent sentences, how to write correct grammar, how to discuss their ideas with their friends and get from them other ideas. For them, this method was great, what was given to them as strategy instruction was excellent. They also stated that thanks to SBI, they could write better. They especially learnt to use a dictionary each time for spelling words correctly, and that sharing paragraphs for editing was good. More importantly, they were able to correct their own paragraphs before giving them to the teacher.

According to other participants, their English has improved in writing and speaking too. They used to hate writing but after SBI, they found interesting. By allowing their friends to read their paragraphs aloud, they learnt to see their mistake, especially punctuation. They used to write long sentences, all their supporting sentences were written in one sentence. However, their friends helped them separate each new idea by a full stop so that to have another sentence. Their classmates' feedback encouraged them to write without forgetting anything related to paragraph writing, as they also reported that they made fewer mistakes than before.

It is, then, worth stressing that SBI is very helpful to enhance learners' writing skill. Thus, educators should integrate SBI within students' learning course content programs to help them

refine their writing skill. To sum up, it was found interesting to end up with Griffith's quotation on LLSs: "The effective use of LLSs might contribute to successful language learning is exciting." (Griffiths, 2003:381) Therefore, educators should be biased towards teaching SBI to achieve an enormous impact on EFL writing classes, and other language learning skills.

It is worth stressing that teachers should take a step forward for teaching LLSs to their students to help them improve their language skills, especially writing. For this reason, it was found interesting to implement SBI for learners of English who have shortcomings in paragraph writing. To carry out this investigation, students were firstly taught Oxford's LLSs to raise their awareness of the importance of using LLSs in learning better. Students had also the opportunity to practise cooperative learning strategies within which POWER strategy was integrated.

The results have shown that working collegially by using POWER strategy especially its four stages i.e., plan, organize, edit and revise helped learners think properly and write correctly. Students were evaluated before and after SBI using five rubrics, namely, focus, content, organization, style and conventions. Therefore, significant difference was found from November and April. Interacting together, sharing ideas, outlining, checking each peer mistakes and revising their paragraphs helped students improve their writing abilities.

It is noteworthy that the results obtained have demonstrated the practicability of SBI in enhancing students' writing abilities. Besides, when being interviewed, students were also satisfied by the effectiveness of the programme and their writing improvements. Students should be given the opportunity to transfer these strategies to other contexts, they should also be offered enough time to practise them aptly. Hence, it seems to be admitted that SBI really works in boosting students abilities to write well organized, correct, meaningful and coherent paragraphs.

5- Conclusion

For the last two decades, Oxford called for more research in that field in all over the world. For this reason, Algerian EFL research communities should take a step in doing further research in looking into deeper insights on the use of LLSs; Algerian EFL students should be differentiated from other EFL international students. Thus, the results of this study have been far reaching. They support the effectiveness of SBI in promoting positive growth in all writing domains, namely, focus, content, organisation, style and conventions.

It should be noted that the goal of SBI is to assist students to become effective and autonomous learners. Accordingly, language learners should go far beyond the transmission of knowledge by helping students acquire the knowledge, skills and strategies needed to take responsibility for their own learning. Creating a writing community based on expressing thoughts coherently and unambiguously is all that any teacher should make his/her learners achieve by adhering to the practices of SBI. Therefore, more time and practice should be allotted to writing instructions. Students need a great reinforcement of strategies in writing with explicit training, scaffolding and modelling. They need the opportunity to think about writing in different contexts, instead of merely being asked to complete writing assignments.

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Initiating and Maintaining Learners' Talking Time through Problem Solving Situations

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Abstract

Learners need practice in producing comprehensible output using the language resources at their disposal and already acquired. It has been also well cemented in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) practice that being pushed to produce output allows the production of more accurate and appropriate language. However, speaking courses are probably the most daunting. The major challenge persists with engaging learners into student-to-student interaction and maximizing the talking time. The current paper spots the light on the integration of problem solving situation, built upon the Facebook game "Criminal Case" framework as teacher own produced material to initiate and sustain learners' talking time during speaking courses in classes described as large. The paper pays close attention to learning opportunities generated by peer interaction compared to teacher-fronted classroom interaction. Using problem solving situations wherein learners are required to play the role of the famous detective Sherlock Holmes and get on the case to solve it proves to generate opportunities for learners to talk, maximize their talking time and build their confidence to use the target language in front of a jury (audience). Last but not least, interactional feedback from their interlocutors and negotiation for meaning push learners to further refine their output and adjust their grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation towards correct utterances.

Key words: peer interaction**,** problem solving situation**,** student talking time, teaching speaking

Introduction

A daily challenge of classroom teaching is to get students to do most of the talking in the speaking courses wherein teacher talk is minimized to its lowest rate and occupies most of the time instruction giving and corrective feedback provision needless to mention supplying vocabulary and language forms to use. The literature suggests that teacher talk should be 20% of the whole classroom student-teacher interaction. Therefore, the input; that is to say instructional material used throughout the speaking course, to which students are exposed is the ultimate stimulus to get learners to talk. However, the debate of recent years has been over the types of tasks and instructional material that could be used to get students to talk instinctively rather than being pushed to communicate. There is not unfortunately a ready-made recipe that could guarantee students' interaction to keep going and going with turn taking conventions. Teachers, thus, may find it helpful to devise their own material through integrating more than one item into a well-welded speaking task.

