



Arab World English Journal

INTERNATIONAL PEER REVIEWED JOURNAL ISSN: 2229-9327

مجلة اللغة الانكليزية في العالم العربي

AWEJ Volume.7 Number.1 March, 2016

www.awej.org



Team of this issue

Editor

Dr. Khairi Al-Zubaidi

Associate Editor

Dr. Robert Arthur Côté

Center for English as Second Language
College of Humanities, University of Arizona, USA

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank all those who contributed to this volume as reviewers of papers. Without their help and dedication, this volume would have not come to the surface. Among those who contributed were the following:

Prof. Dr. Manfred Malzahn

Director of Research and Graduate Studies Support, United Arab Emirates University, Al-Ain, UAE

Dr. Nedal Mousa Al-Mousa

Arab Open University, Jordan

Dr. Manal Qutub

Academic Affairs, ELI, University of Jeddah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Dr. Mohammed Omer Ramadan

Department of English, Faculty of Arts, Sirte University, Libya

Dr. Ali Al-Issa

Assoc. Prof. of TESOL, College of Law, Sultan Qaboos University, Oman

Dr. Choudhary Zahid Javid

Foreign Languages Department, Taif University, Saudi Arabia

Dr. Mohammed Larouz,

Department of English, School of Arts and Humanities, Moulay Ismail University of Meknes, Morocco

Contents

Article Titles & authors	Pages
Team of this issue	1
Contents	1-2
Editorial	3-4
Khairi Al-Zubaidi	
Establishing a Reading Culture in Arabic and English in Oman Rahma Al-Mahrooqi & Christopher Denman	5- 17
New Approaches to Teacher Effectiveness Mouna Abou Assali &Plamen Kushkiev	18- 31
English Medium Instruction in the Transition Year: Case from KSA Fauzia Shamim, Abeer Abdelhalim &Nabila Hamid	32 - 47
Internet Integration as Sociocultural Practices by Urban English Teachers in Malaysia Kok-Eng Tan	48 - 62
EFL Jordanian Students' Reaction to Written Comments on Their Written Work: A Case Study Abdullah M. Al-Sawalha	63 - 77
EFL Saudi Undergraduate Students' Use of Metacognitive Listening Strategies Nasrin Altuwairesh	78 - 93
Self-Deception in Margaret Laurence's The Stone Angel Asmaa Awad Ahmed & Nelly Atef Hashaad	94-107
Learner-centered Instruction in English Education: Reality and Expectations Al-maqtri Mahmoud Ahmad	108 - 122
Does Student Self-Assessment Assess as Valid and Reliable as Teacher Assessment? Abdul Muth'im	123 -139
Autonomy in Vocabulary Learning: Vocabulary Learning Strategies Teaching Programme for EFL Libyan Learners Salma H M Khalifa & Ahmad Affendi Shabdin	140 - 159
Exploring the Interactions and Perceptions of EFL Instructors in the Saudi Online Learning Environment Ali Hussein Alamir	160 - 177
Peer Feedback, Self-correction, and Writing Proficiency of Indonesian EFL Students Bambang Yudi Cahyono Rosyi Amrina	178-193
Magical Realism for Revolutionary Didactic Purposes in Ngugi's Matigari Malika BOUHADIBA	194 - 202
Saudi and Jordanian Undergraduates' Complaining Strategies: A Comparative Intralanguage Educational Linguistic Study Ra'ed Abdulgader Al-Shorman	203 - 228
Contextual vs. Verbal Consistency in the Translations of the Qur'anic Polysemous Verb ata: A corpus-based Study Sherine Abd El-Gelil Emara	229 -278

Contents

The Effect of Semantic Mapping on Students' Vocabulary Ghuzayyil M. Al-Otaibi	279- 294
Attenuating Obscenity of Swearwords in the Amateur Subtitling of English Movies into Arabic Abed Shahooth Khalaf & Sabariah Md Rashid	295 – 309
Effect of Attitude on Foreign Language Acquisition: Arabic Pronunciation as Case Study Nasser Saleh AlMansour	310-325
Evaluating Academic Writing Textbook: Teachers' and Students' Perspectives M. Ali Ghufroon & Mursid Saleh	326-340
Teachers' Perceptions of Self-observation As An Appraisal Tool Samira Boukadi Haj Sassi	341- 357
The Effect of EFL Large classes on Yarmouk University Students' Achievement Manar M. Asqalan	358 - 369
Testing Collocational Knowledge of Yemeni EFL University Students at Universiti Utara Malaysia Nabil Mohammed S. Banboua	370 - 387
Mobile-Mediated Communication a Tool for Language Exposure in EFL Informal Learning Settings Sultan Saleh Ahmed Almekhlafy & Ali Abbas Falah Alzubi	388-407
Metaphors Production and Comprehension by Qatari EFL learners: A Cognitive Approach Hanan Zaki Alsadi	408 - 421
Can an Oral Test Change Teachers' and Students' Strategies and Materials? Ahmed Chaouki Hoadjli	422 - 431
Positive Attitude and English Language Learning: Psycho-pedagogic Connections Intakhab Alam Khan	432 - 444
The Effect of Jigsaw Strategy on ESL Students' Reading Achievement Sabah Salman Sabbah	445-458
Contradictory Conceptualizations of teachers by Students in the Saudi Context Mohammed I. Alghbban & Zouheir A. Maalej	459-475
The Effectiveness of Dynamic Discussion Model in English Learning Ridha Fadillah	476- 489
Evaluation of Listening and Speaking Syllabus in EFL Situation at the Preparatory Year Program Taj Mohammad & Bilal A. Itoo	490- 505
The Effects of Computerized Instructional Program on Saudi High School Students' Academic Achievement in English Khalid I. Al-Nafisah & Ibrahim M. Al-Domi	506 - 520
Book Review: Corpus Linguistics and Linguistically Annotated Corpora Authors: Sandra Kubler & Heike Zinsmeister Reviewer: Lee McCallum	521-424

Establishing a Reading Culture in Arabic and English in Oman

Rahma Al-Mahrooqi

Deputy Vice-Chancellor of Postgraduate Studies and Research,
Sultan Qaboos University, Oman
PO Box 17, Al-Khoud, PC123, Sultanate of Oman

Christopher Denman

Humanities Research Centre, Sultan Qaboos University, Oman
PO Box 50, Al-Khoud, PC123, Sultanate of Oman

Abstract

Within the Arab Gulf nation of Oman, reading skills in both Arabic and English are often associated with academic achievement, social success, and the development of life-long learning skills. In this context, reading is closely linked with a number of benefits, including school readiness and participation, learner motivation and self-confidence, employability and social mobility, future happiness, and the willingness and ability of individuals to take an active and constructive role in society. Despite this, Oman, like many of the other Arab nations, has been characterized as largely lacking a reading culture in either Arabic or English. Recent reforms and initiatives in the country have sought to improve learners' reading skills and to take the first steps towards establishing a genuine reading culture. This paper, therefore, begins by exploring some of the potential personal, social, and economic benefits that may be accrued through the establishment of a reading culture as supported by these reforms, before detailing some of the challenges that need to be addressed for this to be achieved. It ends by arguing for the need for various stakeholders to work together to design and implement a nation-wide reading program to help improve the quality of education in the country, and to also allow Oman to continue its path of development as a globally-competitive, stable, and dynamic nation.

Keywords: Arabic, benefits of reading, English, Oman, reading culture, reading programs

Introduction

Improving the quality of education can contribute to long-term individual, social and economic gains that can have a profound impact on personal fulfillment, national competitiveness, growth, and development. Despite these potential advantages, Coughlan (2015) states that a global school ranking from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) based on a variety of international assessment tools such as the Pisa and the TIMSS tests, places Oman as among the five lowest-ranked nations in terms of students' math and science results. In addition, a recent report by Education First (2015) claims that Omanis have "very low" levels of English proficiency based on an on-line language test, and that Oman was ranked 58th out of 70 countries worldwide in this regard. Similar findings indicating the underperformance of both Omani and other Arab learners in reading and literacy skills have also been reported in the literature (Al-Mahrooqi, Asante, & Abrar-ul-Hassan, 2010; Bell, 2001). Authors such as O'Sullivan (2009) claim that, as Arabic is a diglossic tongue with colloquial Arabic effectively acting as a first language for many in the Arab world, Arab students' Standard Arabic reading abilities are often at a second language level. As a result, these learners may be graduating from schools with significant problems reading in both Standard Arabic and English. Evidence reporting the poor reading skills of Omani learners is even more alarming when the massive investment the country has made in education reform, as exemplified by the introduction of the Basic Education system in 1998/1999, is considered.

Coughlan (2015) cites the OECD estimation that Oman could experience GDP growth of more than 1400% over the lifetime of current school students if all learners are enrolled in schools and manage to achieve at least basic academic skills. In addition to the potential for significant economic growth, the development of basic math, science, and reading skills also offers a number of societal and personal benefits. Focusing on reading skills in both English and Arabic, a highly literate population tends to be more creative, more involved in community and social matters, better connected with the globalized world, and, ultimately, more likely to take an informed and active role in society thereby contributing to social cohesion and development. This is an especially important concern considering the events of the Arab Spring and their destabilizing effects on a number of nations of the Arab world (Al-Mahrooqi & Denman, 2016). On the individual level, enhanced literacy skills can also help make people better rounded individuals who are empathic, have fewer prejudices, and are open to experiences that continue to nurture and shape their identities and their understandings of their place in the world (see Abu Russ, 2010; Al-Mahrooqi, 2012; Amer, 2003; Whiteley, 2011).

However, despite the way reading can contribute to individual and social well-being and economic development, it is widely claimed that Oman, like most other Arab nations, lacks a reading culture. For example, the Arab Thought Foundation Fikr (cited in Al-Yacoub, 2012) maintains that the average Arab child only reads around 6 minutes a year compared to the average Western child's 12,000 minutes. The situation for adults is little better. For example, Ayish (2010) claims that the average European reads around 35 books every year, while the equivalent of only one book is read by every 80 Arabs in the same period. A variety of reasons have been put forth for this apparent lack of reading culture in Arab nations, including the relative late arrival of formal education systems, a lack of libraries, a strong oral culture, Arabic's diglossic nature, high rates of adult illiteracy, social instability, and traditional teaching methods that value memorization and recitation over active engagement with written text (Al-

Mahrooqi, Asante, & Abrar-ul-Hassan, 2010; Al-Mahrooqi, Denman, & Sultana, in press; Emam, Kazem, Al-Said, Al-Maamary, & Al-Mandhari, 2014; Emenyeonu, 2012; O'Sullivan, 2009; Magin, 2010; Wyatt, 2012). However, given Omani students' continued poor academic performance as highlighted above, and the detrimental effect this can have on economic development, social stability, and personal fulfillment (Al-Mahrooqi & Denman, 2016), it is vital that reading habits and skills in both Arabic and English, as the foundation upon which successful education is built, be instilled in Omani learners in particular and across Omani society more generally. One of the most important ways this can be achieved is through the introduction of a nation-wide, multi-stakeholder program that establishes and promotes a vivacious reading culture in the country.

The Benefits of Reading

The development of reading skills in both Arabic and English is necessarily associated with academic achievement, success, and life-long learning skills in those Arab nations, such as Oman, where Arabic is the medium of instruction in public schools and where English dominates instruction at the tertiary level. Reading is strongly linked with academic success (Cullinan, 2000). Capwell (2012) maintains that children who are exposed to books from an early age have higher rates of school readiness which generally benefits them for the rest of their academic careers and lives. Reading and being read to also increase learners' vocabulary ranges, listening and language skills, attention and curiosity, in addition to their abilities to recognize letters, pictures and numbers. The development of reading skills improves brain capacity for language and literacy skills. When parents help their children to read books, Capwell claims that an emotional and physical bonding experience occurs which offers a range of psychological and physical benefits, while these positive early reading experiences also increase children's chances of success, achievement and future happiness both during their school days and in the future. Moreover, Terlitsky and Wilkins (2015) claim that reading can improve children's levels of happiness and confidence while also decreasing emotional and conduct problems. On the other hand, Emam et al. (2014) claim that those children who have a delayed or disordered acquisition of reading skills – such as could be argued to exist for many learners across Oman - continue to struggle with their reading skills later in life. They also have less exposure to content knowledge, vocabulary, and other reading and academic skills. Moreover, Emam et al. continue, those learners who are poor readers by the end of the first grade may not be able to develop even average-level reading skills by the end of their elementary schooling without substantial remediation efforts and intervention.

Noor (2011) adds that, through reading, students gain the new information and knowledge that is at the heart of their education. Loan (2009) also emphasizes the importance of reading by claiming that it can expand students' perceptions and choices. According to Shoebottom (2015), reading helps students to perceive ideas and understand sentences and arguments – a supposition he supports by the claim that educational researchers have found a strong relationship between reading, vocabulary levels, and academic success. In addition, the U.S. Department of Education (2005, cited in Afterschool Alliance, 2013) states that reading helps students improve their learning skills and, subsequently, achieve higher scores and grades. According to Guthrie (2008), those who read regularly and widely tend to be "higher achievers" than those who do not. Further, Palani (2012) believes that comprehension skills, which are largely developed through reading, contribute directly to educational success in addition to

improving thinking skills and the ability to generate new ideas – an essential component of critical thinking and creativity. Miller (2013, cited in Afterschool Alliance, 2013, p. 6) supports this supposition by stating that students who read frequently tend to be better spellers, writers and thinkers. Owusu-Acheaw and Larson (2014) also highlight the poor exam performance of students who are not interested in reading and cite several studies that link students' reading habits to academic performance.

In addition to its links to academic success, Jenkins (1967) highlights the ways in which reading is central to pleasure and personal development. The author claims that people read at four levels. That is, they associate words with sounds, read for the literal meaning of the text, interpret what is read, and encounter new ideas and experiences. While Jenkins claims that very young readers will derive pleasure from the recognition of words and that those who are reading for a specific purpose will enjoy encountering the facts they seek, it is the emotional investment in the text and the broadening of experiences that will help readers enjoy the text most. Here, Jenkins offers the belief that:

Reading presents human nature – the best, the worst, the in-between for inspection and study. The great range of diverse, diffuse and divergent ways in which we human beings have acted and thought, and are capable of acting and thinking, are laid bare. Perhaps it even exceeds the personal example in shaping character (p. 406).

Personal character is shaped, according to Jenkins (1967), by reliving significant events and moments in history through another's perspective – hence helping develop a sense of empathy while also broadening horizons and understandings of historical and contemporary events. Reading also allows people to find beauty and fantasy in environments which they may never experience and to obtain what the author describes as "vicarious stability" even in those situations where such stability may be lacking in their own lives. According to Rebuck (2015), people who read experience higher levels of self-esteem and self-acceptance while also experiencing greater ease in making decisions and planning. The author continues that avid readers are less likely to experience difficulties with their moods or feelings of depression. Clark and Rumbold (2006) also claim that readers are more confident than those who do not read and that reading can help people extend their knowledge and understanding of other cultures and communities. This allows readers, according to Rebuck, to more easily communicate with others and to talk without hesitation. Clark and Rumbold continue that readers also generally participate more in their communities and understand other cultures better than those who do not read. In terms of culture, Holte (1998) maintains that reading can increase an understanding of life's value while also promoting the maintenance of cultural heritage.

Carter-Jones (2015) offers a similar stance to Jenkins in that she considers reading to be both an individual and imaginative act that takes place in the learner's inner world. The author likens reading to a journey in which the reader can enhance their ways of seeing, knowing and experiencing some of life's many complexities. In addition, the act of reading allows readers to develop their knowledge base and to create value – essential elements for living what the author describes as a fulfilling life. In this way, reading can both guide and shape students as people who are capable of moving beyond their own boundaries which, the author contends, often consist of stereotypes, prejudices and other biases. Carter-Jones also maintains that reading

allows people to gain a deeper understanding of themselves and to become active members of society and critical thinkers who are capable of evaluating ideas and thoughts, words, and actions of others and to compare and contrast these with their own. As a result, learners are able to explore their values and to critically explore these in ways that allow them to develop their characters to become successful members of global society. Lapp, Moss, Grant, and Johnson (2015) claim that reading can contribute to the development of lifelong learning success, while UNESCO (n.d.) states that it is these lifelong learning skills in general, and literacy skills in particular, that allow people to actively participate in society, thereby contributing to societal happiness and general well-being. In addition to these psychological and social benefits, reading can also offer a number of physical advantages. For example, the National Library of New Zealand (n.d.), citing a research report from the University of Sussex, states that reading can improve people's health by slowing their heart rates and reducing their levels of stress and tension.

Wren (2001) offers a framework of the cognitive foundations of learning to read that explicitly highlights the various areas in which reading allows learner development to occur. This framework incorporates a number of elements. The first of these is reading comprehension which is defined as the ability to construct linguistic meaning from written text. Wren divides this ability into the two competencies of language comprehension, or the ability to understand spoken representations of language, and decoding which involves recognizing written representations of a word. Language comprehension naturally encompasses a variety of interrelated abilities. These include linguistic knowledge, or the understanding of a language's formal structures (including phonology, syntax, and semantics), and background knowledge which is an individual's knowledge of the world (including content and procedural knowledge). Combining these two abilities, Wren continues, allows people to move beyond literal interpretation and to "read between the lines" or make inferences from available information.