Three notions are so important to the success of speaking tasks: gaming, role playing and primarily problem-solving. Online games have won unprecedented popularity among youth since their first release. The advent of Facebook has also revolutionized social interaction throughout a bundle of proposed games wherein a group of users set themselves as a team and get started on a mission. Moreover, players get immersed in a virtual second life wherein they could choose a nickname and an avatar. Problem solving games such as Criminal Case remains one of the most preferred. Despite the fact that internet access remains out of reach in some Algerian public universities, the famous game Criminal Case could be replicated into the classroom with some minor changes.

Literature Review

Since the 1970s and 1980s teachers got past the belief that learning happens much only when learners acquire pieces of language first then put them together to make conversations. In fact, first language acquisition research makes a breakthrough revelation when infants are found to acquire their first language through interaction with other people (Bailey & Nunan, 2005). Further compelling evidence comes from studies in Canadian French Immersion Schools. Despite their mastery of academic content, learners seem far less able to conduct interpersonal conversations. Swain (1985) (as cited in Markee, 2015) accounts for such deficiency for the lack of productive use of the language on the learners' part. Such a claim is later articulated in the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. By way of explanation, compared to language comprehension process, learners are urged to use syntax during output. Swain (1995) claims that:

> 'output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, nondeterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. Output thus would seem to have a potentially significant role in the development of syntax and morphology' (p. 128) (as cited in Markee, 2015).

More important, Swain (1995) further suggests more than one function for the output regarding language learning and development. First, output gives learners opportunity to test hypotheses in terms of grammar rules. If their message is not understood, then, learners need to recycle their current language competence through analyzing what goes wrong in their utterance. Interpersonal interaction also allows for peer feedback when producing language. Simply put,

learners refine their utterances in grammar and vocabulary in response to their interlocutors' feedback. Equally important, they could have the opportunity to pick up new input if they are involved in conversation with more proficient speakers. Third, output provides more time space for learners to practice their target language. Through repeated use of language, automatization occurs such that routine phrases and/or words come to learners without a great deal of effort or deliberation. Last but not least, learners are required to use their knowledge of syntax (Markee, 2015).

In addition, Long (1996) (as cited in Markee, 2015) throughout the interaction hypothesis reaffirms the learning opportunities supplied through interpersonal interaction. Much similar to Swain's view, learners receive interactional feedback from their interlocutors. As a result, learners may negotiate for meaning whenever they seek clarification, confirmation and repetition of second language (L2) utterances they do not understand. They are too pushed to modify their output in their way to make themselves understood.

The paramount aim of teaching a foreign language is to produce good speakers of that language. Despite the fact that a variety of teaching methods have proliferated through the 21 century wherein the position and primacy of the four language skills have witnessed remarkable fluctuation; building learners' communication competence has been always in the forefront as a pedagogical focus. This fact has been fully adhered to since Hymes' criticism of the prominent American linguist Noam Chomsky notion of linguistic competence. He sees the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures (Richards & Rodgers, 1995). Thus, language learning is learning to communicate in its true essence. Moreover, the target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate (Richards & Rodgers, 1995). However, debate over what should constitute "communicative competence" continues to fuel academic research and much more speculations in scholarly circles. Since Hymes earlier specification of what 'communicative competence" should embody, his work proves to be just the starting point. Key components of "communicative competence", as identified by a number of leading researchers such as Canale and Swain 1980, Faerch, Haastrup, and Phillipson 1984, Bachman 1990 can be listed as: linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and fluency (as cited in Hedge. 2000).

Although second language acquisition research has enhanced methods, techniques, and ways of teaching speaking, learners of a foreign language prove incapable of speaking it sufficiently. Commonsense observation clearly indicates learners' ineptitude to meet their day-to-day communication needs in English beyond the classroom contexts such as in airports, handle financial transactions, reply to phone conversation, or have a lovely chat with a random native speaker. Serious questions rise to the surface about the reliability, efficiency and usefulness of teaching techniques employed to build learners' communicative competence mainly in mainstream higher education contexts. First, due to the absence of organized corpus planning activities, lack of peer mutual collaboration among instructors and shortage of formal teacher training programs, most university teachers face insurmountable challenges in the design of communicative curricula and teaching material development. Adding to that, owing to the fact that most instruction in university is not textbook-based, attempt to base your instruction on a single commercial textbook is still inevitably a challenge due to the multitude of accessible

published material such as books, worksheets, computer based material all of which claim to be example of a communicative syllabus. Whether the teacher uses a textbook, institutionally prepared material, or make use of his or her own material; instructional material should primarily serve to initiate and maintain learners talking time throughout the speaking course. A critical criterion to bear in mind is the fact that students-to-students interaction pattern is the ultimate learning objective. Second, being placed in a non-target language context has been always the first obstacle for major foreign language teachers. Learners find little room to use and practise using the already learned language forms and functions beyond the classroom walls. The latter could dampen their enthusiasm and enormously change their attitudes towards the usefulness of the language being learned. Because most human behavior is profit-drive, it is only when learners find communication situations where they are called to use the target language; they do fully recognize the rewarding side of learning a foreign language. Adding to that, learners have the tendency to construct their utterances in compliance with the linguistic rules of the mother tongue a process often referred to as language transfer (Littlewood, 1998). Moreover, because most language domain use, here in Algeria, is dominated by Dialectal Arabic, learners resort to using their mother tongue during group work whenever the teacher's monitoring is absent. Another problem is affective barriers that could constitute a block to learning. By way of explanation, Krashen (1982) stresses the fact that learners' emotional responses to the speaking task could generate negative feelings such as anxiety, loss of confidence, stress and losing one's face whenever errors are committed. Speaking tasks; be it fluency or accuracy based, seem to build both a heavy intellectual and emotional load on learners' shoulder particularly for beginner and intermediate level. It is commonly observed that some learners feel anxious about making mistakes, while others claim that they have nothing to say. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) (as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002) conclude that the greatest anxiety seems to relate to negative experiences in speaking activities. Adding to that, a much felt insurmountable challenge is the chaos that could occur if teachers relinquish the floor to the students (Bailey & Nunan, 2005). Put simply, in speaking classes attended by 40 learners, teachers often experience genuine difficulty in setting into motion their learners to talk, maximize and sustain the talking time, vary interaction patterns such as pair and group work, monitor and provide feedback, and balance turns taking between passive and dominant interlocutors (Bailey & Nunan, 2005).

Method

The current paper draws upon the experimental use of problem solving situations, particularly an adaptation of the Facebook detective game "Criminal Case", as teaching material to initiate student-to-student interaction patterns and maximize the learners' talking time. It also aims to measure the language learning and development opportunities generated due to peer interaction. Since the classroom is not equipped with computers or tablets and Wi-Fi; a prerequisite to play the game into the classroom, the teacher alternatively relies on a textbook-based material that resembles to a larger extent the Criminal Case game framework. The material is adapted from the book Crime and Puzzlement: 24 Solve-them-yourself Picture Mysteries. The book includes mysterious pictures of crime scenes. Readers are required to solve the crime throughout step by step question and answer procedure. Readers have to use all their available detective genius to come forward with compelling evidence so as to choose the right answer from a suggested multiple choice answers list. However, for the purpose of maximizing learners' talking time, the multiple choice answers list is dropped out. All questions are kept open-ended. First, learners are asked to consider the classroom as a crime scene where an intentional murder

has just occurred. Learners play the role of the famous detective Sherlock Holmes. They are summoned by the police department to attend to the crime scene and solve the case. Learners are then handed a photo which illustrates a murder scene. The learners have to respond to a case entitled "Boudoir" on page two.

Three interaction patterns are set forward with varied time span: pair work (20 minutes), four members group discussion (30 minutes), and teacher-led class discussion (20 minutes). Initially, learners are instructed to choose a peer to respond to the first question. Learners have to respond to 10 successive questions. It is worth to mention that questions are handed in a vacuum. After the pair work, learners are instructed to form groups of four members and respond to the same questions. Using the cocktail party technique, each group has to report their answers to a different group as if they were in a social gathering as the teacher says the word "swap the group" (Bailey & Nunan, 2005). During the last interaction pattern, teacher-led interaction, the teacher acts as a judge in a court of law and listens to each group, who in return acts as a claimant on behalf of the victim's family. The provided answers act as evidence to charge the possible murderer. Last, each group chooses a person to act out the crime again as most police investigation regulations stipulate.

For time management purposes, a software named PC Chrono is used to adjust the allotted time for each interaction pattern. The software functions as an alarm clock. The alarm clock is displayed using an Epson projector. The whole experiment is conducted throughout three successive speaking courses. Each course has one hour and half teaching time period. The population constitutes 120 second year undergraduate university students who represent three different groups: group one, two, and three. It is worth to mention that learners could be described as multi-level regarding their communicative competence. They range in a continuum of passive speaker, prompted to speak, and dominant interlocutors.

For data collection purposes in relation to peer interaction and leaning opportunities, the teacher gets involved in pair work and group discussion as participant observer. The teacher constantly changes the group with which he interacts. The teacher keeps his involvement and his input to a minimum rate. Moreover, much of the input represents a stimulus such as wh-questions to sustain the interaction. Participant observation also allows more adequate space for teacher monitoring mainly to discourage mother tongue use, provide vocabulary, and solve communication breakdowns.

Results and Discussion

One of the first requirements of good teaching is a reduced teacher talking time. In a typical speaking course, teachers aim for 80% of students talking time compared to only 20% teacher talking time. In other words, in a speaking language classroom, teacher talk includes only explaining language points, giving instruction, providing corrective feedback, and asking questions. Much of the stage is allotted to student-to-student interaction (Scrivener, 2011). However, whether using accuracy based practice or fluency centered tasks, many teachers find it hard to give a kick start to engage learners in interaction and maximize the talking time in large classes of forty students in one single room. However, the current experiment reveals some startling findings if ever compared to previous speaking courses held with the same concerned groups.

To start with, learners overcome their reticence and get involved into interaction instantly. More surprising, passive learners get out of their shell and have their voice heard. Despite being offered no reward, the Criminal Case game, as it involves resolving a murder crime, provides enough intrinsic motivation for learner to talk owing to the fact that they are required to piece parts together so as to point fingers of murder allegation towards the most suspected perpetrator. More important, there is usually some communicative need that moves people to talk. As Pennington (1995) (as cited in Bailey & Nunan, 2005) puts it, teachers should attend to the communicative needs and purposes of language learners. Sometimes in language classrooms, teachers seem to forget the natural joy and enthusiasm of talking about something interesting, or accomplishing a genuine purpose for communicating with others. By implication, to redress learners' reticence, instructional material should be well-engineered to embody interesting topics or ideas to stimulate conversations and discussions. Teachers could set needs analysis surveys to pick up learners' preferred topics that could generate considerable fuss and buzz. In a similar vein, day to day communication also functions to get things done such as booking a hotel room or ordering a main course in a restaurant. Thus, interaction is much boosted providing that learners are set into teams to accomplish a challenging task collectively. In the terminology of cooperative learning, such student-team learning is called group investigation (Cruickshank, Jenkins, & Metcalf, 2011).