Decoding, described by Wren (2001) as involving the ability to recognize relationships between written and spoken words, is vital for word recognition and is related to such abilities as cipher knowledge – knowledge of the relationships between the units of written words and those of spoken words – and lexical knowledge involving an awareness of those cases where the relationships between the units of spoken and written words do not follow a systematic pattern. These two forms of knowledge are themselves built upon a number of abilities including letter knowledge, phoneme awareness, knowledge of the alphabetical principle (i.e. understanding that systematic relationships exist between the internal structures of written and spoken words and that learning words requires discovering this relationship), and understanding that printed text is associated with linguistic meaning and so on. It is through engaging in reading that these abilities are developed, with children who are not active readers failing to develop many of these to the kinds of levels that they need for educational and social success both during their school lives and in their social and professional futures.

Terlitsky and Wilkins (2015) offer a summary of the reported benefits of the implementation of literacy programmes involving a diverse range of literacy and behavior interventions that seek the involvement of entire families. These benefits are concentrated on improvements in children's literacy skills and behaviour and can even improve overall levels of parenting skills. Examples of some of the interventions that have been employed by programs

such as the Parent-Child Home Program (PCHP), the Parent Empowerment for Family Literacy Project (PEFaL), Paired Reading (PR), Peers Early Education Partnership (PEEP), and the Adrienne Kirby Family Literacy Project, include home visitors that model reading activities for parents such as how to engage children with books or toys, instructing parents in how to make story bags and to effectively participate in child activities, showing parents videos that demonstrate paired reading with children in addition to receiving verbal and written instructions about the process, weekly literacy sessions where group leaders demonstrate various literacy strategies for parents, literacy mentoring programs for parents in which they receive bags of materials to support reading at home, making available literacy workshops in which parents learn book sharing techniques such as questioning, using different tones and so on. The positive literacy and behavior outcomes of these, and other suggested, courses of action described by Terlitsky and Wilkins are many and include the development of literacy skills and knowledge about books from an early age, increased reading enjoyment, improved personal and social skills and learner independence, increased reading fluency, increased levels of confidence and happiness, higher levels of academic achievement, improved child-parent relationships, more motivation to read and write, and decreased emotional and conduct problems.

Reading in the Arab World and Oman

In the Arab world, it is often reported that reading cultures largely do not exist. For example, as stated above, it has been claimed that the average European reads around 35 books a year while the average Arab reads only a small fraction of one. Moreover, Western children generally read for around 12,000 minutes a year while Arab children read for around 6 minutes (see Al-Yacoub, 2012). Of the studies that have been conducted to examine reading habits among Arabs, similar trends to those claimed here have been reported. For example, authors such as Bell (2001), Cobb and Horst (2001), and Abu Shmais (2002) highlight how many Arab EFL learners struggle with reading due to the variety of factors discussed above. These factors combine to contribute to a general weakness in the reading skills of Arab learners. In the Sultanate of Oman, Al Yaaqubi and Al-Mahrooqi's (2013) investigation of university-level English majors reported that most participants read around one-and-a-half books a semester, while around 20% did not even read one book during that timeframe – a finding that leads the authors to claim “the reading culture overall is very weak” (p. 37). In addition to their struggles with reading in English, student reading in Arabic across the Arab world has also been reported as being underdeveloped to the extent that it negatively impacts upon academic performance. Authors such as Al-Mahrooqi, Asante, and Abrar-ul-Hassan (2010), O'Sullivan (2009), and Bouzenirh (1991) have highlighted how this lack of reading ability in Arabic has a negative impact on learners' English reading skills as positive transfer of these skills between languages is not possible.

Rajab and Al-Sadi's (2015) study of 330 EFL university students in Saudi Arabia reports that participants largely lack pleasure in reading and that this is especially true for English-language texts. Wischenbart (2011) adds that Emirati students generally prefer to read online books than printed ones, while O'Sullivan (2009) observed that students in the UAE's Higher College of Technology often hold poor attitudes towards reading, in addition to limited knowledge of reading strategies. These factors, the author continues, combine to result in below average reading performance for these students in both English and Arabic. Arab readers have been characterized as generally slow readers who often have insufficient levels of

comprehension, a lack of word recognition, and limited vocabulary (Bell, 2001). Arab readers of English have also been reported as being overly dependent on textual information and to be unable to locate a passage's main ideas. While insufficient linguistic ability plays a part in this, a lack of world knowledge and specific cultural knowledge also plays a major role (Cobb, 1999; Mourtaga, 2006; O'Sullivan, 2010). Underlying all these problems is the absence of a reading culture in most Arab societies (Al-Mahrooqi, Asante, & Abrar-ul-Hassan, 2010; Bouzenirh, 2010; O'Sullivan, 2010; Shannon, 2003).

Even when encouraged to undertake extensive reading in English, learners usually do not feel motivated to do so because they connect all types of reading to academic study – an activity that gives them no pleasure and which thus prevents a transfer of skill from one language to the other (Wurr, 2003). Writing about UAE students, O'Sullivan (2010, para. 6) states:

Learners viewing English reading as purely for narrow academic and professional purposes may be less inclined to read for anything other than these restricted reasons. We can observe this very 'applied' view of English reading among HCT [Higher Colleges of Technology] students. Students are not interested in reading and at best are only instrumentally motivated to read for very 'narrow' purposes and do not do a lot of recreational reading.

Mourtaga (2006), describing Palestinian students, claims that they find reading in English to be a complicated process and that they experience many problems with it. These problems are associated with outdated teaching methods, inadequate language proficiency, and differences between English and Arabic. To this list, O'Sullivan (2009) adds poor attitudes towards reading, a lack of reading in Arabic, and poor reading strategies. With specific reference to the Sultanate of Oman, since 1970 one of the main focuses of government education and development efforts has been the creation of an educated and literate society. Some great strides have been made towards achieving this, with the rate of illiteracy among all Omanis decreasing to around 28.3% percent as of 2000 with this figure being as low as 2.1% for those aged between 15 and 24 (Magin, 2010).

However, despite these developments, the issues of a lack of reading culture and poor attitudes towards reading found elsewhere in the Arab world can also be witnessed in Oman. For example, Al Yaaqubi and Al-Mahrooqi's (2013) investigation of 66 Department of English students in the country's only public university reported that participants rarely read for pleasure, even though arts students did read slightly more than English education and translation students. Moreover, Al-Mahrooqi and Al-Wahaibi (2012) found that the majority of the university-level students in their Omani study also held negative views of literature before taking literature courses. Al-Musalli (2014) adds that reading in either Arabic or English is often not appreciated by Omani students due to a number of reasons including the lack of libraries, still relatively high levels of parental illiteracy, and the excessive amount of homework they receive. Despite this, Al-Musalli notes that some people believe that reading in general in Oman is not the issue, but rather the reading of printed books as students are more likely to prefer e-books and other on-line sources. However, a number of authors, such as Emenyeonu (2012) argue that the lack of reading culture, in both Arabic and English, is one of the most serious challenges associated with the introduction of more effective teaching and learning in the sultanate.

Developing English and Arabic Reading Skills

Given the lack of reading culture in Oman and the potential disadvantages that this can bring both Omani students and wider society, it is important that systematic steps be taken to increase the levels of reading in both Standard Arabic and English. Snow, Burn and Griffin (1998) highlight the ways in which learner development in their first language can fully support the development of academic performance, including linguistic and even mathematical skills, in another language. In offering support for the supposition that developing a learner's mother tongue actively supports their development even when those learners use different languages at school, the authors claim that "a student whose mother tongue is well supported and continuing to develop and expand will have greater success in learning other languages" (p. 102). The authors maintain that students who are active in the study and development of their mother tongue achieve higher academic standards and also develop their English language skills faster than those who are not. Moreover, Snow et al. also report that studies in a mother tongue are the most important distinguishing factor in English performance over time. For these reasons, the authors claim that it is important for programs to help students continue the development of their mother tongue while studying in English-medium environments. In relation to the current paper, this implies that if Arab students do not continue to read widely in Arabic due to a focus on English reading, their cognitive development may stagnate or even deteriorate. In addition, engaging in extensive reading has also been reported as having positive effects on oral fluency and communicative competence (Jones, 2010) – skills that recent research, as reported above, have highlighted as often lacking in Omani school graduates and subsequently negatively impacting upon their levels of employability (see Al-Mahrooqi & Denman, 2016).

Urlaub (2008) continues that proficient readers demonstrate evidence of being able to transfer sophisticated reading comprehension strategies between first and second languages, thereby supporting the importance of developing learners' reading skills in Arabic as a means of enhancing their English reading skills. Roberts (1994), summarizing evidence from a variety of studies, offers the following examples of literacy skills that can be transferred from a first language into a second language. These include low-level skills such as directionality, sequencing, an understanding of decoding and the correspondence between symbols and sounds, and higher level skills such as an awareness of rhetorical devices, textual structure, the different purposes of reading and writing, in addition to being able to predict and provide information. Other skills that can be transferred from a first language to a second language offered by Roberts include the ability to construct meaning and hypothesize, and having confidence in reading and writing abilities.

Although Roberts (1994) claims that these results are often based on studies that focus on English as the second language being acquired and often use summative program evaluation as evidence of acquisition, it should be noted that recent investigations also tend to support the potential for the transfer of reading skills between first and second languages. Sparks, Patton, Ganschow and Humbach (2009) detail a number of these, including Proctor, August, Carlo and Snow's (2006) study of Spanish-speaking school learners which reported that more efficient L2 readers benefit more from their first language vocabulary knowledge than less fluent readers. Sparks et al.'s own longitudinal study of students in a rural public school in the United States over a 10-year period also reported that the early development of reading skills in a first language is strongly linked with reading skills in a second language and that the transfer of these skills may be an important source of differences in the reading abilities of individual second language learners.

Policymakers in Oman have begun to recognize how the establishment of a reading culture in the country is one way in which some of the deficits associated with the current education system can be addressed. Two of the best-known innovations that have sought to increase the levels of reading in Oman are Kidsread and the Sindbad Children's Mobile Library. The former of these is a program introduced by the British Council, with the support of HSBC and in partnership with the Ministry of Education, that sought to advance reading skills and habits among Omani children. The official launch of the program took place in 2011 and has since reached approximately 3,000 children around the sultanate. The program has been implemented in 18 public schools in the Seeb, Al Khuwair, Ruwi, Matrah, Athaiba, Al Maballa, Dhagmar, Quriyat and Al Amerat districts, and seeks to develop learners' joy in reading by increasing direct parental involvement in reading, in addition to offering teachers courses by international experts in storytelling and by establishing reading rooms with around 100 books in participating schools. By directly involving parents, the program also seeks to improve their reading skills and to deepen the existence of a reading culture in the country. The Sindbad Children's Mobile Library, sponsored by Khimji Ramdas as part of the group's drive for social responsibility, was introduced in 2014 and also seeks to help develop a reading culture in the country. As the name suggests, this initiative features a mobile library that travels around Oman to provide access to books to those who live in communities that often do not have libraries or even bookstores. While both of these initiatives have potentially contributed to the development of a reading culture in Oman, it is important that these efforts are extended across the sultanate in a systematic and prolonged manner.

Conclusion

Despite the potential success that these programs could have in promoting the development of a reading culture in Oman through the number of people they can reach, their impact has been necessarily limited by a relative lack of funding and/or by the limited scope with which they can operate. Within this scope, however, these programs have demonstrated how they are capable of enhancing the reading habits of people around Oman. In doing so, they have offered an example of how reading programs can contribute to Oman's ambitions of achieving at least some of the six goals of UNESCO's (2015) "Education for All" campaign. These include expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children, ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programs, achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults, and improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

However, for these goals to be truly achieved, it is necessary that a nation-wide reading program be designed and implemented with the input of a variety of stakeholders. Given the wide array of potential benefits of establishing a reading culture in the country, these stakeholders can be identified as belonging to almost every part of society, and should include, at the very least, students, parents, community members, school teachers, administrators of academic institutions, representatives of local and international businesses, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Higher Education, and the sultanate's Supreme Education Council. Depending on the exact nature of the program that is designed, parents and community members

could be asked to offer financial donations in addition to offering their time to act as readers, mentors, supervisors, administrators and so on. Stakeholders can also be asked to contribute books, while representative from schools and other academic institutions can be asked to set aside space and resources. The ministries of education and higher education and the Supreme Education Council can be asked to provide financial assistance as well as their full backing for the implementation of the program nation-wide, while local businesses can be requested to provide financial donations and to lend their administrative support and access to the networks that will be necessary to allow a nation-wide program to be effectively implemented.

It is through the cooperation of these, and other concerned, stakeholders that a concerted and prolonged effort can be made to establish a genuine reading culture in Oman through the implementation of a nation-wide program that will allow the country and its people to begin to overcome some of the barriers associated with reading highlighted above. Although the exact nature of the reading program will necessarily be negotiated between stakeholders, at the very least it should seek to ensure that students reading in both Standard Arabic and English is improved in terms of both frequency and depth. By promoting a love of reading among students, the reading culture that is established among younger generations will, with time, filter throughout wider society and allow Oman and Omanis to access some of the potential personal, social, and economic benefits that such a culture offers. This is a fundamental step in improving the quality of education in the country, and also of allowing Oman to continue its path towards development which seeks to make the sultanate a globally-competitive, stable, and dynamic nation.

Dr. Rahma Al-Mahrooqi is the Deputy Vice-Chancellor of Postgraduate Studies and Research at Sultan Qaboos University. She specializes in English language teaching, reading, and sociolinguistics and has published widely in these areas in Oman and internationally.

Dr. Christopher Denman is a researcher at Sultan Qaboos University's Humanities Research Centre. In addition to Oman, he has worked in secondary and tertiary institutions in Australia, South Korea, and Japan. His research interests include language and identity and education policy.

References.

- Abu Russ, R. (2010). Children's literature in traditional Arab schools for teaching English as a foreign language. *English Language Teaching*, 3(1), 64-70.
- Abu Shmais, W. (2002). Identifying the metacognitive reading strategies of Arab university students: A case study. *An-Najah University Journal of Research*, 16(2), 633-661.
- Afterschool Alliance. (2013). *The life-enhancing benefits of reading in out-of-school programs*. Washington, DC: author. Retrieved from <http://afterschoolalliance.org/documents/Afterschool-Literacy-Brief.pdf>
- Al-Mahrooqi, R. (2012). Reading literature in English: Challenges facing Omani college students. *Asian EFL Journal Professional Teaching Articles*, 57, 24-51.
- Al-Mahrooqi, R., & Al-Wahaibi, T. (2012). EFL student attitudes towards studying literature at a higher education institution in Oman. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 32(1), 77-83.

- Al-Mahrooqi, R., Asante, C., & Abrar-ul-Hassan, S. (2010). Analyzing the use of motivational strategies by EFL teachers in Oman. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research*, 8(1), 36-76. Retrieved from <http://www.melta.org.my/majer/Al-Marooqi%20et%20al.pdf>
- Al-Mahrooqi, R., & Denman, C. J. (2016). Proficiency and communicative competence in English and employability in the Arabian Gulf. In R. Al-Mahrooqi & C. J. Denman (Eds.), *Bridging the gap between education and employment: English language instruction in EFL contexts* (pp. 361-380). Berne: Peter Lang.
- Al-Mahrooqi, R., Denman, C. J., & Sultana, T. (in press). Factors contributing to the survival of Standard Arabic in the Arab world: An exploratory study. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*.
- Al-Musalli, A. (2014). Redefining the reading culture: Overcoming EFL teachers' prejudices against students' reading habits. *Arab World English Journal*, 5(1), 211-223.
- Al Yaaqubi, A., & Al-Mahrooqi, R. (2013). How does reading literature for pleasure affect EFL learners? *The Asian EFL Journal*, 72, 20-46.
- Al-Yacoub. I. (2012, July 14). Sum of all fears: Arabs read an average of 6 minutes a year, study reveals. *Alarabiya.net*. Retrieved from <http://www.alarabiya.net/articles/2012/07/14/226290.html>
- Amer, A. A. (2003). Teaching EFL/ESL literature. *The Reading Matrix*, 3(2), 63-73.
- Ayish, M. (2010, November 11). Arabs need to turn the page on poor reading habits. *The National*. Retrieved from <http://www.thenational.ae/thenationalconversation/comment/arabs-need-to-turn-the-page-on-poor-reading-habits>
- Bell, T. (2001, April). Extensive reading: Speed and comprehension. *The Reading Matrix*, 1(1). Retrieved from <http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/bell/>
- Bouzenirh, F. (1991). *Linguistics, literature and the Moroccan EFL context. Proceedings of the conference on linguistics and English literature in Maghreb Universities*. Fez: Dhar El Mahraz Publications.
- Capwell, N. (2012). Foundation for learning is built upon reading. Retrieved from <http://www.urbanchildinstitute.org/articles/editorials/foundation-for-learning-is-built-upon-reading>
- Carter-Jones, S. L. (2015). *Reading as an act of creating value: Character education in a public Montessori school*. New Haven: Yale University National Institute. Retrieved from http://teachers.yale.edu/curriculum/viewer/initiative_06.03.03_u
- Clark, C., & Rumbold, K. (2006). *Reading for pleasure: A research overview*. London: National Literacy Trust. Retrieved from http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0000/0562/Reading_pleasure_2006.pdf
- Cobb, T. (1999). Applying constructivism: A test for the learner-as-scientist. *Educational Technology Research & Development*, 47(3), 15-33.
- Cobb, T., & Horst, M. (2001). Reading academic English: Carrying learners across the lexical threshold. In J. Flowerdew & M. Peacock (Eds.), *The English for Academic Purposes curriculum* (pp. 315-329). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Coughlan, S. (2015, May 13). Asia tops biggest global school rankings. *BBC News*. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.com/news/>
- Cullinan, B. E. (2000). Independent reading and school achievement. *School Library and Medical Research*, 3, 1-24. Retrieved from www.ala.org/aasl/slr