In terms of interaction patterns, pair work and mixed groups yield enormous opportunity for interaction for fluency purposes. Out of the blue, group-to-group interaction pattern requires more of the allotted time. Some interlocutors do not respond to the teacher's instruction when asked to swap the group. They request some additional time to finish their arguments. Unexpectedly, less interaction is generated in teacher-led interaction when learners have to report their answers to the judge. By way of explanation, teacher-led conversation often results in negative feelings such as anxiety and loss of confidence that could constitute a barrier and dampen enthusiasm to talk. More important, due to the intellectual, authority and language proficiency advantage position of the teacher, learners cannot compete in the interaction to argue against the teacher's perspective. They much backtrack to a listener position and conform to what their teacher says even at some deliberate attempts to falsify their arguments and twist around their claims. However, only few dominant speakers do have counter-claims and take turn to debate. In addition, because teachers happen to provide corrective feedback to sustain interaction; different forms of this feedback such as reformulations, prompts, repetition of learner's error, metalinguistic clues or explanation and paralinguistic signals breaks the flow of the interaction needless to mention the distraction damage it inflicts on the interlocutor. In a nutshell, corrective feedback further turns learners much more hesitant for their need to reformulate their utterances and make it more understood before they spit it out. The latter could shift the main focus of the interaction from fluency based to accuracy oriented purposes. As a consequence, learners may take more time to process their utterance and elaborate them. They even may shut down some utterances and never attempt to express themselves. Equally important, teachers could also provide incomprehensible input mainly by novice teachers who cannot tune their language to their learners' stage of development.

In contrast, peer interaction; be it in pairs or groups, generates more uninterrupted talking time due to the type of the task in the first place in the sense that learners have to resolve the murder crime and find the assassin. *To put it in another way*, each question, in its true essence,

requires arguing and supplying solid arguments. It is also important to mention that peer interaction sets the mood of casual outside conversation wherein feeling of stress and anxiety is almost absent. Furthermore, swapping groups proves to be a very effective classroom management technique. In contrast, setting learners into fixed groups could generate confrontational competitive attitudes which affects primarily turn taking allocation. Another key thing to remember, team-versus-team competition interaction pattern produces more unproductive noise in this context. Less proficient speakers are also already at a disadvantage position and can lose easily not having enough vocabulary to express themselves at their disposal on the right time. Thus competition always occurs among matched or somewhat like-achieving students (Cruickshank, Jenkins, & Metcalf, 2011).

Regarding leaning and development opportunities, pair work and group discussion has generated much negotiation of meaning process between interlocutors. Pica (1994) describes it as occurring when 'learners seek clarification, confirmation, and repetition of L2 utterances they do not understand' (p. 56) (as cited in Markee, 2015). Their negotiation of meaning attempts is attributed to two main reasons: the nature of the teaching material and the dynamics of group argument and debate. First, the teaching material, The Criminal Case in this context, pushes interlocutors to formulate solid arguments that should sound much plausible and deduced from the given crime scene. This makes them attend to more accurate language structure. More important, they have to dig for the right vocabulary and language structure to make their message understood. However, as learners present their findings to their mates, their arguments can be refuted. As a consequence, they take a defensive position to claim what they are saying is right. The latter fuels the conversation and maintains the talking time. Adding to that, there are instances when conversations turn into a clash of two different narratives. Moreover, there are also breakdown instances in interaction because the utterance has not been well understood. In doing so, learners may "notice the gap" (Schmidt and Frota, 1986) (as cited in Bailey & Nunan, 2005) between what they want to say and what they can say, or between what they say and what other people say. That is, learners work to make themselves understood, they must attend to accuracy. They must select the right vocabulary, apply grammar rules, and pronounce words carefully (Bailey & Nunan, 2005). In a nutshell, peer interaction affords learners greater conscious raising about accuracy and intelligibility.

Conclusion

Teaching speaking in higher education contexts can be a potential crisis for teachers as they are entrusted with creating opportunities for learners to get engaged into interpersonal conversations and maximize the talking time for the fact that the speaking course could be the only chance where the target language is used. The essential ingredient of a communicative classroom is the availability of opportunities for learners to produce comprehensible output on a massive scale. Because much of the focus is to get learners talk using some newly taught language forms and functions, the success of any teacher attempt relies to some extent on the instructional material brought into use. Communicative activities that mingle key notions of gaming, role playing and problem solving prove to be of value in helping students overcome the emotional and intellectual burden often associated with using the target language in a classroom. Equally important, rather than being pushed to talk as part of their response to the teacher instruction, the components of gaming and problem solving set learners on their toes in their pursuit of the most suspected profiles before any allegation could be made. Adding to that,

depicting the famous Sherlock Holmes personality serve to intrigue learners to employ much higher-reasoning skills. It is so critical to highlight the fact that learners may fall out of the wagon and resort to use their mother tongue since the task set before hands involves much debating, arguing and disseminating arguments. Learners may come across some linguistic barriers such as the lack of adequate vocabulary or language forms; consequently, they find it challenging to put their ideas into words. Teachers' role then involves constant monitoring wherein they discourage any attempt to use learners' mother tongue during the interaction time.

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Appendix A

Amy LaTour's body was found in her bedroom last night, as shown, with her pet canary strangled in its cage. Henry Willy and Joe Wonty, her boyfriends; Louis Spanker, a burglar known to have been in the vicinity; and Celeste, her maid, were questioned by the police.

As a police detector, you need to gather enough evidence from the crime scene to answer the following questions:

① *How was Amy apparently killed?*
② *Is there evidence of a violent struggle?*
③ *Was her murderer strong?*
④ *Was Amy fond of jewelry?*
⑤ *Was she robbed?*
⑥ *Do you think she had been on friendly terms with the killer?*
⑦ *Was the canary strangled before the Am's death?*
⑧ *Who is/are the most suspicious of Amy murderer?*
⑨ *Who killed Amy?*

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The Role of Social Evaluation in Influencing Public Speaking Anxiety of English Language Learners at Omar Al-Mukhtar University

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Abstract

This study investigates the effect of social evaluation on Public Speaking Anxiety (PSA) of English foreign language learners at Omar Al-Mukhtar University, in Libya. The findings that will be reported in this study will be significant particularly to educationist, language teachers, and policy makers and most importantly to the body of knowledge in the area of Public Speaking Anxiety and second language learning. In the quest of achieving the highlighted objectives in this research in a methodologist approach, the study approached Libyan students that are learners of English. The study employed a data collection instrument to inquire about the type of Public Speaking Anxiety they experience. And it also covers different factors that are responsible for the PSA. The questionnaire distributed concentrate on the impact of social evaluation on public speaking that provoke fear anxiety of student. A random sample of 111 students were used in the study. To analyse the collected data, means, standard deviations, a three-way ANOVA analysis, the correlation coefficients and Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) were used with social evaluation as the dependent variable and Public Speaking Anxiety as the independent variable. The findings show that social evaluation is a very significant aspect and is an important contributor to Public Speaking Anxiety of English foreign language learners at Omar Al-Mukhtar University. The study recommends that students need to sense their feelings about their speaking anxiety associated with English language, they also should be advised to participate in speaking practice out loud either lonely or with other classmates as this has the tendency of increasing their proficiency level of speaking English language and encourages their confidence to speak in public without fear or feeling of anxiety.

Keywords: anxiety, audience, communication, Language performance, language, learning, speaking.

Introduction

Public Speaking Anxiety (PSA) appears to be rampant among English foreign language learners (EFLLs). The issue of PSA has become a general phenomenon across higher learning institutions around the world even in cases where the first language is being used by the speaker. For example, a survey conducted among the American college students showed that 35% of the total students (whether native speakers or EFLLs) evaluated indicated either a higher, high, or moderate readiness for help in respect of PSA (Bishop, Bower, & Becker, 1998). However, EFLLs often experience the impact of the anxiety to a greater extent in that it affects their ability to compose themselves and thus perform well in public speaking.

The impacts of PSA include the possibility that affected EFLLs do not attend lectures in order to avoid participation in oral presentations or group discussions, while others who attend the classes avoid speaking and/or fail to establish relations with their colleagues. The impact may even extend to not participating in social events. Anxiety in general can be likened to a phobia as the fear is not linked with danger. More specifically, in a situation where nervousness about public speaking is so great that it interferes with a person's life, then the PSA may be classed as a social phobia. Thus, Tobias (1986, p.78) defines anxiety as a complex idea relying on one's feelings of self-efficacy as well as appraisals relating to the potential and perceived threats entrenched in particular situations. Similarly, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986, p.125) give a general definition of anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system". Therefore, anxiety is a state of uncomfortable emotion in which danger is perceived, and the victim has a powerless feeling because of the tension related to the perceived danger.

Anxiety can be classified in a number of ways. Scovel (1978, p.67) refers to "trait anxiety" as a rapid permanent behaviour or feeling to be anxious which is considered to be part of the personality. Spielberger (1983, p.111) refers to a second classification as "state anxiety" which is explained as the apprehension encountered by the victim at a specific time period as a stimulus to a situation which is definite. Ellis (1994, p.98) refers to a third classification as "situation-specific anxiety" which is associated with apprehension that is related to a particular phenomenon and situations.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1994) explain the idea behind apprehension experienced in relation to PSA as often related to a particular situation whereby the second language in which the speaker is not fully competent is to be used in public speaking. It is important to note that PSA is usually associated with fear among different categories of people in any society (Gibson, Gruner, Hanna, Smythe & Hayes, 1980). In addition, "public speaking anxiety represents a cluster of evaluative feelings about speech making" (Daly, Vangelisti, Neel, & Cavanaugh, 1989, p.40) in which case speakers who are very anxious do not experience positive feelings related to the context of public speaking. For several years, researchers in communication have investigated explanations encompassing the psychological and physiological parts of PSA in order to proffer remedies that could lessen its adverse influence.

Statement of the Problem

In general, foreign language anxiety is a crucial factor affecting foreign language learning and performance (Aida, 1994; Miyuki, 2000), as language learners can experience devastating

levels of language anxiety (Yukina, 2003; Ueda, 2004; Zhang, 2008). The effect of anxiety on foreign language learning has been the subject of a growing body of research, which has focused mostly on students studying foreign languages in the United States of America and Canada (Andrade, 2008). The researcher believes that most Libyan undergraduate students face similar difficulties when learning foreign languages. Based on the researcher's experience, one of the major problems for the Libyan EFLLs is speaking and learning a language effectively because of their anxiety. Many Libyan undergraduate students produce disconnected and isolated sentences as a result of the debilitating levels of anxiety that they experience when learning a foreign language. In relation to this, the major problems that Libyan undergraduate students face is a lack of confidence when speaking in the foreign language. Although these students understand the importance language learning, they still find it difficult to use the foreign language accurately.