- Education First. (2015). *EF EPI: EF English proficiency index*. Boston: author. Retrieved from http://media2.ef.com/___/~/media/centraleftcom/epi/downloads/full-reports/v5/ef-epi-2015-english.pdf
- Emam, M., Kazem, A., Al-Said, T., Al-Maamary, W., & Al-Mandhari, R. (2014). Variations in Arabic reading skills between normally achieving and at risk for reading disability students in second and fourth grades. *Review of European Studies*, 6(3), 17-30.
- Emenyeonu, O. C. (2012). Student-centered learning in Oman: Challenges and pitfalls. *International Journal of Learning & Development*, 2(5), 243-254.
- Guthrie, J. T. (2008). Reading motivation and engagement in middle and high school: Appraisal and intervention. In J. T. Guthrie (Ed.), *Engaging adolescents in reading* (pp. 1-16). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Holte, M. S. (1998). *Creating an optimum reading culture in the low countries: The role of Stichting Lezen*. Paper presented at the 64th IFLA General Conference, Amsterdam, Netherlands, August 16-21. Retrieved from <http://archive.ifla.org/IV/ifla64/098-80e.html>
- Jenkins, W. A. (1967). Reading for enjoyment and personal development. *Educational Leadership*, 24 (5), 404-406.
- Jones, K. (2010). *The relationship between oral reading fluency and reading proficiency*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Walden University, Minneapolis, USA.
- Lapp, D., Moss, B., Grant, M., & Johnson C. (2015). *A close look at close reading: Teaching students to analyze complex texts, grades k-5*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Loan, F. A. (2009). *Impact of new technology on reading habits: A glimpse on the world literature*. Paper presented in the Role of School Libraries in Quality Education, Division of Library, Documentation and Information (DLDI), NCERT, New Delhi, 10th & 11th February, 2009. Retrieved from <http://eprints.rclis.org/20084/1/NCERT.pdf>
- Magin, S. (2010). Illiteracy in the Arab region: A meta study. *GIA Lens*, 2. Retrieved from <http://www.gial.edu/GIALens/issues.htm>
- Mourtaga, K. (2006). Some reading problems of Arab students. *Al-Aqsa University Journal*, 75-91. Retrieved from http://www.alaqsa.edu.ps/site_resources/aqsa_magazine/files/122.pdf
- National Library of New Zealand. (n.d.). Reading for pleasure: a door to success. Retrieved from <http://schools.natlib.govt.nz/creating-readers/creating-reading-culture/reading-pleasure-door-success>
- Noor, N. M. (2011). Reading habits and preferences of EFL post-graduates: A case study. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-9. Retrieved from: http://jurnal.upi.edu/file/01_Noorizah_Reading_habit_edited1.pdf
- O'Sullivan, A. (2009). Reading in the Gulf: Is it time for a re-focus? In A. Anderson (Ed.), *Cultivating real readers* (pp. 43-51). Al Ain: HCT Ma'rifa. Retrieved July 2, 2015 from <http://marifa.hct.ac.ae/files/2009/04/Reading-in-the-Gulf-Is-it-Time-for-a-ReFocus.pdf>
- O'Sullivan, A. (2010). *Reading and Arab college students: Issues in the United Arab Emirates Higher Colleges of Technology*. Retrieved from www.readingmatrix.com/conference/pp/proceedings/sullivan.pdf
- Owusu-Acheaw, M., & Larson, A. G. (2014). Reading habits among students and its effect on academic performance: A study of students of Koforidua Polytechnic. *Library Philosophy and Practice*, 2014(1), 1-22. Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2908&context=libphilprac>

- Palani, K. K. (2012). Promising reading habits and creating literate society. *Journal of Arts, Science and Commerce*, 3(2), 90-94. Retrieved from http://www.researchersworld.com/vol3/issue2/vol3_issue2_1/Paper_10.pdf
- Proctor, C. P., Carlo, M., August, D., & Snow, C. (2006). The intriguing role of Spanish language vocabulary knowledge in predicting English reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 98(1), 159-69
- Rajab, H. & Al-Sadi, A. (2015). An empirical study of reading habits and interests of Saudi university EFL learners. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 7(2), 1-17. doi:10.5296/ijl.v7i2.7034
- Rebuck, G. (2015, Feb 19). Why we all need books: The benefits of reading for pleasure. *Express*. Retrieved from <http://www.express.co.uk/entertainment/books/558959/Baroness-Gail-Rebuck-why-we-need-books-benefits-reading-pleasure>
- Roberts, C. A. (1994). Transferring literacy skills from L1 to L2: From theory to practice. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students*, 13, 209-221.
- Shannon, J. (2003). Getting Gulf students to enjoy reading. *Perspectives*, 11(1), 21-24.
- Shoebottom, P. (2015). The importance of reading. Retrieved from <http://esl.fis.edu/parents/advice/read.htm>
- Snow, C., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Sparks, R., Patton, J., Ganschow, L., & Humbach, N. (2009). Long-term crosslinguistic transfer of skills from L1 to L2. *Language Learning*, 59(1), 203-243.
- Terlitsky, A. B., & Wilkins, J. (2015). Characteristics of family literacy programmes that improve child literacy, behaviour and parenting skills. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*. doi: 10.1080/22040552.2015.1113846
- UNESCO. (n.d.). Literacy: Tool for sustainable development and key to lifelong learning. Retrieved from <http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/ED/pdf/Afghanistan.pdf>
- UNESCO. (2015). *Education: Education for all goals*. Paris: author. Retrieved from <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/education-for-all/efa-goals/>
- Urlaub, P. K. (2008). *Reading comprehension and literary narrative: Towards a model of reading literature in the second language*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, Leland, USA.
- Whiteley, S. (2011). Text world theory, real readers and emotional responses to *The Remains of the Day*. *Language and Literature*, 20(1), 23-41.
- Wischenbart, R. (2011). Reading Habits in the United Arab Emirates: Report -Reading Habits in the UAE. A survey conducted among attendants of the Sharjah International Book Fair in November 2011, 1-19. Retrieved December 22, 2014, from <https://editoriaraba.files.wordpress.com/2012/10/reading-habits-in-the-uae.pdf>
- Wren, S. (2001). *The cognitive foundations of learning to read: A framework*. Austin: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.
- Wurr, A. (2003). Reading in a second language: a reading problem or a language problem? *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 33(2), 157-169. DOI: 10.1080/10790195.2003.10850146
- Wyatt, M. (2012). Issues in supporting the teaching of reading in English as a second language to Arabic-speaking children. *The Reading Matrix*, 12(2), 146-162.

New Approaches to Teacher Effectiveness

Mouna Abou Assali

Muhammad V Agdal University

Abu Dhabi, UAE

Postal address: Abu Dhabi, P.O. Box 106621

Plamen Kushkiev

Frontier College- Toronto, Canada

Abstract

Teacher effectiveness has been a focal point in plentiful interdisciplinary research conducted by educational psychologists, policy makers and social scientists. The literature abounds in proposed models for measuring and assessing teacher effectiveness in the light of the ever-changing and technology-dominated educational reality. This paper suggests three possible approaches that surpass the academic and pedagogical aims of the established practice. The authors of the current paper see emotional intelligence, the attribution theory of motivation and emotion along with the broaden-and-build theory, as the stepping-stone to increasing teacher effectiveness in language classrooms in the modern world. It is our claim that our attributional beliefs, underpinned by a certain degree of positivity and emotional skills, may lead to the sought after university teacher development and effectiveness more profoundly. It is believed that the proposed approaches will meet the pedagogical outcomes of the syllabi in practice by fostering the theoretical and practical knowledge and expertise needed by educators teaching the 21st century skills to language students.

Keywords: attribution; broaden-and-build; emotional intelligence; teacher effectiveness

Introduction

Teacher effectiveness and quality teaching have been a contentious issue in education for long, mainly because what constitutes each of the two terms is still debatable. A number of research studies have addressed the effectiveness of teaching in relation to teacher inputs, where factors like salary, teacher qualification and skills may impact teacher classroom practices and performance (Campbell, 2004; Griffin, 2013). However, numerous studies have questioned the relationship that is considered the base for developing effective teachers (Muijs & Reynolds, 2010).

To start with, no consensus has been found in literature on what effective teaching means or what qualities effective teachers embrace. As Rogers (2011, p.113) argues, “Effective of what? For whom? At what cost? In what way?” as the term “effective” itself is complex and controversial. Nevertheless, several attempts have been made to list certain possible traits of effective teachers. Walker (2008), for example, posits 12 characters of effective teachers, as perceived by his pre-service and in-service participants (e.g. being positive, forgiving and compassionate). In his study, teachers have been generally considered effective if they “have far fewer student problems and consequently are able to get their students to be more involved in learning” (p.1). Walls (1999), on the other hand, claims that the four essential elements of effective teaching consolidate the link between teaching ‘the process’ and students’ learning ‘the product’. It is believed that better learning of students can be achieved by the utilization of what Walls called “The Four Aces of Effective Teaching: outcomes, clarity, engagement and enthusiasm”, where the presence of those four aces creates a reciprocal effective interaction between the students and the teachers. In other words, clarity of learning outcomes results in students’ engagement and shared enthusiasm. Clearly, most of the effective teaching models proposed in literature emphasize a balance between teachers’ skills and expectations and students’ interests and preferences.

Recognizing the importance of teaching quality and effectiveness, the authors of this paper attempt to describe three comprehensive approaches to education, which are perceived as learnable, beneficial and effective if well planned and implemented.

Emotional Intelligence (EQ)

Teachers are often faced with burdensome and requiring tasks to act as models to their students, so they need to possess the necessary set of intellectual, pedagogical and interpersonal skills in order for them to create a conducive and friendly environment in which effective teaching and learning take place. Students require training and skills which will allow them to be competitive in the market; most are digital natives with a broad spectrum of modern skills, so the expectations they have from the teacher often go beyond the limits of the subject matter taught. Some are difficult to be academically pleased with what the curriculum and instruction methods have to offer. Thus, teachers are no longer expected to only be good communicators, knowledgeable experts in their fields, or passionate and approachable educators- they are required to possess a whole new set of skills that stretches far beyond the cognitive domain- teachers of the 21st century need to be emotionally intelligent.

Until recently emotions were considered a purely personal experience that was not to be manifested in a work environment, or on part of teachers in the classroom. But because

"emotions are often felt in the body, and somatosensory feedback has been proposed to trigger conscious emotional experiences" (Nummenmaa et al, 2013), teaching and learning are emotionally charged activities by nature.

Fredrickson (2001, p.1) suggests that "working definitions of emotions and affect vary somewhat across researchers". In her view, "emotions... are best conceptualized as multicomponent response tendencies that unfold over relatively short time spans"(p.2). Hess and Thibault (2009) believe that "emotions are considered to be relatively short-duration intentional states that entrain changes in motor behavior, physiological changes, and cognitions"(p.120). When properly managed and manifested, emotions not only facilitate teaching and learning- they help to establish a more effective communication channel. The term emotional intelligence (EI or EQ) is attributed to Peter Solovey and John Mayer who coined the term in 1990. Later, in 1996, 2009 and 2011, it was Daniel Goleman who popularized the term which has been gaining momentum ever since. Broadly put, EI is using and managing our emotions more effectively for a better self-awareness and inter-personal communication. Rational and emotional should be an integral part of the personal and professional profile of every teacher. Our fundamental claim in this paper is that each individual possesses some degree of EI that needs to be properly assessed, developed and utilized. Raddawi and Troudi (2013, p.170) state that "Teachers' level of EQ is an important variable in creating an emotionally intelligent classroom". EI should be the core of any teacher-training program, and recently, some schools in the U.S. (such as Arizona State University) have added EI as part of their pre-service teacher-training program. It is a well-known fact that teaching is in top 10 professions that are most likely to lead to burnout (Anderson, 2012). Early teacher attrition and loss of motivation seem to be a chronic condition, the solution for which could be a proper pre-service/ in-service teacher training that professes the understanding and utilization of the four branch model of EI, i.e. self-awareness (the perception of emotions), self-control (moderating emotions in the proper way), social awareness (understanding and appreciating others' emotions), and relationship-management (inter-personal skills). It is the goal of every teacher to create a positive atmosphere in class by first learning how to master and properly channel their own emotions.

However, this could never be achieved if teachers, themselves, are unaware of their own emotions or how to properly manage them. Goleman (1996) claims that the intelligence quotient (IQ) constitutes only around 20 percent of the factors that may lead to success in life. He gives credit to John Mayer and Peter Solovey for having "invented the whole field". Goleman has been passionate about the idea of using emotions that are inherent to every human for better achievements and excellent life skills. Job markets are in need of leaders; however, schools produce workers who possess proper theoretical background but lack the ability to utilize their knowledge. There must be a synergy between IQ and EQ, and students' achievements should not only be evaluated through normative exams. In the same vein, educators need to be fully aware of their own character strengths and weaknesses first to be able to cater to their students' emotional needs, because as Beard and Wilson state (2006, p. 173)- "emotion is inextricably linked to learning". They also claim that " emotional intelligence at work might contribute to improved team morale, more collaborative working, less energy waste on politicking and game play, thus reducing poor attitude or indifference" (p. 174).

Since its inception in 1990, the idea of incorporating social and emotional learning (SEL) into school's curriculum has gained popularity. Recent developments in the field suggest that

SEL should be introduced to preschoolers as a sound foundation for solidifying their life skills. Goleman's *Emotional Intelligence* (1996) presents two such models- in New Heaven schools and the Self-Science curriculum. The author claims that increased stress narrows the attention span and productivity rate, an idea that has also been extensively researched by another psychologist, Barbara Fredrickson (2001, 2013). They both discuss the spiraling effect emotions have on our well-being-continued stress, tension and lack of institutional support easily lead employees into a downward spiral, which is an "on-going hazard for performance".

In a recent study, Price and McCallum (2014) seek to investigate qualitatively the ecological influences that impact teachers' well-being and "fitness". They explore the perceptions of pre-service teachers at four levels-the microsystem, mesosystem, ecosystem and macrosystem. The study sheds light on the importance of incorporating the social and emotional skills of teachers that are essential for a more productive learning. It is expected that teachers value the potential of this development to apply a more holistic approach to education that would yield better student outcomes and transform education.

Fundamentally, teachers should have an increased awareness of what SEL is and how to practically apply it in their classrooms. By doing this, they will first learn to identify their strengths in delivering the message to learners. They will be able to respond, not just react to every classroom situation that is shaped by mutual trust, or the lack of it thereof. Self-awareness is the key to emotional control that stems from the notion of neuroplasticity- the ability of the brain to change with repeated experience. And unlike cognitive abilities that are predominantly inherited, the social and emotional skills, such as self-management and empathy, can be learned and developed. Furthermore, the reason for having such skills in the curricula is that not every child is offered good parenting or atmosphere where he can be taught such skills. According to Durlak et al (2011, p.2) "emotions can facilitate or impede children's academic engagement, work ethic, commitment, and ultimate school success." Their meta-analysis of 213 school based SEL programs relying on the astounding number of 270,034 students, has confirmed that schools with SEL programs reported that anti-social behavior went down by 10 percent, whereas pro-social behavior went up by 10 percent. Such data are indicative of the essential role teachers and their effective teaching have on the general well-being and life success of their students. In other words, both teachers and students need to possess the "21st century basics- critical thinking, problem solving, (and) collaboration" (Durlak et al, 2011).

Thus, learning to reason events and behavior, understanding our own feelings, being able to control them, understanding how to use them with others, understanding others' feelings and being able to deal with them are all skills that an individual can develop within Goleman's emotional intelligence model. Raddawi and Troudi (2013, p.175) posit "integrating emotional literacy in school curricula brings positive changes as children learn to maneuver their emotions and improve their academic performance while society can witness a decline in hostile behavior".

In summary, many studies have reported on the necessity for a healthy and cordial relationship in the classroom as a condition for scholarly achievement (Lang & Evans, 2006; Tuncay, 2009). Effective teachers should help students to manage their positive and negative feelings, and channel them into productivity and collaboration. Teachers should strive for classroom environments where they master, as Rogers (2011, 141) posits- "the ability to relate well to others and communicate clearly and effectively, the ability and skill to enthuse and

motivate, and the ability to cope with multi-task, group-oriented activities, as well as individual activities". On their side, teachers need to identify, manage and express their feelings in the correct manner since emotions come as a result of a stimulus; thus, proper actions and decision-making are key elements in the educational milieu.

The Broaden-and build Theory of Positive Emotions

It is taken for granted that humans live with two sides to their lives - a positive and a negative one. At times where we feel tempted to focus on our negative side, positive psychology emphasizes that this part is only one aspect of the human, and focus should be given to "the other side – that, which is good and strong in humankind, and in our environs, along with ways to nurture and sustain these assets and resources" (Snyder & Lopez, 2009, p.9). Being aware of our weaknesses and attempting to improve or change them is not recognized any more in positive psychology as the best way for self-growth and learning. Rather, to work on our strengths and utilize them appropriately is more effective (Fredrickson, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2011).