English is taught in Libya as a foreign language (EFL) with students expected to master all the four basic language skills i.e. reading , listening, speaking, and writing (Al Jamal, 2007). The phenomenon of PSA is common among EFLLs at The English Language Department under the College of Arts and Sciences of Omar El-Mukhtar University. One of the fundamental objectives of the English Department is to ensure effectiveness and creativity in communication and language skills among the staff and students of Omar El-Mukhtar University through the provision of intensive training advantages. English language has become very important as a medium of group discussion. In addition, English can be used to communicate with native speakers and non-Arabic speakers whose second language it is. Therefore, competency in English language speaking for Arab students at the University could play a prominent role in influencing the degree of PSA in different situations.

In recent years, the problem of PSA has been increasing among the EFLL of Omar El-Mukhtar University. This phenomenon is proving such a challenge that understanding the factors contributing to it is necessary with a view to providing possible solutions to overcome it. The current study focuses on the PSA among EFLLs at Omar El-Mukhtar University.

Defining Anxiety

The definition of anxiety is difficult as it can range from an amalgam of overt behavioural characteristics that can be studied scientifically to introspective feelings that are epistemologically inaccessible (Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2001, p.96). From the fields of anthropology, psychology and education, numerous perspectives on anxiety have been put forward; in the majority of cases, these perspectives concern the notions of fear and threats to a person's physical safety or psychological wellbeing in his/her interactions with the environment (Wilson, 2006 p.132). In the nineteenth century, Darwin, (1872) thought of anxiety as "an emotional reaction that is aroused when an organism feels physically under threat". In contrast, at the beginning of the twentieth century, Freud (1920) thought that anxiety was akin to fear or fright (cited in Wilson, 2006). In later decades, anxiety is seen as a "state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object" (Scovel, 1978, p. 42).

The next step occurred when Spielberger distinguished between the notions of anxiety and fear (Wilson, 2006). According to him, fear is caused by "a real objective danger in the environment" (Wilson, 2006, p. 84), but the reasons behind anxiety may not be known to

him/her. In this case, anxiety is defined as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with the arousal of the nervous system" (Cubukcu, 2007, p.40).

Furthermore, Horwitz and Cope (1986) produce a definition similar to Spielberger's, except that for them the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry are associated with an arousal of the "autonomic nervous system". Along these lines, Weinberg and Gould define anxiety as a "negative emotional state characterized by nervousness, worry and apprehension, and associated with activation or arousal of the body" (1995, p.53) while for Prince, anxiety can be described as a "feeling unlike any other signal of distress" (2002, p.99).

Meanwhile, according to Ooi (2002), anxiety is triggered by a combination of one's biochemical changes, personal history and memory, and social situation. Although animals also experience anxiety, it does not involve the ability to use memory or imagination to move forward and backward in time. In other words, human anxiety can be caused by post-traumatic experiences or the anticipation of future events (Ooi, 2002). Without this sense of personal continuity over time, humans would not have anything to trigger anxiety. However, it is important to distinguish between anxiety as a disorder and anxiety as a feeling or experience. In other words, one may feel anxious and yet does not have anxiety disorder (Ooi, 2002).

Public Speaking Anxiety

PSA is a specific type of Communication Apprehension. MacIntyre, Thivierge and MacDonald define PSA as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication in front of a group of persons" (1997, p.158).

The fear of speaking in public goes by many different names. Previously, it was called 'stage fright'—a serious problem most often seen in actors—but is now called Communication Apprehension. The term covers many kinds of communication fears in diverse situations: fear of talking on the telephone, fear of face-to-face conversations, fear of talking to authority figures or high-status individuals, fear of speaking to another individual, fear of speaking in a small group, and fear of speaking to an audience. Similarly, certain medical practitioners argue that students who read about the fear of public speaking may see themselves as more apprehensive than those who do not know about it. However, as more teachers learn about Communication Apprehension, they support a discussion of the problem in textbooks (McCroskey, 1996).

This finding is corroborated by others who report that public speaking is the most common single fear regardless of age, sex, education level. Social Skills (2010) report that 20% of the population feels a specific fear of embarrassment while speaking, writing, or eating in public. Similarly, McCroskey (1999) reports that invariably 20% of students are faced with PSA.

Factors Affecting Public Speaking Anxiety

Many influencing factors have been considered in studies relating to PSA. For example, in relation to demographic factors, people are found to be more vulnerable to social anxiety, particularly the fear of unfavourable social evaluation because younger people tend to be more self-conscious and have concerns about public self-image (Levpuscek & Videc, 2008). Anxiety is stronger when underpinned by the fear of negative social evaluation (Levpuscek, 2004; Puklek

& Vidmar, 2000). Therefore, it is argued that the degree of anxiety in younger people would be higher, particularly because of the fear of negative evaluation. However, studies on age differences in positive imaginary audience are rare as most studies focus on negative imaginary audience (Levpuscek & Videc, 2008).