Within the field of positive psychology, Fredrickson (2001) has developed a new theoretical framework that accentuated positive emotions: "The broaden-and-build" theory. Fredrickson's theory postulates "experiences of positive emotions broaden people's momentary thought-action repertoires, which in turn serves to build their enduring personal sources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources" (Fredrickson, 2001, p.218). An overview of literature on emotion has shown that positive emotions have gained a relative recognition in terms of attention compared to negative emotions (Fredrickson, 2004). Some two decades ago, the psychologist Paul Ekman demonstrated that negative emotions such as anger, fear and sadness "elicit distinct responses in the autonomic nervous system" (Fredrickson, 2003, p.331)

In general, emotions are unique features of every human that pose a real challenge for the scientist who attempts to study them. Since the beginning of the 20th century, the emphasis on part of psychologists has been placed upon investigating and learning how to deal with negative emotions as having a detrimental effect on the human body and psyche. Till now, the realm of positive psychology has not gained the deserved popularity though it is "both a movement and a science"(Fredrickson, 2015), and pieces of advice on how to live a happier and more sustainable life abound. To fill this niche in literature, Fredrickson with the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill has been studying the essence and effect positive emotions have on our well-being. She has taken an evidence-based approach studying the response of people to visual and mental stimuli. In 2003, she reports the findings of other scientists who have found that people who feel good live longer. The claims made in the article suggest that it is far from useful to only focus on the treatment of mental illnesses or what causes them. No substantial research had been done on how to live a more meaningful life once healed, nor had many psychologists been interested in this branch of psychology. And while negative emotions were attributed to the question of survival and avoiding immediate threat to people, the study of positive emotions was considered a frivolous pursuit with no proven long-term benefit.

Fredrickson (2009) asserts that soft and ephemeral delightful states can change a person's mind and body in a way that subsequently transforms his/her life into its best situation. Positive emotions, in other words, trigger one's desire to change. Fredrickson's 'broaden-and-build' model of positive emotions, in its simplest definition, is an invitation to people to be open

and flexible to a wider range of options and perceptions in their lives. This broad flexibility will in turn “help people to discover and build survival-promoting personal resources” (Fredrickson & Kurtz, 2011, p.35).

Fredrickson (2001) believes that action tendencies connected with certain emotions “have been [generally] associated with physical reactions to negative emotions...whereas human reactions to positive emotions often are more cognitive than physical” (Snyder & Lopez, 2009, p.133). According to Fredrickson (2001), emotions like anger, fear or disgust, for example, are usually linked with urges to attack, escape and expel, whereas a positive emotion like joy is associated with inactive pleasure and purposeless activation. In contrast, in Fredrickson’s model, an emotion like joy “creates the urge to play, push the limits and be creative; urges evident not only in social and physical behavior, but also in intellectual and artistic behavior” (Fredrickson, 2004, p. 1369). In fact, effective teaching is not merely teaching cognitive and pedagogic skills, because “a positive, encouraging manner engages a more positive learning atmosphere and can help in the maintenance of long-term positive behavior” (Rogers, 2011, 141).

Projecting the insight Fredrickson's groundbreaking research in positive emotions and their impact on our well-being and progress has suggested, we strive to utilize this knowledge towards an improved model for teacher effectiveness. For example, her article dated 1998, posits that joy is not only an emotion that is often experienced while playing, but it also creates urges for approaching and pro-social behavior. If fostered in the ESL classroom, joy could accelerate and result in group and pair work, role-play and a deeper teacher-student and student-student interaction. It is the task of the teacher to lay the grounds for a classroom that abounds in joy and creativity. Personal growth and attaining knowledge come as a result of a constant interest-another basic positive emotion without palpable manifestation. Students often feel excited and motivated to continue learning once they have achieved a goal (intrinsic motivation) or been awarded by the teacher (extrinsic motivation). Thus, the feeling of contentment, we reckon, is the driving force in broadening the life and educational horizons of ESL learners. By providing a proper environment in which such emotions thrive, both teachers and learners broaden their perspective, which in turn leads to "... build(ing) important and lasting physical, intellectual, psychological and social resources..." (Fredrickson, 2004, p.146).

Another important implication the theory has in teaching and learning is what Fredrickson and Levenson (1998) have termed as “undoing hypothesis”. It is common that students experience anxiety (whether trait or state) or certain negative feelings before exams, or when being asked out by the teacher, or having a low self-esteem due to some physical or educational disadvantage. Therefore, the most effective way to bounce back is to experience some positive emotion(s), rather than neutral ones. This may have a long-lasting effect on their educational attainment such as language acquisition. This claim is also supported by Isen (1990), who claims that it is positive emotions that create a “broad, flexible cognitive organization, and ability to integrate diverse material” (p.89). In 2000, Fredrickson and her colleagues carried out an experiment subjecting 170 participants who experienced "anxiety-induced cardiovascular reactivity" to viewing films that elicited contentment, amusement, neutrality and sadness. They found that contentment-eliciting and amusing films resulted in faster cardiovascular recovery. Ehrman (1996) suggests that learners have an imaginary barrier preventing them from acquiring the language input, which is the effective filter. When stressed and unmotivated, the learner tends to " filter-up" and block the input. Once relaxed and motivated, the learner begins to "

filter-down" and unblock the input. This is an indication of the debilitating effect anxiety and other negative feelings could have on educational achievements.

Broadly put, positive psychology, as a relatively newly embraced approach in education, has built upon the common concept of schools being the most essential factor impacting the child's development. Schools' main task is to provide students with the basic skills that contribute to the positive development of their interpersonal or intrapersonal skills. Fredrickson's model has recently been implemented in a number of studies in education (Smart, 2009; Lopez, 2011).

Attribution theory of motivation and emotion

Another theory, which we, the authors of the current paper, believe complements the chain of the suggested approaches to a more effective teaching, is the attribution theory. It is considered that, for the purpose of the present study, incorporating another recent theory emphasizing the relation between perceiving events and the impact they have on an individual's motivation and emotion, can be enlightening. The attribution theory as a field of investigation had its roots in research originated by Fritz Heider in 1958. It was then developed by other researchers such as Harold Kelley 1973 and Bernard Weiner, (1985, 1986, 1992, & 2006). However, Weiner's (1986) attribution theory has made its own contribution by linking the individual's motivation to his/her emotions in contexts of achievement. Therefore, Weiner's (1986) theory of motivation and emotion has become the 'framework of choice' within educational psychology which can be considered a 'thought-emotion-action sequence' whereby, unlike other theories of attribution, the "causal thoughts determine feelings and feelings, in turn, guide behavior" is more complete and comprehensive (Graham & Williams, 2009, p.22).

Weiner's (1986) attribution theory of motivation and emotion is one of the fundamental paradigms in social psychology. This theory focuses on how individuals attribute the cause of an event or a situation. It is important at this stage, however, to mention that 'motivation' is not intended to be part of this paper's discussion, as it comprises a vast body of literature being an independent area. The fact that it is linked to students' achievement in research highlights its importance and influence on students' emotions.

People, according to Weiner, are in constant search for reasons to explain why certain events occurred in a certain way. In other words, the core of this approach to individual emotions and motivation is concerned with the elemental dimensions that people use to interpret and understand their failure and success (Child, 2007). Graham and Williams (2009) claim that "much of the practical significance of attribution theory resides in its usefulness for understanding real-world motivational concerns that unfold every day in school settings, concerns such as emotional reactions to success and failure, self-esteem maintenance, and acceptance or rejection by peers" (p.11).

Weiner's theory posits that individuals are "likely to explain outcomes and events in their lives that are perceived as novel or important" (Albert & Luzzo, 1999, p. 433). A teacher who has delivered a successful demonstration lesson, for example, will not take a lot of time reflecting on the causes that contributed to his success. In contrast, failing to motivate students can be negatively attributed to students' disinterest, bad luck or lack of class time. Turner (2002) views attribution processes as part of sanctioning. If negative sanctions are attributed to the self, then negative emotions may be experienced such as anger, fear or sadness. Likewise, positive

sanctions attributed to the self or others result in positive emotions like happiness or pride. Negative emotions are usually the outcomes of a confrontation between people's expectations and negative unexpected events (Weiner, 2006).

A three-dimensional taxonomy formulates the core of the 'Attribution Theory of Motivation and Emotion': locus, stability and controllability. These are defined as follows:

- a) Locus: is related to determining the location of the cause. This cause can be external (situational) such as a task or luck, or internal (dispositional) to the person such as ability or effort. Whether external or internal, the cause is thought to be influential in the way it contributes to how an individual perceives his/her feeling of self-esteem or self-efficacy (Turner, 2002). If, for example, a teacher attributes his/her success to internal factors, this teacher's self-esteem and self-efficacy will be underpinned by a sense of pride. In contrast, if failure is attributed to an internal factor, self-esteem will be diminished; leading to a negative impact on self-efficacy.
- b) Stability: is the second dimension in the theory that focuses on the individual's perception that the cause of an event or situation will continue over a period of time. In this sense, causes can be constant or varying over time. Linked with the first dimension, the locus, an individual's ability (aptitude) is unchangeable (stable) and this stability results in a relatively fixed aptitude for a task, whereas one's efforts are inconstant and may vary from one situation to another in terms of efforts exerted and subsequent feelings.
- c) Controllability: is the third and last factor, which is concerned with an individual's active involvement in controlling the cause. In this case, "efforts is (sic) controllable because individuals are believed to be responsible for how hard they try. In contrast, aptitude and luck are generally perceived to be beyond personal control" (Graham, 1991, p.7). Therefore, emotions such as anger, frustration, or shame may arise at a certain event as a result of failing to achieve a task, whereas pride and enthusiasm may come to light if success is attributed to one's own abilities. Hence, an individual's expectancies and enormity of emotions are influenced by the way he/she deems stability of causes which in turn will trigger specific motivated behavior (Weiner et al, 1982).

In addition, a diverse causal attribution raises qualitatively disparate emotional experiences, and according to Weiner (1985), perceives causality, which is not the same among individuals. They are even dissimilar within an individual over a period of time and across situations. He situates the attribution theory of motivation and emotion within educational contexts. He also mentions several metaphors used in literature to describe classrooms and schools (e.g. temples of learning, marketplace of ideas). Weiner (1985) views the classroom or school as 'a courtroom' where everyone's (i.e. student, teacher, school principal) behavior and reactions are influenced by their perceptions of this courtroom. For instance, "a student considering the classroom as a courtroom is apt to be motivated by the avoidance of punishment" (Weiner, 2006, p.163). Conversely, a student guided by the school's or the classroom's metaphor as 'a temple of learning' will be directed by a desire to learn and understand. Judging it as a successful theory, a number of studies have adopted Weiner's (1985, 1986, 2006) attribution

theory of motivation and emotion in educational contexts (Graham, 2004; Li, 2004; Jarvela, 2011; Smart, 2009).

Summary and Pedagogical Implications

Although these theories might look different as they approach the individual's interpersonal and intrapersonal skills from widely differing standpoints, and associate them to multiple origins, they occasionally overlap and sometimes congregate due to the complicated fabric of the human nature. Nevertheless, none of these theories deny the fact that emotions are crucial in our lives, and that they significantly affect the decisions that we make and the choices of our actions (Damasio, 2003).

Drawing on Goleman's Emotional Intelligence theory, Weiner's (1985) attribution theory of motivation and emotion and in light of Fredrickson's (2001) 'broaden-and-build' theory of positive emotions, the present study is inspired by the assumption that recent research of emotions has invoked: that all human emotional experiences involve elements of positive or negative emotions that may or may not last and affect an individual's personal world. In addition, as Denzin (2009) asserts, any individual's emotional experience results in states of reflection, cognition, feeling and interpretation.

In relation to teacher effectiveness, we believe that teachers' beliefs and perceptions of their weaknesses and strengths can be caused by external, stable or uncontrollable factors which may trigger a variety of reactions and positive or negative emotions. Consequently, different teachers will live, experience and respond differently to probably the same situations. On the basis of these assumptions, these positive or negative emotions, as can be elicited from Fredrickson's (2001) model of positive emotions, may affect the teacher's teaching and commitment to their profession and the students' learning. Weiner (1986) emphasizes the importance of causal dimensions in relation to an individual's outcomes (successes or failures) in academic achievement situations. This theory focuses on the workplace as an 'achievement oriented environment' that allows for a variety of situations entailing a range of cognitive processes on part of the individual, who is in search for causes of events and possible ways that facilitate achievement of goals in that environment. In this sense, teachers attributing outcomes of encountered events to certain causes will be engaged in analyzing those outcomes, which are perceived as unexpected, or challenging (Wong & Weiner, 1981).

It is our claim, in the current paper, that the three approaches discussed promote a high sense of self-awareness in the individual. Once teachers realize their potential and skills, including areas of strengths, weaknesses or those which need improvement, they can gain a better control over what happens to them, their interpretations of the events and their reactions to particular incidents. Understanding our attributional beliefs can boost our understanding of our students' attributional styles, their emotions and the way we translate all of those attributions into positive and effective teaching.

Eventually, it is a matter of practice, and as Rogers (2011) confirms, "effective teaching behaviours are not mere techniques- it is not a matter of a "bundle of skills that equals an effective teacher". The skills of effective teaching can be learned, but those skills need to be engaged within a desire to teach and willingness to engage and relate to children and young people" (p.120)

Emotional Intelligence

As far as emotional intelligence is concerned, it is obvious, as this paper has discussed, that emotions and cognitive skills are interrelated. Where our reason is needed to make a decision, a variety of emotions may interfere and affect that decision. Teaching is an emotional intellectual process. It is important that both teachers and learners be aware of their emotions during the class time and be able to figure out what emotions to take further (e.g. happiness or excitement due to success), or to pause and try to understand the reasons for failing and start over.

As this paper proposes, emotions affect motivation. Having said that, we believe that emotional intelligence components, practiced and well implemented in the classroom, would contribute to better self-awareness on part of students and teachers, and would pave the way for better communication and interaction. For example, if teachers address their students' negative emotions towards learning another language, validate those emotions, bear with their mistakes and provide constructive feedback, this will automatically influence students' understanding of themselves, enhance their potential and create a more encouraging learning classroom environment. Research has shown that using EQ activities in the classroom would enhance students' interpersonal and intrapersonal skills. If so, students and teachers would be working on the same page where achieving success is the ultimate goal. For this purpose, though, it is recommended that policy makers, educators and curriculum planners provide teachers with professional development training on EQ skills based on a well-prepared EQ curriculum activities. It is likely, that teachers' emotional literacy would positively impact students' performance, motivation and attitudes.

Likewise, students need training on emotional skills- components, benefits and implications for academic success. It is of importance that students of another language, for example, learn how to find out their points of strengths as well as weaknesses, their abilities, their negative emotions that may influence their progress in the classroom as well as the positive ones that may boost their efforts and interests. Understanding their potentials and those of others would allow for better communication and interaction between them, their peers, and their teacher. In a nutshell, learning about the EQ skills and practicing them in the language classroom would facilitate students' and teachers' tasks in fulfilling a positive learning environment. Students in a language classroom deal with and are exposed to lots of unknown issues; cultural, linguistic, social or even physical. Therefore, addressing the five components of the EQ (i.e. Self-awareness, self-motivation, empathy, interpersonal skills and regulation) in the language classroom would make learning more efficient and rewarding.

The Broaden-and-build theory

Fredrickson's Broaden-and-build theory posits that positive emotions trigger positive thoughts and responses to daily life incidents. Consequently, individuals who choose to react positively would be able to build a repertoire of skills and resources that help them make decisions or react less stressfully to negative events. Negative emotions would trigger negative thoughts and actions, and would probably set a solid barrier between the perceiver (i.e. learners) and the possible alternatives or options).

From our own experiences in the classroom, most learners of the English language hold negative beliefs about their learning and attributions about the progress they can make. They are

likely to create bubbles of negative images of themselves as learners of a second language, which are mostly accompanied with negative emotions such as fear, anxiety or frustrations. At this stage, we propose that teachers help their students realize the range of other available options, which contribute to their success and progress in their English class. Teachers play significant roles in unleashing their students' potentials and helping them transform the negative attributional beliefs about themselves into positive ones.

What is more, second language learners struggle while trying to attain a certain level of language proficiency, which is, most of the time, charged with negative feelings. Teachers, on the other hand, would struggle in their classroom if they were unable to develop positive mindsets suggested by the broaden-built theory. In fact, it is our belief, that the three proposed approaches to effective teaching are based in their very core on well-developed EQ skills and positivity of attributions and perceptions of the learning-teaching processes.

The attribution theory of motivation and emotion

Our language learners have their own perceptions of their success and failures. Those perceptions will affect the way they perceive their learning and progress in the language classroom. If not well interpreted, the learners are likely to blame their abilities or efforts or even attribute most of the results, whether negative or positive, to luck. They may also consider all those components uncontrollable or stable or both. Therefore, if the learners' attributions are wrong, they are unlikely to be motivated to learn, participate or be involved in the classroom. It is of importance that teachers be able to help their students realize their strengths and weaknesses and direct them towards better learning. Teachers can help their students foster a more positive attitude towards themselves and their potentials by designing classroom activities where the students realize their strengths without fear of failure due to certain grades scale. Students will learn best when they expect success, and teachers can play an important role in enhancing positivity in attitudes by allowing for more successful learning opportunities rather than failing ones.

Moreover, teachers can play essential roles in changing their students' negative attributions towards learning by helping them realize that their mistakes are normal in a language classroom and that it is common for a language learner to make a mistake, repeat them more frequently and gradually be able to fix them and find out the correct answers. In other words, teachers should help learners realize the difficulties in their learning, find out alternatives to overcome them and control the components that they have considered uncontrollable or stable. This is to say that students should be praised for any effort they make for the sake of progress, and hence become aware that their failures are due to lack of efforts, not ability. The more efforts exerted, the better progress attained. Although this may seem a laborious task for teachers to undertake besides the other teaching commitments, it is always said that consciousness and persistence of teachers would be eventually paid off.