Gender difference is another demographic factor affecting the PSA. With respect to the effect of gender differences on PSA, studies such as Levpuscek (2004) and Puklek and Vidmar (2000) report that apprehension and fear of negative evaluation is higher among younger female students than their male counterparts because younger female students have a greater tendency to be more concerned with their public self-image. Similarly, Matsuda and Gobel (2004) record that gender and proficiency have a significant impact on the performance of students in the classroom. Furthermore, the results of Fakhri (2012) and Tasee (2009)) indicate that there is significant correlation between female students and PSA. In addition, McCroskey, Gudykunst, and Nishida (1985) in a study based in Japan found that there were different levels of PSA across the genders. However, Wang (2010) indicates that there is no significant difference in PSA with respect to gender. Thus, studies which have investigated gender as a factor affecting PSA have found conflicting and inconsistent results, such that the findings become inconclusive.

English language competency is another factor that is likely to influence anxiety among students in terms of public speaking. English language has become very important as a medium of group discussion, oral presentation and for proposal defence in Libyan universities. In addition, English language is used to communicate with native speakers. Gardner and MacIntyre (1994) explain that apprehension is often related to a particular situation where the second language in which the speaker is not fully competent is used in public speaking. Therefore, competency in English language speaking could play a prominent role in influencing the degree of PSA.

In this context, the impact of competency in English language on PSA has been related to insecurity or the absence of self-confidence (Gutierrez-Calvo & Miguel-Tobal, 1998) and the lack of competence in public speaking (Behnke & Sawyer, 1999; Westenberg, 1999). Furthermore, students' differences in their speaking ability due to English language competence has also been linked to affect the ability to overcome nervousness that results in PSA. Tasee (2009) found that students with lower perceived language ability are more anxious about speaking, while Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) reported that competency in English language is one of the major influences on PSA. In contrast, Pribyl, Keaten, and Sakamoto (2001) noted that the degree of competency in English language bears no relationship with the levels of PSA experienced.

Also in terms of English language competency, pronunciation is seen as an important facilitator of fluency in communication. However, studies focusing on the relationship between pronunciations as a component of oral performance and PSA are rare (Cheng, 1998) However, Liu (2006) and Woodrow (2006) find that oral performance is related to English language anxiety. This is because, as Price (1991) argues, speakers feel embarrassed because of their pronunciation errors. In addition, poor pronunciation is likely to contribute to Communication Apprehension, test anxiety, and the fear of negative evaluation. PSA could be ignited by Communication Apprehension because of the fear that communication may not be well-

articulated due to poor pronunciation. Pronunciation may also play a role in test anxiety. This is particularly the case when students have the feeling of being graded by the teachers on the quality of their pronunciation. Finally, the fear of a negative evaluation occurs if the speaker fears that the audience think that their pronunciation is weak (Shams, 2006).

The Impact of Social Evaluation on Public Speaking Anxiety

As highlighted earlier, social evaluation plays a prominent role in the levels of PSA experienced by students, as younger individuals often base their self-evaluations on their imagined audience, which comprises two types, positive and negative (Goossens, 1984; Lapsley, FitzGerald, Rice & Jackson, 1989).

In this context, "public speaking anxiety represents a cluster of evaluative feelings about speech making" (Daly, Vangelisti, Neel & Cavanaugh, 1989, p.40). Thus, speakers who are highly anxious do not experience positive feelings related to the context of public speaking. In turn this is exacerbated as young students are preoccupied with their perception of their social evaluation and as such they assume that the audience is more concerned the students' appearance and behaviour rather than the message (Elkind, 1978). Thus, they are concerned about making mistakes and being perceived as looking stupid in front of their fellow students. Other students become upset because they feel that they are the centre of attention but what they are about to say may not be of interest to the audience. This fear of an unfavourable assessment by the audience can aggravate their PSA. As a result, many international students believe that their contribution to any group discussion and oral presentation should be perfect. It is this anxiousness to appear perfect in order to attract a positive evaluation results in PSA that creates PSA.

Research Design

Research design performs the role of ensuring that the evidence gained clearly answers the research question. Sekaran and Bougie (2011) note that research design has to do with taking reasonable decisions in making the choices among the different methods of analysis such as exploratory, descriptive and hypothesis testing to realize the study's objectives. Furthermore, the methods of sampling, gathering data, the measurement of both dependent and independent variables, and data analysis in terms of hypotheses testing involve making rational decisions. The methods used serve the purpose of explaining the collection of the data involved (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Quantitative tests can be employed in an acceptable design in formulating hypotheses (which may or may not be supported); this may be slightly different from other inter-disciplinary research. The formulation of a hypothesis should be based on mathematical and statistical means which should not be subject to questioning. Furthermore, the use of randomization of groups in quantitative research and the inclusion of a control group where necessary are very important. The method used should be such that it could be replicated in the same way with the same results (Kumar, 2011).

Data Analysis

This section discusses how the quantitative data is collected from the students and how the data is analysed. The quantitative data is collected by means of a questionnaire survey, and then the researcher uses SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) to analyse the collected

data. Descriptive statistics are also used to help answer the research questions relevant to the respondents' anxiety level.

Findings and Results

The following are the results of the study aimed at determining the effect of social evaluation on PSA of EFLLs at Omar al-Mukhtar University in the academic year 2014/2015

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Correlation between Social Evaluation and Public Speaking Anxiety

In order to examine the influence of social evaluation on PSA, this study analyses the correlation between the two variables. Table 4.1 presents the results of the relationship between the independent variable, social evaluation, and the dependent variable, PSA.