Most importantly, teachers' attributions of themselves and their students are the core point of change. Teachers' motivational and positive attributions in the classroom have significant influences on students' dispositions and aptitude to learning. In other words, it is unlikely that teachers may expect students to not learn or improve regardless of the variety of strategies or techniques they implement into their lesson plans. Teachers should work to enhance

their learners' goal-orientedness and attributions. Dornyei (2001) states that we do things best if we expect success. Therefore, unless teachers enrich their motivational forces, students would not be inclined to make and observe any progress.

Conclusion

Language classrooms involve multiple and complex processes that determine the specifics of the learning process, and have an impact on the overall learning environment. Highly experienced and academically prepared tutors are the sound foundation, on which solid blocks of knowledge are being laid; however, there are several other essential factors of paramount importance to be taken into consideration. Teachers, as knowledgeable and experienced as they get, need to self-reflect and work toward a more efficient set of pedagogical skills to satisfy the ever-growing demand on part of the 21st century learners. This presumes a new paradigm under which both educators and learners are well aware of their own physical and developmental capabilities, areas for improvement and sound critical thinking skills. In other words, both teachers and students should be able to attribute their positive and negative experiences to the correct source to implement timely and appropriate measures. Hence, emotions are powerful engines that may boost or diminish motivation, which is the organic fabric of our academic aspirations. The ultimate goal is teaching and learning in a mutually respectful and positive environment, in which positive emotions flourish to broaden teachers' and learners' momentary perceptions, and build awareness to achieve academic rigor.

About the Authors:

Mouna Abou Assali is Faculty at Mohammed V University Agdal- Abu Dhabi. She obtains an (EdD), the University of Exeter, UK and a MEd in ELT, the University of Sheffield, UK. Her research interest includes: teacher professional growth, positive psychology, teacher emotions and educational leadership.

Plamen Kushkiev holds a Master's degree in English Studies, the University of Cambridge CELTA, and a TEFL certificate. He has nine to ten years of experience teaching ESL in Europe, the Middle East and Canada. His research interests are in the realm of teacher professional development, positive psychology, and emotional intelligence.

References:

- Albert, K. & Luzzo, D. (1999). The Role of Perceived Barriers in Career Development: a social cognitive perspective. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 77, 431-436.
- Anderson, M. (2012). *The Well-Balanced Teacher: how to work smarter and stay sane inside the classroom and out*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Beard, C. & Wilson, J. P. (2006). *Experiential Learning: a best practice handbook for educators and trainers*. (2nd ed.). London: Kogan Page.
- Campbell, J. (2004). *Assessing Teacher Effectiveness*. London: Taylor & Francis.
- Child, D. (2007). *Psychology and the Teacher*. Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Damasio, A. (2003). *Looking for Spinoza: joy, sorrow, and the feeling brain*. William Heinemann.
- Denzin, N. (2009). *On Understanding Emotion*. NJ. Transaction Publishers.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge. Cambridge University

Press.

- Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D. & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The Impact of Enhancing Students' Social and Emotional Learning: a meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions, *Child Development*, 82, 1, 405–432. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01564.x.
- Ehrman, M. E. (1996). *Understanding Second Language Learning Difficulties: looking beneath the surface*. United States: SAGE Publications.
- Fredrickson, B. & Kurtz, L. (2011). Cultivating Positive Emotions to Enhance Human Flourishing. In Donaldson, S., Csikszentmihalyi, M. & Nakamura, J. (Eds.), *Applied Positive Psychology: improving everyday life, health, schools, work, and society* (pp. 35–48). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Fredrickson, B.L. & Levenson, R.W. (1998). Positive Emotions Speed Recovery from the Cardiovascular Sequelae of Negative Emotions. *Cognition and Emotion*, 12, 191-220.
- Fredrickson, B., Mancuso, R., Branigan, C. & Tugade, M. (2000). The Undoing Effect of Positive Emotions. *Motivation and Emotion* 24, 4, 237-258
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The Role of Positive Emotions in Positive Psychology: the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, 56, 3, 218–226. doi: 10.1037/0003-066x.56.3.218.
- Fredrickson, B. (2003). The Value of Positive Emotions, *American Scientist*, 91, 4. doi: 10.1511/2003.26.865.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2004). Gratitude, Like other Positive Emotions, Broadens and Builds, *The Psychology of Gratitude*, 144–166. doi:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195150100.003.0008.
- Fredrickson, B. (2009). *Positivity*. New York: Crown Publishing Group.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2013). Positive Emotions Broaden and Build, *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 1–53. doi: 10.1016/b978-0-12-407236-7.00001-2.
- Fredrickson, B.L. (2015). *Barbara Fredrickson Talks about Science, Emotions, and Her New Course*, available at <http://positivepsychologyprogram.com/barbara-fredrickson/>
- Goleman, D. (1996). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (2009). *Emotional Intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Goleman, D. (2011). *Leadership: the power of emotional intelligence*. Northampton, MA: More Than Sound.
- Graham, S. (1991). A Review of Attribution Theory in Achievement Contexts. *Educational Psychology Review*, 3, 5-39.
- Graham, S. (2004). Giving up on Modern Foreign Languages? Students' Perceptions of Learning French. *Modern Language Journal*, 88, 2, 171-191.
- Graham, S. & Williams, C. (2009). An Attributional Approach to Motivation in School. In: Wentzel, K. & Wigfield, A. *Handbook of Motivation at School*. Routledge.
- Greaves, J. & Bradberry, T. (2003) *Emotional Intelligence Appraisal* - Me Edition. TalentSmart.
- Griffin, B. W. (2013). *Teaching Effectiveness Instrument*, PsycTESTS Dataset. doi: 10.1037/t21737-000.
- Hess, U. & Thibault, P. (2009). Darwin and Emotion Expression, *American Psychologist*, 64, 2, 120–128. doi: 10.1037/a0013386.
- Isen, A. M. (1990). Adaptation: sociobiology, evolutionary psychology, and the variety of lessons to be learned, *Motivation and Emotion*, 14, 4, 295–302. doi: 10.1007/bf00996187.
- Jarvela, S. (2011). *Social and Emotional Aspect of Learning*. Elsevier.
- Lang, H. R. & Evans, D. N. (2006). *Models, Strategies, and Methods for Effective Teaching*. Boston: Pearson/A and B.
- Li, C. (2004). Application of Attribution Theory in Research of English Learning Behaviours of Non-English Majors. *Foreign Language World*, 20, 6, 41-45.

- Lopez, S. (2011). *The Encyclopedia of Positive Psychology*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Nummenmaa, L., Glerean, E., Hari, R. & Hietanen, J. K. (2013). Bodily Maps of Emotions, Proceedings from *The National Academy of Sciences*, 111, 2, 646–651. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1321664111.
- Muijs, D. & Reynolds, D. (2010). *Effective Teaching: evidence and practice*. London: Sage.
- Price, D & McCallum, F (2014). Ecological Influences on Teachers' Well-Being and "Fitness". *Asia Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*. DOI:10.1080/1359866X.2014.932329.
- Raddawi, R. & Troudi, S. (2013). *Emotional Intelligence in ELT Teacher Education*. Available at: http://issuu.com/tesolarabia-perspectives/docs/tacon_2013_proceedings.
- Rogers, B. (2011). *Classroom Behaviour: a practical guide to effective teaching behaviour*. London: Sage.
- Salovey, P. & Mayer, J. (1990). *Emotional Intelligence*. Baywood Publishing Co., Inc.
- Smart, J. (2009). *Higher Education: handbook of theory and research*. Vol.24. Springer.
- Snyder, C. R. & Lopez, S. J. (eds) (2009). *Handbook of Positive Psychology*. (2nd ed.). NY: Oxford University Press.
- Tschannen-Moran, B. & Tschannen-Moran, M. (2011). *Evocative Coaching: transforming schools one conversation at a time*. United States: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tuncay, Ç. (2009). On the Space and Time Evolution of Regular or Irregular Human Heart or Brain Signals, *EPL (Europhysics Letters)*, 85, 1. doi: 10.1209/0295-5075/85/10002.
- Turner, J. (2002). *Face to Face: toward a sociological theory of interpersonal behaviour*. Stanford University Press.
- Walls, R.T. (1999). *Psychological Foundations of Learning*. Morgantown, WV: WVU International Center for Disability Information
- Walker, R. (2008). 12 Characteristics of an Effective Teacher: a longitudinal, qualitative, quasi-research study on in-service and pre-service teachers' opinions. *Educ Horizon* 87, 1, 61–68.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An Attributional Theory of Achievement Motivation and Emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92, 4, 548-573.
- Weiner, B. (1986). *An Attribution Theory of Motivation and Emotion*: NY. Springer-Verlag.
- Weiner, B. (1992). *Human Motivation: metaphors, theories, and research*. SAGE.
- Weiner, B. (2006). *Social Motivation, Justice, and the Moral Emotions: an attributional approach*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Weiner, B., Graham, S., & Chandler, C. (1982). Causal Antecedents of Pity, Anger, and Guilt. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 8, 226-232.
- Wong, P. & Weiner, B. (1981). When People Ask "Why" Questions and the Heuristics of Attributional Search. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 40, 650-663.

English Medium Instruction in the Transition Year: Case from KSA

Fauzia Shamim

English Language Center, Main female campus
Deanery of Academic Services
Taibah University, Madinah, Saudi Arabia

Abeer Abdelhalim

English Language Center, Main female campus
Deanery of Academic Services
Taibah University, Madinah, Saudi Arabia

Nabila Hamid

English Language Center, Main female campus
Deanery of Academic Services
Taibah University, Madinah, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

Many countries in the world are beginning to use English as the medium of instruction, particularly in higher education, due to the economic and social demands for learning English. However, this presents a number of challenges particularly in EFL settings where the learners normally have low competence in the English language. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia presents a case in point. This paper reports findings of a case study of the use of English as medium of instruction in the preparatory or transition year at a public sector university in Saudi Arabia. Findings reveal that both teachers and learners prefer English as medium of instruction due to instrumental needs. However, they face a number of challenges mainly due to learners' low proficiency in English. Consequently, they use some coping strategies to address these challenges. However, these have negative consequences for students' learning of academic content in science subjects. Similarly, some institutional support mechanisms, such as simplified curricular content, limit the amount of learning taking place in the transition year. A clearly articulated language policy regarding the use of English as the medium of instruction, and an accompanying research program are required to gain the alleged benefits from using English-medium instruction in higher education institutions in general, and the transition year, in particular.

Keywords: challenges in English-medium instruction, higher education, English as medium of instruction, Saudi Arabia, preparatory year

Introduction

The debate about medium of instruction (MoI) has been going on for decades, particularly in ex-colonies in Asia and Africa such as Tanzania, Uganda, Malaysia and Hong Kong. The issue of MoI in these countries is linked closely to feelings of patriotism following freedom from the colonizers, and the desire to develop local languages and culture. However, it is well known that the status of languages is closely linked to their perceived or actual functionality or use in society. The recent rise in the demand for English globally, even in countries with well-developed majority languages such as Chinese and Arabic, can be traced to the increasing trend of globalization and internationalization with the world becoming a global village (Graddol, 2006). In addition, the growth of digital media facilitating increased access to knowledge production and sharing of ideas transnationally has necessitated the need for a lingua franca; as most of the world knowledge is produced in English, English has become the preferred lingua franca (Shohamy, 2013). In fact, English has now become the language of choice, both in ESL and EFL contexts, for keeping abreast with latest developments, particularly in the fields of science and technology, and also for improving life chances through study abroad in English-speaking countries (J. Coleman, 2006; H. Coleman, 2011). Unsurprisingly, the phenomenal increase in the demand for English during the last decade or so has fostered the use of English as MoI, particularly in higher education settings, even in countries in Kachru's expanding circle (1982) in Europe, Asia and the Gulf countries such as Denmark, China and the United Arab Emirates (see Belhiah & Elhami, 2015; Coleman, 2006; Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013; Hu, Li & Lei., 2014).

There are a number of drivers for the increased use of English as medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education (Dearden, 2015). In the developing countries, in particular, such as the ex- British colonies in Asia and Africa, English is seen as the language of development (Coleman, 2011). In comparatively more developed countries such as China, Hong Kong and Taiwan in Asia, and Denmark and Spain in Europe, globalization and internationalization of education along with the widely accepted status of English as lingua franca has increased the use of EMI, in higher education settings (Coleman, 2006; Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011; Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013). In the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), similar to other EFL settings, there is a growing trend of using EMI in higher education due to a number of reasons to be discussed in a subsequent section.

This rise in the use of EMI has implications both for policy and practice, particularly in regard to improving students' proficiency in English and their learning of content subjects. Accordingly, Shohamy (2013) calls for "extensive research to examine empirically the costs and benefits of the use of EMI in HEIs [higher education institutions]; the main goal being how much language is being gained by such programs as well as how much academic content is being achieved" (p. 203).

As mentioned above, the last two decades in particular have witnessed a sharp increase in the demand for English around the globe. However, it's only recently that the research community has begun to realize the effects of the 'Englishization' of higher education on learners' proficiency in English- a much touted benefit of EMI- as well as the quality of the learning experience offered through EMI. This is evident in the recent burgeoning of research studies conducted in diverse contexts around the world (e.g., Belhiah and Elhami, 2015; Doiz et al, 2013; Hu et al., 2014). It must be noted that till recently, the majority languages in some of these countries such as, Arabic and Chinese were considered adequate to carry the burden of intellectual discussion and scholarship, and were therefore used as medium of instruction at all levels in education, including higher education.

EMI, unlike Content Integrated Language Learning (CLIL) and immersion programs in Canada, lacks a theoretical foundation or accompanying research program (Dearden, 2015). In fact, EMI is often introduced hurriedly in many EFL contexts due to external pressures such as university rankings. As mentioned earlier, it's only recently that language planners and policy makers have started taking interest in the impacts of EMI on student learning in varied contexts. For example, in the Gulf region, one of the reasons for the recent interest in the effects of EMI is its likely impact on identity and local culture, and possible de-intellectualization of Arabic, a language with a rich cultural and intellectual heritage (Belhiah& Elhami, 2015)

This paper presents the use of EMI in the transition year, normally known as the Preparatory Year Program (PYP), in one university in the KSA - an EFL country. First, to set up the context for the study, the place of Arabic- the majority language, and English- the target language or L2, is outlined briefly in the current education system of the country. Next, the research questions and methodology used in the study are presented. The study findings in regard to teachers' and learners' experience and perceptions about the use of EMI in the PYP, as well as their coping strategies, and the reported impact of EMI on student learning are then discussed. Some support measures to facilitate the shift in MoI from Arabic in secondary schools to English in the transition year are also shared. Finally, a way forward is suggested based on the study findings and similar studies in EFL contexts elsewhere. This includes future directions for research and practice.

Literature Review

Models of EMI in higher education

The models for EMI are as varied as the higher education contexts in which EMI takes place around the world. Some universities offer dual-medium education while others are experimenting with a trilingual system of education, i.e., through English as well as majority and/or local languages (for examples of EMI models in universities in different countries see Doiz et al., 2013). Moreover, EMI programs are offered for all or selected subjects/disciplines only. The use of EMI may be optional or mandated across all subject areas and for all higher

education programs, for example in ESL contexts such as Pakistan (Shamim, 2011). When the EMI courses can be selected by the students on a voluntary basis, they have more prestige, and often a higher fee structure; also, there may be support systems in place to facilitate students' study through EMI (Hu & Lei, 2014). However, there is little awareness at the policy level of the requirements for introducing EMI or the need to provide support to teachers and students with inadequate proficiency in the language. Hence, often, there is a gap between policy intentions and the actual implementation of the EMI programs thereby leading to challenges both for the teachers and the students. These include teachers and students' inadequate proficiency in the English language, the lack of effective support mechanisms and/or resources for implementation of the EMI program (Hu, Li & Lei, 2014; Vu & Burns, 2014; Werther, Denver, Jensen & Mees, 2014). Hence, recently, there have been calls to focus on improving the *implementation* of EMI, including support systems, to derive the alleged benefits from EMI courses and programs (e.g. Byun et al., 2011; Hu, Li & Lei, 2014).

Benefits and Challenges of using EMI

The alleged benefits of EMI have been the major drivers in its introduction in different higher education settings. These are: students' improved proficiency in English, and career enhancement through increased mobility and study abroad opportunities (Coleman, 2006; Hu & Lei, 2014; Yeh, 2012; Zare-ee & Gholami, 2013). However, Lei & Hu (2014), in their recent study on Chinese undergraduate students, find no statistically significant effect of EMI on students' English proficiency. More important, Lo and Lo's (2014) conclusion, based on their meta-analysis of 24 EMI studies conducted in Hong Kong since 1970, that "using an L2 as the medium of instruction does not guarantee successful L2 learning without sacrificing academic achievement"(p.65) needs urgent attention. Additionally, Hu, Li & Lei (2014) find that the higher cost of the EMI program and the institutional policies regarding entry requirements serve to limit access to the program mainly to students from a higher socio-economic stratum, thereby "exacerbating extant inequalities and creating new ones in Chinese universities and society" (p.37).

Teachers and students generally show a positive attitude towards EMI; however, a number of challenges are also reported. For example, students at a private university in Taiwan show positive attitudes toward their EMI courses; they believe that EMI has helped them improve their English language skills, particularly listening skills; at the same time, they report some problems in understanding the lectures in English (Chang, 2010). Similarly, Byun et al (2011) report that although the EMI policy seems to have produced, in general, positive outcomes in Korean higher education, such as improving students' English proficiency, its compulsory enforcement across all academic disciplines, and without any support measures, has led to several challenges (and negative consequences), particularly due to students and instructors inadequate language proficiency. Floris (2014) also finds that while the teachers and learners in a large college in Indonesia generally show a positive towards EMI due to the

important role of English in the world, a number of challenges are faced in implementing the EMI program successfully.

Belhiah and Elhami (2015) in a study of teachers and learners in six universities in the United Arab Emirates also find that teachers and learners are generally positive towards the use of EMI; however, a number of challenges are reported by the teachers due to learners' inadequate proficiency in the English language. Interestingly, when presented with the possibility of using both Arabic and English as medium of instruction, 62% students and 75% teachers showed their preference for a dual-medium of instruction. The authors, therefore, recommend a bilingual curriculum to develop students' bi-literacy skills in English and Arabic. Similar findings have been reported from a Malaysian university where a survey of undergraduate students reveals that although students' attitudes are quite positive about EMI, "the English language as a medium of teaching and learning in science and mathematics at UKM [a Malaysian university] is not the students' first choice" (Isa et al., 2011, p. 365). Interestingly while the Malaysian students disagree that the use of EMI is the cause of low academic performance, they argue "that the teaching and learning of science and mathematics should also be carried out in both English and Malay" (Isa et al., 2011, p. 365). Accordingly, Isa et.al assert that, if given a preference, the students are more likely to choose Malay as medium of instruction as they believe that it is easier to study science and math in Malay.

It is important to note that while, overall, the teachers and learners seem positive towards the use of EMI, its effectiveness in improving students' English proficiency is uncertain. Moreover, the compulsory enforcement of EMI without regard to students and instructors' language proficiency, the lack of resources and/or a much-needed support system, and appropriately qualified instructors to conduct EMI classes have led to several challenges, and even negative consequences for student learning. In addition, there are a number of mediating variables that could adversely affect the effectiveness of EMI programs.

EMI and Mediating Variables

The varying effects of EMI on students' learning of English and the content of subjects taught through EMI leads to discussions about the likely impact of moderating factors on the effectiveness of EMI programs such as, teaching methodology, learners' ability in English at point of entry, and strategies used by the teachers and learners to cope with the challenges presented by EMI. Lo and Lo's (2014) meta-analysis of 24 EMI studies conducted in Hong Kong since 1970 indicates the importance of moderating variables such as, "the socio-linguistic context, the actual program implementation in schools, students' language proficiency, teachers' pedagogical practices, and the typological differences between the languages involved" (pp. 65-66). Kym & Kym (2014) also find that teachers background, i.e., native or non-native English speakers (and therefore their facility in using English), students' background knowledge and study abroad experiences are important moderating variables that help explain the effects of EMI

on students' learning. In fact, prior English proficiency has been found to be the strongest predictor of effect on students' proficiency, learning and use of English (Hu & Lei, 2014). This means that students who enter a program with EMI with higher proficiency levels tend to gain more compared to students with lower proficiency levels. However, it is the latter that actually need to improve their English language skills more to cope with the requirements of studying through EMI.

Gaps in policy support and EMI practices in the classroom can also influence the expected outcomes of EMI programs. For example, Hu and Lei (2014) note in their case study of a business program at a large university in China that the misalignment between policy intentions and classroom practices could lead to negative consequences for student learning. These are: watering down the curriculum context, using L1 or Chinese textbooks to gain understanding of the concepts, and students' heavier reliance on teachers' notes. Some other consequences of EMI are reduced classroom participation (Kilickaya, 2008), and limited opportunities for practice for improving proficiency in English (Li, Leung & Kember, 2001).

Several universities offer English language support programs to improve learners' proficiency in the English language. However, the effects of these programs, in terms of learners' improved proficiency in English, are varied due to a host of moderating variables regarding teachers, learners and the program management.

EMI is used in the transition year program in Saudi Arabia. However, little is known about teachers and learners' perceptions and experience of teaching-learning of science subjects through EMI. Also, there is no evidence of the success, or otherwise, of using EMI in the transition year on the learning of English and the content subjects, in particular. The present study was therefore undertaken on the use of EMI in a one year Preparatory Year Program (PYP) at a university in KSA to arrive at an in-depth understanding of the use of EMI within the specific context of this program. The insights gained from the study are used to make recommendations for future EMI policy and research in KSA.

The study context

English is a foreign language in KSA. Arabic, the national language of the country, is used as the medium of education in schools (Al-Nofaie, 2010). It is also the sole official language of communication in the public domain such as government offices, educational institutions (except a few international schools and universities) and hospitals. According to Alshumaimer, (2001), Saudi Arabia belongs to Kachru's third or expanding circle (1982), where English is used in several domains such as trade and business. However, the use of English in KSA is still quite limited (except for higher education). The teaching of English in KSA begins at the elementary level (grade six) and continues till the end of secondary school, i.e., grade 12 (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013). However, according to Alshumaimeri (2001), it has been

observed that many students graduate from high school with only rudimentary knowledge and skills in the English language. In higher education, English is the medium of instruction for many subjects such as science, medicine, dentistry, engineering and computers. English is also used as the MoI for science subjects in the PYP or transition year in all universities in the Kingdom.

The demand for EMI in KSA has grown, similar to other EFL contexts, due to internationalization of education with a major focus on student mobility and increased opportunities for study abroad (mainly in countries where English is the native language), ‘a clear form of internationalization’ (MOE report, 2013: 73). The exponential growth of private universities and colleges of excellence in the Kingdom in recent years, normally set up in partnership with foreign organizations and universities, has also led to the increased use of English as the language of instruction in higher education in KSA (Phan & Barnawi, 2015).

Research Questions

The following questions were used to arrive at an in-depth understanding of EMI as used in the context of the preparatory or transition year program at a public sector university in KSA:

1. What is the teachers and learners' preferred medium of instruction for science subjects in the PYP?
2. What challenges are faced in teaching-learning of science subjects through the medium of English?
3. What strategies do teachers and learners use to address the challenges in learning science subjects through EMI?
4. What are the consequences of using EMI for students' learning of curricular content?
5. How effective are the institutional level support mechanisms for using EMI in the PYP?

Methodology

A case study approach was used for the study to get to get a holistic picture (Yin, 2014) of the use of EMI in the PYP, within the specific context of a public sector university in KSA. Qualitative data was collected through classroom observation, and semi-structured and focus group interviews from teachers and learners respectively. In addition, documents such as textbooks and sample test papers were analyzed.

Purposive sampling was used to select seven teachers and three groups of learners from the PYP. All the participating teachers, except one, were English-Arabic bilinguals with doctoral level qualifications. Also, they had vast experience of teaching outside the KSA (ranging from 5-15 years) and a minimum of 1 year in Saudi Arabia (except the English-only math teacher who had recently joined the university). However, only one teacher had received any long-term professional training before or after starting her teaching career. All teachers, except the mathematics teacher, had Arabic as their L1, and had learnt English as a second or third language in their own countries and/or during study abroad in native English speaking countries.

One lesson each of all the seven selected teachers was observed. Follow-up semi-structured interviews were conducted using a set of guiding questions. The interviews were

recorded and subsequently transcribed for analysis. All the teachers were also asked to self-assess their proficiency in English and Arabic in all the four language skills, i.e. Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. The participating teachers' self-reported proficiency in the four language skills in English ranged from good to excellent.

Additionally, three focus group interviews were conducted with learners, all Saudi nationals, from three sections representing varying levels of proficiency in English. It was assumed that learners with varied proficiency levels in English may differ in their perceptions and experiences of EMI relative to their proficiency level. Moreover, as their sections for English are different from their sections for their science subjects, they would be able to talk about their experience in their content subject classes more candidly and without reference to specific teachers. The interview for level I or students with higher proficiency in English was carried out by two interviewers in English and Arabic; the students were told that they were free to respond in any of the two languages according to their comfort level. The interviews for the lower proficiency students, i.e. levels II and III, were conducted in Arabic only. The groups were kept small (6-8 students) to allow the learners space to share their experiences and voice their opinions freely (Rabiee, 2004). Overall, 19 students participated in the three focus group interviews. The English translation of the learner interview data was done by the two co-researchers who are fluent in both English and Arabic.

Informed consent was gained from the teachers using a form, and after providing them details about the study and their rights as study participants. For the students, only verbal consent was gained after explaining to them the purpose of the study and promising anonymity and confidentiality of data. This was considered to be the culturally appropriate way of gaining consent from the learners (Shamim & Qureshi, 2013).

The data analysis was guided by the research questions. The classroom observation notes and interview transcripts were carefully read line-by-line and coded as meaningful qualitative units to arrive at themes (Chenail, 2012). Document such as books, power point lecture presentations, class handouts and sample test papers were also analyzed to gain additional information about the use of EMI in the PYP.

Findings and Discussion

Teachers and Learners' Preferred Medium of Instruction

All the participating teachers (except one) were unanimous in their view that English should continue to be the medium of instruction. This is because, "English is the language of science" and "They [the students] will need it for higher education- if they do their Ph.Ds they'll need it" (Teacher 2, interview data). Another teacher shared a similar view, "English has now become a world known language- it is I think it should be compulsory here also so if our students go anywhere in the world they can communicate with anybody- because language is not a barrier

for them" (Teacher 3, interview data). This resonates with the view of many teachers internationally as found by studies of teachers' perception of EMI in EFL countries such as Iran and China (Hu & Lei, 2014; Zare-ee & Gholami, 2013), and a recent survey conducted by the Oxford University, Department of Education and the British Council in 55 countries in the world (Dearden, 2015). Only one of the participating teachers did not support the use of English as MoI in the PYP. She justified it based on her own experience: "They taught in German in Germany- they told me it's useful to study in your own language". She agreed that English was very important, "but sciences are easier to teach in their [the students'] own language . . . so they should understand the [subject]" (Teacher 5, Interview data).

Interestingly all the higher proficiency level students, except one, also favored the use of EMI. Their justification for this view was similar to that of their teachers: "So we are with the other world. They know a lot of stuff. We still don't know so it [MoI] should be English" (Focus Group (FG), level I). In contrast, the students in level III (lowest proficiency level) questioned the use of EMI in the PYP, because it disadvantages them in regard to gaining admission to the faculties of their choice in the university:

It is not fair to study in English during preparatory year because it will determine our fate. I have been studying hard during secondary school to enter the medical faculty and when I came here everything disappeared because of English (FG, level III).

To sum up, the majority of teachers and the higher proficiency level students in the PYP showed a positive attitude towards EMI. This is not surprising due to the benefits of EMI generally claimed for individual, social and economic growth and development (Coleman, 2011). However, similar to other EFL contexts, they also reported several challenges.

Participants' Challenges, Coping Strategies and Consequences of Using EMI

In the PYP, the prescribed textbooks for the science subjects and math are in English; however, they contain bilingual (English and Arabic) glossaries of scientific terms. Classroom observations revealed that all teachers used 'standardized power-point lecture presentations and worksheets and practice tests. These lecture presentations, developed centrally by the subject coordinator for use at all campuses of the university, and also made available to the students, were mainly in English with some words/scientific terms translated into Arabic. Also, there was extensive use of tables and diagrams in the power point slides (with occasional reference to the same in the books) to explain and clarify scientific concepts. However, the teaching-learning in the classroom including task instructions, explanation of concepts and checking of learning, was carried out mainly in Arabic.

Both the teachers and learners reported several challenges in using EMI for teaching-learning of science subjects in the PYP. One teacher shared that a major challenge for her was to help the learners "think about meaning as a whole rather than to try to understand every word" (Teacher 3, interview data). Another teacher advised the learners to "learn by translating immediately [so that] they read by their eyes in English and what they have in their mind is in Arabic". She was confident that "after a month or two they will get it"(Teacher 4, interview data). The English-only math teacher shared that her major challenge was to know "how they understand my teaching- how they understand my language- this is my main challenge" (Teacher 7, Interview data). She shared that when she asked the learners how they felt when she used English only in the classroom, "they tell me no problem-we can understand because in math numbers- many things you write on the board-so we can catch many things from the board- not your language". The students agreed in their interviews that they could understand math in English (but not physics or chemistry) as it was mainly numbers and the teacher could solve the problems on the board to help them.

All the teachers found the request from the learners to translate all the curriculum material into Arabic to be a major challenge. This was both time-consuming and not helpful, in their view, in making the required transition from Arabic to English as the medium of instruction. At the same time, the teachers shared that the students already knew most of the material in Arabic from high school; so, essentially, the teachers' job seemed to be simply to translate everything into English. This was corroborated by the learners in their interviews: "We know the material from secondary school- we know it in Arabic- now we have to learn it in English" (FG, level III). The majority of the students shared that their new learning mainly comprised the learning of scientific terms in English. Hence, it seems that nothing new is learnt in the science subjects in the PYP due to 'simplifying' the learning material (content) to make it accessible to the learners in English.

The teachers shared that at the time of recruitment they had been told that they would have to teach through the medium of English. However, once they started teaching, they were forced to make accommodations due to their students' low proficiency in English, for example, using Arabic for explanations and clarifying concepts in the classroom (see also Goodman, 2014). Moreover, as the majority of the students were unable to read the textbooks in English, the teachers helped them prepare for their exams by giving them bilingual word lists, and 'checklists' identifying sections and paragraphs from the book to study; also, they conducted mock exams to practice answering exam questions in English.

It has been pointed out that the low proficiency of content subject teachers and the additional burden on them, of presenting their specialist knowledge to the learners in a language different from the one in which they studied it, can be a major challenge for these teachers (Wiseman & Odell, 2014). However, the majority of teachers in the study had a reasonably good

proficiency in English, so it seems that their challenges stemmed more from the learners' low proficiency in English and the learners' mindset that every single word in the lectures and textbooks needs to be translated into Arabic, than their own inadequacy in English. However, some of the challenges faced by these science teachers may be due to their lack of professional training either in bilingual teaching or in using the learners' L1 strategically for scaffolding their learning.

The learners also reported a number of challenges in using EMI. Level I students, with relatively higher proficiency in the language, shared that although they did not face any problems in following the curriculum through EMI, most of their friends spent an enormous amount of time translating all the relevant material into Arabic after which they memorized it in English for exam purposes. All the learners in levels II and III (lower proficiency levels) agreed with this assertion: "We translate the book word by word and try to memorize the scientific terms in English. We already know the material in Arabic" (FG, level II). Majority of learners shared that as they cannot understand the book, they only use the lecture presentations and their class notes as study material for the exams. The students also reported that they find both scientific terms (e.g. dehydration) and general English words such as 'several' and 'composed of' difficult to understand, particularly, in test questions. Consequently, "In the exam reading the question [in English] and understanding it is an achievement" (FG, level II). This language 'barrier' often led to students answering some questions incorrectly in their chemistry and physics assessment, even though they knew the correct answers in Arabic.

To sum up, the students do not have adequate command of English to follow the lectures, read their prescribed textbooks and answer the exam questions in English only. Hence, they believe that with EMI no learning is possible without first translating everything from English into Arabic. This forces their teachers to facilitate their 'access' to the curricular content through Arabic rather than English as the language of instruction in the classroom. Additionally, the teachers tend to help their learners in various ways to enable them to answer the exam questions in English. As a result, teaching and learning in the transition year becomes highly exam-oriented, leaving no place for discussion of ideas for in-depth understanding of scientific concepts and theories. In any case, the curriculum content is similar to the one they have studied in high school. Thus, the purpose of studying science subjects in the transition year seems to be limited to re-learning the already known scientific terms and concepts in English. Hence, nothing new is added to the learners' knowledge. This indicates that the use of EMI in the PYP has an adverse effect on both the amount and quality of student learning.

EMI also seems to have a negative influence on students' motivation level. For example, a student shared the following regarding the change in her attitude to science subjects when she had to study them through EMI: "I used to love math and chemistry in the secondary school and I hated English subject but in the university I love English and hate math and chemistry" (FG,

level II). Another student shared that she was ready to drop out of the prep year program when she did not get high marks in the quiz [because of English] even though she had worked very hard. The students also observed that, "the problem is English- it affects the marks" (FG-level 1).

Support Mechanisms for Teachers and Students

Realizing the need for university entrants to improve their English language skills, an intensive English language program of approximately 550 hours is offered to prospective students in the PYP by all the universities in the Kingdom. The English language program at the focal university (PYEL), however, focuses on developing English language skills for everyday communication. All the teachers were dissatisfied with the PYEL program as it did not focus on their students' needs for learning 'scientific English'. In contrast, the students showed a general level of satisfaction with the PYEL program *for developing general communication skills for everyday life*. However, similar to their teachers, none of them found this program helpful for studying science subjects through EMI. This is not surprising due to the current aims and nature of this program.

Several other mechanisms for supporting the students and teachers at the institutional level were identified during classroom observations and interviews. These include local professors simplifying and adapting foreign textbooks, for example, by adding an English-Arabic glossary at the end of the book, and the development and use of standardized lecture presentations for all science subjects. However, as mentioned earlier, these simplified textbooks comprised concepts or information already known to the students from high school, and therefore did not add much to the knowledge of the students. Similarly, many teachers reported that the standardized lecture presentations did not allow them to use different pedagogical techniques; in fact, as the lecture slides were used as study material by the students (and subsequently to examine them), they were forced to follow everything to the letter, thus making their teaching non-creative and mechanical.

The PYP also has an extensive system of full-time academic advisors for all science subjects. However, it was found that normally, the academic advisors are not proficient bilinguals in English and Arabic; also, they are mainly approached by the students for translating their course material into Arabic.

Summary and Conclusion

Teachers and the majority of students in this study showed a preference for EMI for instrumental purposes. At the same time, they reported a number of challenges in using EMI. The major challenges seem to stem from students' inadequate proficiency in the language. Both teachers and students use a range of coping strategies to address these challenges. This adversely affects the quality and amount of learning taking place in the PYP. The use of EMI in the PYP can also have negative consequences for learner motivation.