Table 4.1 ***Correlation between Social Evaluation and Public Speaking Anxiety***

	Independent Variable
Test	**Social Evaluation**
Person Correlation	-0.381***
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
No. of respondents	111

Note: *** indicates that correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.1 highlights that the value of the Pearson Correlation based on 108 respondents is negative which implies that the total PSA as the dependent variable moves in the opposite direction to social evaluation (the independent variable). The value of the Pearson Correlation is -0.381 implying that there is a medium correlation between the two variables. Furthermore, since p=0.000 (sig. 2-tailed) is smaller than 0.05%, this implies that social evaluation has significant impact on the total PSA. In other word, there is a significant negative correlation between the two variables.

In order to investigate the significances of the above correlation between the variables in relation to the influence of English language competence on PSA, the results of the speaking skills of the sample students were obtained (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 ***Statistics of Speaking Skills for English Language Learners***

Bands	**No. of Students in A111 1st Year, 2015**	**No. of Students in A112 2nd Year, 2014**	**No. of Students in A112 3rd Year, 2014**	**Total**
1.0	0	0	1	**1**
1.5	1	1	1	**3**
2.0	0	1	3	**4**
2.5	1	0	0	**1**
3.0	2	3	2	**7**
3.5	0	0	0	**0**
4.0	6	6	6	**18**
4.5	0	4	3	**7**
5.0	5	1	8	**14**

5.5	0	0	4	**4**
6.0	8	3	5	**16**
6.5	2	2	5	**9**
7.0	2	4	7	**13**
7.5	1	1	2	**4**
8.0	5	2	3	**10**
8.5	0	0	0	**0**
9.0	0	0	0	**0**
Total	**33**	**28**	**50**	**111**

Source: English Language Department, Omar Al-Mukhtar University.
Note: A111 and A112 are English course codes.

Table 4.2 shows the results of the speaking skills ranging from band 1.0 to band 9.0. Band 1 is the lowest marks scored by the students for the test of their English language skills while the Band 9.0 represents the highest possible mark. These skills are determined by testing the student on speaking, writing, reading, and listening. The results obtained are summarized for each year.

The results for the first year, 2015 show that out of total of 33 students, 15 students scored below band 6.0 which represents 45.45% of the population and 18 students scored band 6.0 or above which represents 54.55%. Therefore, in the first year slightly more students than the average were considered to be competent in English language skills. In terms of the second year, 2014 out of a total of 28 students, 16 were below band 6.0 which represents 57.14% of the population and 12 students achieved band 6.0 or above which represents 42.86%. Therefore, in the second year, 2014, less students than the average were considered to be competent in English language skills. In the third year, 2014, out of 50 students. 28 students achieved below band 6.0 which represents 54.90% of the population while 16 students got band 6.0 or above which represents 45.10%. Therefore, in the third year 2014, fewer students than the average were considered to be competent in English language skills.

In total, 59 students scored below band 6.0 out of the total population of 111, which represents 52.68%, while 16 students scored band 6.0 which represents 45.10%. This shows that the number of students considered to be competent in English language skills were lower than those who were not competent.

The above summary of the EFLLs' results were supported by the questionnaire survey. About 4/5 of the respondents to the survey agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that "I understand but cannot speak English so I have anxiety" (Item ELC3). The mean value was 2.24. Similarly, over 80% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that "My speaking ability is very poor which makes me fear making mistakes" (ELC9). The mean value was 4.31. This suggests that many students experienced PSA because of their weak competence in speaking.

In another question, 89 respondents (82.4%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that "my thought become confused and jumped when I am giving a speech". Of the 89 students, 53 (49.07%) were males and 36 (33.33%) were females. Looking at the results, the mean value

for this item (SA1) was 4.31 which was the high scores obtainable when compared to the other lower value for other items. A similarly result was gained in relation to the statement that "I am in constant fear of forgetting what I prepared to say". The numbers of students who either agreed or strongly agreed was again 82.4%. The mean value recorded for this item (SA4) was also 4.31.

Conclusion

This study addresses the issue of what role is played by social evaluation in influencing the occurrence of PSA among EFLLs at Omar Al-Mukhtar University. In order to pursue this, a total of 111 students (for the academic year 2014/2015) completed a questionnaire. The data collected was analysed through a number of statistical tests including correlation in order to answer the research question, "What role has social evaluation played in affecting Public Speaking Anxiety of EFLLs in the English Department at Omar Al-Mukhtar University?". The results of the correlation suggest that social evaluation has a significant impact on PSA. It can be concluded that there are a significant number of factors responsible for the causes of anxiety among English language learners. The anxiety expressed itself in a number of ways including making the students fearful, confused, tremble, tense, rigid, their heart beat faster, and nervous. This lead the students to feel they made more mistakes and perform weakly when delivering speeches, attending interviews or during class room presentations. Furthermore, students identified that they found great difficulty in speaking English although some of them understood it, which contributed to their PSA. Overall, the results suggest that student with weak skills and who lack competence in English language are more liable to experience PSA compared to those who have good skills and competence in English language. Finally, it can be concluded that the social evaluation factor is the most important motivating factor causing anxiety. On the basis of the research findings the researcher recommend some pedagogical proposals, it is hoped that through this study an improvement in oral expression teaching could be achieved and we can expect anxiety in foreign language speaking to be reduced. The results of the study are found both similar to and different from previous studies that involve students from other cultures. Therefore, the study should be replicated with a larger sample size, future studies need to be conducted using populations with various educational backgrounds and diverse levels of English proficiency, as well as populations in other age groups, such as adult learners and younger learners.

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