The phenomenal growth of higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia over the last two decades has increased the need for learning English for building a knowledge society in KSA. However, it must be noted that the gap between rhetoric and reality (cf. Hu et al. 2014) and aspirations and achievement (Coleman, 2011) can only be filled through an acknowledgment of the challenges faced both by teachers and learners in EMI during the transition year. This also underlines the need for providing research-based support to facilitate a shift in MoI from Arabic in high school to English in higher education settings.

The Way Forward: Future Directions for Policy and Research

Using EMI in higher education in the KSA, similar to other EFL settings, is a major language planning (both corpus and status planning) issue. As there is no clear or stated language policy in the KSA, EMI seems to be creeping in through the back door with all its ensuing challenges and adverse effects on students' learning. Hence, there is an urgent need not only to articulate a language policy for KSA but also to undertake implementation planning for the same. Also research is needed to study the effectiveness of the EMI policy, as well as its current and future impact on individual and societal growth. Additionally, further research is required to "examine empirically the cost and benefits of the use of EMI at HEIs; the main goal being how much language is being gained by such programs as well as how much academic content is being achieved" (Shohamy, 2013, p. 203). Similarly, research evidence is required on the effects of EMI on affective variables such as teachers and students' self-efficacy, identity construction, and local languages and culture. The latter particularly needs to be explored in the Arab countries in general, and in the KSA in particular, where the Arabic language has a rich intellectual and cultural tradition. Finally, the divisive effect of EMI hinted in many studies, i.e., the rich getting richer and the poor getting poor-needs urgent attention from policy makers to create equal educational opportunities and foster social equality. Finally, the effects of CLIL and bilingual programs, generally recommended for learning an additional language in EFL settings such as the KSA, need to be studied through a systematic research program.

About the Authors:

Dr Fauzia Shamim is Professor and female ELC Coordinator at Taibah University, Saudi Arabia. She has taught ESL/EFL and trained teachers in a variety of settings in Pakistan and internationally.

Dr Abeer Abdelhalim is an Assistant Professor in organic chemistry in preparatory year at Taibah University, Saudi Arabia. She is interested in isolating and identifying active compounds from local medicinal plants.

Dr. Nabila Saleem is an Assistant Professor in biology in preparatory year, Taibah University, Saudi Arabia. Previously, she was an ethno-Botanist at Ministry of Environment and South Valley University, Egypt

References

- Al-Nofaie, H. (2010). The Attitudes of Teachers and Students towards Using Arabic in EFL Classrooms in Saudi Public Schools: A Case Study. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 4, 1, 64-95.
- Alshumaimeri, Y. (2001). Education in Saudi Arabia. Chapter 2. Retrieved 12/02/2012 from: [http://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/yousif/MasterDissertation/ChapterEducation in SaudiArabia.pdf](http://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/yousif/MasterDissertation/ChapterEducation%20in%20SaudiArabia.pdf)
- Belhiah, H. & Elhami, M. (2015). English as a Medium of Instruction in the Gulf: When Students and Teachers Speak. *Language Policy*, 14, 3-23.
- Byun, K., Chu, H., Kim, M., Park, I., Kim, S. & Jung, J. (2011). English-Medium Teaching in Korean Higher Education: Policy Debates and Reality. *Higher Education*, 62, 431-449.
- Chang, Y. Y. (2010). English-Medium Instruction for Subject Courses in Tertiary Education: Reactions from Taiwanese Undergraduate Students. *Taiwan International ESP Journal*, 2, 1, 55-84.
- Chenail, R. J. (2012). Conducting Qualitative Data Analysis: Reading Line-by-line, but Analyzing by Meaningful Qualitative Units. *The Qualitative Report*, 17, 1, 266-269. Retrieved 12/12/13 from <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR17-1/chenail-line.pdf>.
- Coleman, J.A. (2006). English-Medium Teaching in European Higher Education. *Language Teaching*, 39, 1, 1-14.
- Coleman, H. (ed.) (2011). *Dreams and Realities: English in Development*. London: The British Council.
- Dearden, J. (2015). English as a Medium of Instruction- A Growing Global Phenomena: Final Report, January 2015. Oxford University, Department of Education and British Council. Available online at: <http://www.britishcouncil.org/education/ihe/knowledge-centre/english-language-higher-education/report-english-medium-instruction>
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J. M (2011). Internationalisation, Multilingualism and English-medium Instruction. *World Englishes*, 30, 3, 345-359.
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. (eds.) (2013). *English-Medium Instruction at Universities: Global Challenges*. Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Floris, F.D. (2014). Learning Subject Matter through English as the Medium of Instruction: Students' and Teachers' Perspectives. *Asian Englishes*, 16, 1, 47-59.
- Goodman, B.A. (2014). Implementing English as a Medium of Instruction in a Ukrainian University: Challenges, Adjustments and Opportunities. *International Journal of Pedagogies and learning*, 9, 2, 130-141.
- Graddol, D. (2006). *English Next: Why Global English May Mean the End of English as a Foreign Language*. London: The British Council.
- Hu, G. & Lei, J. (2014). English-Medium Instruction in Chinese Higher Education: A Case Study. *Higher Education*, 67, 551-567.
- Hu, G., Li, L., & Lei, J. (2014). English-medium Instruction at a Chinese University: Rhetoric and Reality. *Language Policy*, 13, 21-40.
- Isa, Z., Zakaria, A.M., Azlan, M.I., Noorani, M.S.N., Majid, N., Ismail, H., & Ahmad, A.G. (2011). Students' Inclination towards English Language as Medium of Instruction in the Teaching of Science and Mathematics. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 18: 353-360. Available at: http://worldconferences.net/proceedings/gse2013/papers_gse2013/121%20Abbas%20Zare-ee-2.pdf

- Kachru, Braj B. (1982). *The Other Tongue: English across Cultures*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press. (Paperback edition, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1983).
- Kilickaya, F. (2008). Instructors' Attitudes towards English-Medium Instruction in Turkey. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 6. Available at: www.hltmag.co.uk/nov06/mart01.htm
- Li, N., Leung, D.Y.P., & Kember, D. (2001). Medium of Instruction Policy in Hong Kong Universities: The Mis-Match between Espoused Theory and Theory in Use. *Higher Education Policy*, 14, 4, 293-312.
- Kym, I. & Kym, M.H. (2014). Students' Perceptions of EMI in Korea. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 11, 2, 35-51.
- Lei, J. & Hu, G. (2014). Is English-Medium Instruction Effective in Improving Chinese Undergraduate Students' English Competence? *IRAL*, 52, 2, 99-126.
- Lo, Y.Y & Lo, E.S.C. (2014). A Meta-Analysis of the Effectiveness of English Medium Education in Hong Kong. *Review of Educational Research*, 84, 1, 47-73.
- Phan, L. H., & Barnawi, O.Z. (2015). Where English, Neoliberalism, Desire and Internationalization are Alive and Kicking: Higher Education in Saudi Arabia Today. *Language and Education*, DOI: 10.1080/09500782.2015/1059436. Published online 1 July 2015.
- Ministry of Higher Education (2013). The Current Status of Higher Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Retrieved 12/12/14 from <http://www.mohe.gov.sa/ar/Ministry/Deputy-Ministry-for-Planning-and-Information-affairs/The-General-Administration-of-Planning/Documents/777.pdf>.
- Rabee, F. (2004). Focus-group Interview and Data Analysis. *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, 63, 655-660.
- Rahman, M.M. & Alhaisoni, E. (2013). Teaching English in Saudi Arabia: Prospects and Challenges. *Academic Research International*, 4, 1, 112-118. Available at: [http://www.savap.org.pk/journals/ARInt./4\(1\)/2013\(4.1-11\).pdf](http://www.savap.org.pk/journals/ARInt./4(1)/2013(4.1-11).pdf)
- Shamim, F. (2011). English as the Language for Development in Pakistan: Issues, Challenges and Possible Solutions In H. Coleman (ed.), *Dreams and Realities: English in Development* (pp. 297-315). London: The British Council.
- Shamim, F. & Qureshi, R. (2013). Informed Consent in Educational Research in the South: Tensions and Accommodations. *Compare Special Issue*, 43, 4, 464-482.
- Shohamy, E. (2013). A Critical Perspective on the Use of English as Medium of Instruction at Universities. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & J.M. Sierra (eds.), *English as Medium of Instruction at Universities: Global Challenges* (pp. 196-210). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Vu, N.T.T & Burns, A. (2014). English as a Medium of Instruction: Challenges for Vietnamese Tertiary Lecturers. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 11, 3, 1-31
- Werther, C., Denver, L., Jensen, C. & Mees, I.M. (2014). Using English as Medium of Instruction at University Level in Denmark: The Lecturer's Perspective. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35, 5, 443-462.
- Wiseman, A. & Odell, A. (31 March 2014). Should English be used as a University's Language of Instruction in a Non-English Speaking Country? Available at: <http://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/should-non-english-speaking-countries-teach-in-english>

- Yeh, C. (2012). Instructors' Perspectives on English-Medium Instruction in Taiwanese Universities. *課程與教學季刊* 2012, 16, 1, 頁 209~232. Retrieved 12/06/13 from https://www.academia.edu/8477398/Instructors_Perspectives_on_English-Medium_Instruction_in_Taiwanese_Universities_Instructors_Perspectives_on_English-Medium_Instruction_in_Taiwanese_Universities
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (Fifth edition). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Zare-ee, A. & Gholami, K. (2013). Academic Justifications for Preferring English as a Medium of Instruction by Iranian University Teachers. *Proceeding of the Global Summit on Education (GSE2013)*, 11-12 March, Kuala Lumpur. Retrieved 01/12/14 from <http://zareee.kashanu.ac.ir/faculty/en/contents/Conferences/Conference.papers.and.presentations.html>

Internet Integration as Sociocultural Practices by Urban English Teachers in Malaysia

Kok-Eng Tan

School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia
Penang, Malaysia

Abstract

To tap into the potentials of online educational innovations, schools in Malaysia are working towards equipping classrooms with Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) to carry out technology-mediated web-based lessons. Teachers are also being trained and encouraged to integrate the Internet in their teaching. Where English teachers are concerned, to what extent and how have they used the Internet in their lessons? What are their problems in integrating the Internet in their teaching? This paper explores these questions from a sociocultural perspective, using a part of the data from a survey of 218 urban secondary school English teachers and a further interview with four volunteer teachers to supplement quantitative trends. The findings show that teachers' use of the Internet is mainly confined to appropriating and downloading online materials for offline class use. Actual teaching in a web-connected classroom is limited. Teachers' practices are discussed in relation to sociocultural constraints. These findings carry implications for the 21st century classroom, in Malaysia and other similar sociocultural contexts, where there is expectation for teaching and learning to be mediated by digital technologies.

Keywords: discourses, ESL, Internet integration, Malaysian urban English teachers, sociocultural practices

Introduction

In the 21st century the field of education seems to be abuzz with terms like digital technologies, e-learning, blended learning and web-based instruction. An emphasis worldwide to incorporate Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) into classroom pedagogy has given rise to much research on technology use among teachers. Needless to say, the studies are wide-ranging and cover not only English teachers but also other subject teachers. Some examples over the years are, preservice English teachers acquiring literacy practices using Web-based tools (Doering & Beach, 2002), teachers' access to ICT infrastructure (Burnip, 2006), teachers' preparation for technology integration (Velazquez-Torres, 2006), Internet-assisted language teaching (Shin & Son, 2007), teachers' online communications (Najafi & Clarke, 2008), teacher acceptance of e-learning technology (Lau & Sim, 2008; Yuen & Ma, 2008; Wong & Teo, 2009), preservice teachers' experience of online pedagogy (Duncan & Barnett, 2010) and their views on the use of video games as instructional tools (Kenny & McDaniel, 2011), knowledge-sharing among teachers (Booth, 2012), teachers' perceptions of e-textbooks in a primary school (Oliveira, Camacho & Gisbert, 2014) and English teachers' choice of online participation that supports teaching, learning and literacy (Rodesiler, 2015). This variety of studies is an indication that teachers are engaged with Internet technologies in their everyday professional practices.

In Malaysia, there are observations that while the school may be equipped with the latest ICT equipment, teachers confine their use to the recording of marks, computing and presenting school statistics and uploading school results for students and parents to access periodically. The Executive Summary (2012) of the Malaysia Education Blueprint for 2013-2025 reported that a survey by the Education Ministry in 2010 found that about 80% of teachers use less than one hour of ICT a week and a third of students perceive their teachers as regular users of ICT. Additionally the summary reported that the 2012 UNESCO review found that ICT usage has not really advanced beyond the use of word-processing applications in the computer as an instructional tool.

The present study moves beyond the use of ICT for school administrative purposes to the integration of the Internet in actual English lesson delivery. This paper reports a portion of the data obtained from a larger study on English teachers' online literacy practices and their concerns over the adoption of the Internet as an innovation in teaching. Using both qualitative and quantitative data, this paper explores the research questions, "To what extent and how have teachers used the Internet in their English lessons?" and "What are the teachers' problems in integrating the Internet in their teaching?" It is hoped that the findings to these research questions will help practitioners, ESL/EFL teachers to be specific, understand the sociocultural constraints they work within and fulfil the expectations of using Internet technologies in their teaching.

Background of the study

The Education IT section of the Asia Pacific FutureGOV (2013), a large body that specialises in public sector organisations covering government, education and healthcare in Asia, is filled with news emphasising that ICT remains a priority in education. Going digital in teaching is not just about using the computer. It includes operating in a webbed environment for mobile learning, online assessment and interactive learning within a learning management system. It encourages students and teachers to collaborate and share knowledge using

technological innovations, emerging technologies and widely accessible information online. Advanced technology such as cloud computing is explored for its educational benefits.

From a policy perspective, Leu, Kinzer, Coiro and Cammack (2004) have described a range of public policy initiatives related to the Information Age by governments around the world. The implementation of such policies in countries like the United Kingdom, the United States, Finland, Australia and New Zealand show these governments' emphasis on the type of knowledge, skills and values of a literate person in the contemporary digital world.

Likewise Malaysian schools have advanced in the use of technology in classroom instruction. To ensure that no school is left behind in this age of digital technologies and global connectedness, millions of dollars have been spent on establishing Smart Schools (Smart School Project Team, 1997). The Smart School project is a flagship project, under the Multimedia Super Corridor (MSC) program launched in the early 1990s, to produce a technologically literate workforce.

Consistent with the MSC program, in the 2005 Budget, RM16.3 billion was allocated to the Ministry of Education to create a knowledge-based society and to intensify the use of ICT in schools (Kumar, Raduan & D'Silva, 2008). The latest ICT in education policy (Frost & Sullivan, 2010) reflects the reality of the prevalence of ICT in everyday experiences and current views of learning, knowledge and knowledge transmission within the new information age. The policy recognises the need to prepare school experiences that are relevant and sufficiently equip students for living in the 21st century. ICT is recognised as an education enabler. Its use is facilitated by the teacher who creates the opportunities for students to access information and increase their understanding and learning.

With more budget on hardware, software and training, Malaysian teachers experience greater expectations to integrate technology in their pedagogy. However they have to realistically work with constraints in the system of education and context of schooling. In the bureaucratic organizational structure of the education ministry, teachers constitute the lower echelon of members tasked with implementing curricular innovations. They are also under pressure to maintain, if not improve, school statistics in high stakes examinations. These are some forces within the institution and society affecting the extent of teachers' use of networked technologies in the classroom.

Theoretical perspectives

From a sociocultural perspective, Internet use among teachers for teaching purposes is viewed as part of their online literacy practices. Teachers' classroom practices are embedded in the larger context, thus enabling us to study how broader societal influences, like institutional cultures and sociocultural contexts, impinge upon what happens in the classroom. It enables us to go beyond merely observing and documenting what technological skills the teacher possesses and uses to enhance teaching and learning.

In the present study, when Internet integration in teaching is constructed as a practice we try to understand the teachers' technologically-mediated teaching and learning activities in the light of the dominant Discourses (Gee, 1996) in Malaysian society. Gee defines Discourse, with an uppercase D, as

...a socially accepted association among ways of using language, other symbolic expressions, and 'artifacts', of thinking, feeling, believing, valuing, and acting that can be used to identify oneself as a member of a socially meaningful group or 'social network', or to signal (that one is playing) a socially meaningful 'role'. (p. 131)

A Discourse is a collective way of "thinking, feeling, believing, valuing, and acting..." that is socially acceptable and signals membership in the society or a social group. Within a society, Discourses are multiple and can be overlapping or conflicting. While not using the uppercase D for discourse, Pennycook (1994) draws our attention to the discourse of English in a local second language context intersecting with discourses of, for example, "pop culture, national culture, capitalism, colonialism and education" (p. 132). An understanding of the interplay of these discourses can help us see how English is taught and produced in the ESL classroom.

The conceptualization of discourses is particularly useful and interesting in informing teachers' practices in regard to how and how far the Internet was employed. Problems, constraints and concerns raised by teachers show them operating from overlapping discourses. In particular English teachers' practices (that is, their thinking, feeling, believing, valuing, and acting) in the digitally connected world can be explored using the local discourse of examinations (Koo, 2004; Tan & Miller, 2007).

Using a sociocultural practice or discourse lens to interrogate technological practices among teachers is rather uncommon. An example is a study by Lim, Lee and Hung (2008) who traced the learning trajectory of a pre-service teacher in the integration of ICT in Singapore and showed "how social contexts afford or constrain teachers' actions and behaviour" (p. 225). This qualitative study stands in contrast to the majority of studies that survey teachers' views and use of technology and report statistical findings. Some examples are, studies reporting the positive outcomes of ICT integration in an educational setting (Mas Nida, Moses & Wong, 2009; Goos, 2005), challenges and barriers to ICT use (Baslanti, 2006; Chong, Horani & Daniel, 2005; Garcia-Valcarcel, Basilotta & Salamanca, 2014) and trends in teacher practices in school (Boakye & Banini, 2008; Iyamu & Ogiegbaen, 2005).

Other than studies reporting trends, the literature also shows small scale studies documenting individual teachers teaching or experimenting with specific networked technologies in their own place of professional practice. For example, the Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy has been publishing classroom-based studies in the United States that examine a diverse range of teaching ideas mediated by the Internet (cf. Johnson (2010) on teaching with authors' blogs; Rance-Roney (2010) on using digital storytelling technologies; Smythe & Neufeld (2010) on teaching and learning with podcasting; Schillinger (2011) on shared reading and writing on a Wiki; Ehret & Hollett (2013) on composing with iPods). In contrast there are relatively fewer studies reported in the Asian context. A few stand out, for example, using blog tasks to teach writing to a group of Japanese university English language learners (Fellner & Apple, 2006); learning outcomes and students' perceptions of online writing in a blended learning setting which used forums, blogs and wikis (Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010); writing output, fluency and accuracy of a group of secondary school ESL students participating in a wiki project in Hong Kong (Mak & Coniam, 2008) and stances in argument in school-administered online forum postings by 15-year-old students in Singapore (Chandrasegaran & Kong, 2007).

In the field of ELT in Malaysia, ICT has also emerged as a topic for presentations in conferences. They are indications of rare, small scale use and investigation of ICT in teaching. Some of the topics in recent Malaysian English Language Teaching Association (MELTA) International Conferences are

1. Engaging learners in literacy lessons through digital resources: Experiences from Malaysian Classrooms
2. Language learning through literature via WebQuests
3. ESL undergraduates' attitudes toward using Wiki and Skype in completing project-based tasks
4. Facebooking in today's net generation: Does it have a place in language classrooms?
5. Tweeting the words away: Rethinking the use of Twitter in vocabulary learning
6. Enriching the learning of English language through 'whatsapp'

Against the background of the different types of studies presented above, the present study discusses some statistical findings of English teachers' Internet integration in teaching and supplements these with anecdotes from interview data. All these are interpreted within the framework of sociocultural practices.

Research methodology

This study had both quantitative and qualitative approaches. To investigate English teachers' use of the Internet for teaching and the problems faced, a questionnaire was employed. This was adapted from a questionnaire used to survey urban Malaysian adolescents' online literacy practices (Tan, Ng & Saw, 2010). To supplement quantitative trends, an in-depth interview was conducted with four volunteer teachers. Each interview lasting about one hour was audio-taped and transcribed for analysis. The interview data were analysed using thematic analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The target respondents were English teachers in urban secondary schools. However due to time constraints and logistics, only the states of Penang and Perak were involved. Purposive sampling was used to choose only schools within an urban location. Permission to conduct this study was obtained at three levels: the Education Planning and Research Division under the Ministry of Education, the Penang State and Perak State Education Departments and the school principals.

The questionnaires were handed out to the English teachers in the schools sampled. At the end of the questionnaire participants were invited to contribute further in an interview. Interested participants gave their name and contact number.

Findings and Discussion

A total of 220 participants comprising 115 English teachers from 12 urban secondary schools in Penang and 105 teachers from 12 urban secondary schools in Perak were involved in the study. After the initial cleaning up of the data, two participants had to be taken out due to incomplete data. Thus data for this study came from 218 practising English teachers. Like their students, Malaysian teachers come from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. The three major ethnic groups were represented in the study in the proportions of 40.8% Chinese, 30.2% Malay and 27% Indian. The remaining small proportion of 2% was from minority groups.

Female teachers (75%) far outnumbered male teachers (25%), reflecting a generally female-dominated teaching profession. The teachers ranged from less than 30 years old to more than 51 years old. The specific age categories were 30 years old and below (n=15), 31-35 years old (n=24), 36-40 years old (n=25), 41-45 years old (n=45), 46-50 years old (n=60) and 51 years old and above (n=49).

To answer the first research question of "To what extent and how have teachers used the Internet in their English lessons?" types and frequency of Internet-related activities for teaching English are discussed below. To answer the second research question of "What are the teachers' problems in integrating the Internet in their teaching?" descriptive statistics of teachers' multiple responses are presented.

Use of the Internet in teaching

The data showed that 120 out of 218 participants (that is, 55%) reported that they used the Internet in their teaching. This covered direct use, as in connecting the English classroom to the Internet in real time, and indirect use, as in using pre-downloaded online materials. For direct use, the lesson was either conducted in the school computer lab or in the classroom with the teacher's laptop connected to the school wifi. This practice is not common as shown later in the statistics on frequency. For indirect use, the range of activities outside the classroom is as shown in Figure 1.

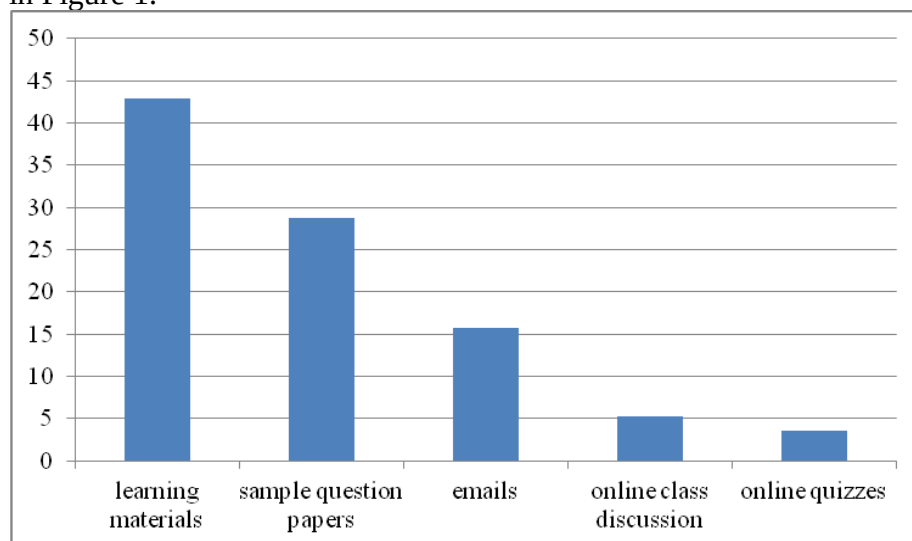


Figure 1 Teaching related activities outside the classroom

The teachers basically downloaded learning materials (42.9%), looked up sample question papers online (28.7%), used emails to communicate with students (15.8%), set up a class discussion (5.3%) and administer online quizzes (3.6%). These activities fell under two main types: sourcing of information (the more dominant type) and interacting with students online. It is not surprising that the teachers relied on the Internet for learning materials and sample questions that will benefit the students directly and prepare them for their examinations. This is part of the discourse of examinations surrounding secondary school education in Malaysia.

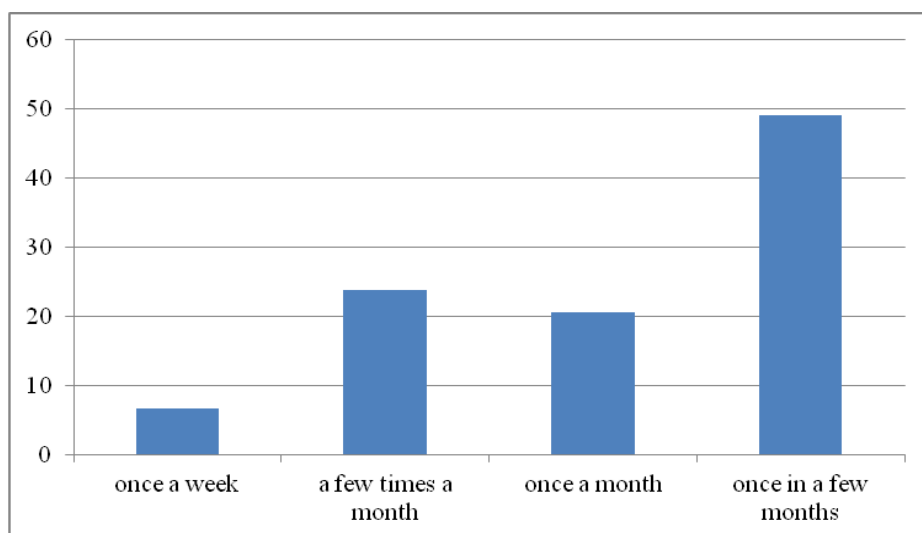


Figure 2 Frequency of conducting online lessons

As shown in Figure 2, in terms of conducting an online lesson in the classroom, the frequencies are as follows: 6.6% for once a week, 23.8% for a few times a month, 20.5% for once a month and 49.2% for once in a few months. Therefore while teachers claimed they used the Internet in the classroom (or the computer lab) they rarely did so. Similarly a survey of teachers in eight representative schools in Ghana (Boakye & Banini, 2008) reported that 71% of the teachers never used the computer for teaching in class and never took their students to the computer lab while 49% used ICT for lesson preparation. The main conclusion was most of the teachers seemed unprepared to integrate ICT in their practice. Another study by Iyamu and Ogiegbaen (2005) among 200 Nigerian social studies teachers found that all the participants were in the category of non-users of educational technology with 92% stating that they never used any form of technology in class.

Overall, in the present study, 73.3% of teachers in the youngest age category of 30 years and below indicated they used the Internet in their teaching while a lower figure of 50% of teachers in the age category of 46 years and above did so. This is consistent with the observation that younger teachers are more at home with the contemporary digital and Internet culture and participate in many technology-mediated activities.

Problems with Internet integration in the classroom

As mentioned earlier, conducting a lesson in a networked environment was rather rare. This is closely linked to the problems indicated by the teachers in Figure 3.

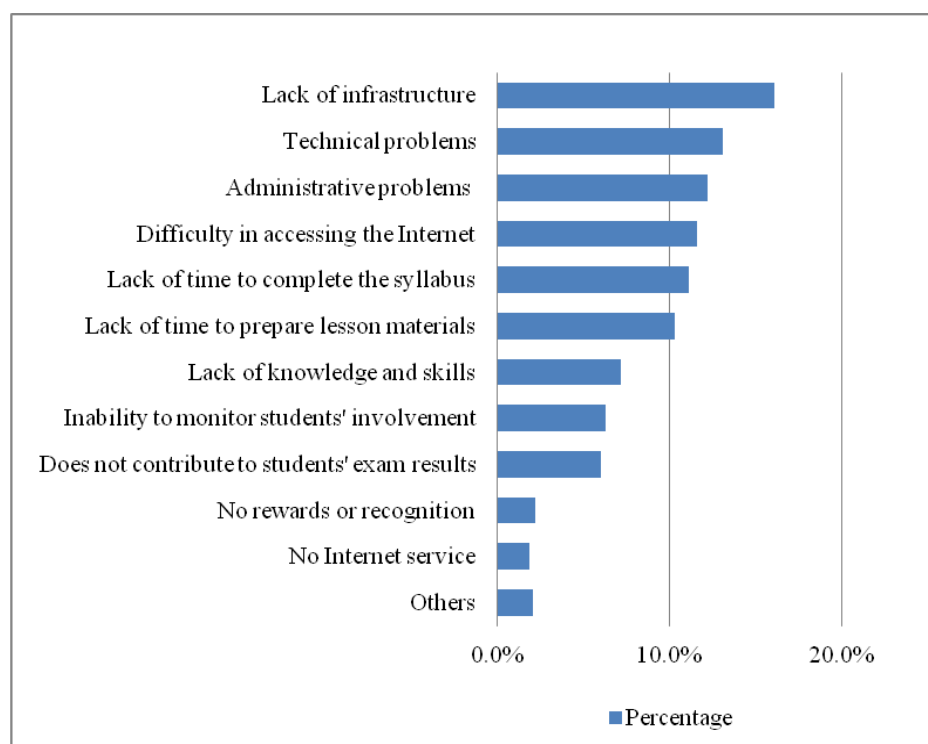


Figure 3 Problems cited for lack of use of the Internet in the classroom

As shown in Figure 3, the lack of infrastructure seemed to be the main problem. The average urban school usually has a computer lab or resource room equipped with 30 to 40 computers. This facility is shared by the whole school which may have an enrolment of 2000 students. The demand for the lab comes from teachers across the curriculum as well as class levels. Moreover, for the teacher to conduct a lesson here, an entire class has to be displaced. Not surprising all this has led to administrative problems that concern not only booking, scheduling and use of the computer lab but also maintaining a facility serving so many people. Teachers also faced technical problems with connectivity, hardware breaking down, software incompatibility, obsolete equipment and others. Clearly adequate funds and a fulltime technician were needed to keep the lab functional. However such matters are not within the control of the school principal. The Malaysian Education System is a highly centralised system under the charge of the Ministry of Education. Education in Malaysia is a federal responsibility. This means that to solve problems with funding and infrastructure the school has to endure long bureaucratic procedures. Alternatively, some schools turn to their own Parent-Teacher Association for support.

Other than infrastructure, another set of problems concerns time. The discourse of examinations dictates that the school's core business is to train students to do well in school and nationwide public examinations. Thus completing the syllabus and practising for examinations are prioritized. Most teachers struggle to finish the syllabus and with weaker students, this is an even more difficult task to accomplish. Teaching and learning using the Internet in formal classroom instruction seemingly has little value. As seen in Figure 3, about 6% of the respondents felt that integrating the Internet is a problem because it "does not contribute to the students' examinations." Parents, students and even principals may query the immediate benefit of conducting a web-based lesson. Moreover, unless the teacher has quick access to a repository

of readymade materials on the Internet, a lot of time is needed to search for and appropriate online materials for class use. This problem could be linked to "lack of knowledge and skills" especially with the older teachers.

The difficulties expressed in this study are similar to those found in Garcia-Valcarcel, Basilotta and Salamanca's (2014) study among teachers from schools well-developed with ICT infrastructures in Castile and Leon. These Spanish teachers also listed problems like teacher unpreparedness, intense efforts required of teachers, resistance from families who preferred the traditional curriculum and technical problems.

Supplementary qualitative findings from interview data

While a number of themes were generated from the interview input using Miles and Huberman's (1994) thematic analysis, only the following three related themes that have emerged are deemed relevant for the purpose of this paper. Multiple readings of the interview transcripts included a constant comparison of input across four volunteer teachers (A, B, C and D) as well as with quantitative results of the questionnaire. Excerpts are presented as they are, that is, voices of Malaysian ESL teachers. The aim of the themes is to help explain some of the descriptive findings given above.

Theme One: "Not truly online."

The combined problems on infrastructure support were possible reasons why many teachers resorted to bringing to their class downloaded hardcopies, the closest they could get to "using the Internet" in teaching. As Teacher A put it,

"We only have one computer lab with 40 computers and then not everything is accessible... . So if you were to take the students to the computer lab, by the time you get them to settle down you have only 10 to 20 minutes. So not really practical *lah*. So mostly we adapt everything ready, we print or we prepare slides and bring to class... . You take from your source *lah*... . You don't bring online activities... . (The class is) not truly online."

Teacher A found it not practical to conduct a web-based lesson involving real-time online participation of her students. She could not "bring online activities" to class but only adapted online materials for classroom teaching.

A tactical approach was to have the whole class share the teacher's laptop, as explained by Teacher B, "I brought my laptop into the class... . So, what I did is I sit down. I said (to the class), 'Come two-two, three-three.'... So I let them see and then after that I downloaded some of the poems and...so we just practised." Teacher B was referring to how she used pre-downloaded video clips on choral speaking competitions on YouTube to introduce the topic. She could not project the images on a big screen as there was no supporting equipment in the classroom. So in twos and threes, students took turns to watch the clips on her small laptop screen.

Another common approach was to set assignments which required surfing the Internet for ideas and information. This was done outside of school in the students' own time. Teacher C explained,

"You get them to read more because they don't read books and magazines. Yesterday I gave them a TIME magazine to show some arr, a story of a lady who

lost her nose, in Afghanistan. So, I told them, 'Go back home and log in and see what else you can know about Afghanistan.' So next week I can know whether they have done it or not."

This approach saves class time and taps on students' online skills and interests. But it requires close monitoring by the teacher to ensure that every student carries out the task independently and benefits from it.

Theme Two: "Very, very truthfully got no time."

Teachers in the study also found it time consuming to prepare a lesson that utilizes the Internet. For Teacher C, to find the appropriate materials, "You have to take the initiative to look up and sometimes I... I tend to spend hours and hours looking at various websites." Teacher D felt that the teacher must be "a frequent user" and "must know which website to go to... ." Otherwise he would be "looking for a needle in the haystack." Teacher A also felt that one should be purposeful and skilful, "First, you must know what you're looking for and then know what you want to do. And then, you have to click and search."

Pressed for time to cover the set syllabus for examinations, Teacher B admitted that "Very, very truthfully got no time. Got to finish the syllabus, want to make sure they understand the format of exam." In the Malaysian context finishing the syllabus and familiarizing students with examination formats are crucial (Tan & Miller, 2007). As indicated in Figure 3, there are teachers who felt that integrating the Internet in the classroom did not count in the examinations. In preparing students to sit for their English papers (set based on standard syllabi and marked using known criteria), textbooks, practice books and past-year exam series are crucial, rather than the Internet. Therefore as long as the system of education remains an exam-oriented one and success is determined largely by high stakes examinations, web-based teaching and learning will not (and cannot) be prioritized by the school, parents or teachers.

Theme Three: "... we close one eye ..."

All four teachers concurred that while the Internet was a useful one-stop resource centre to help their students complete their English assignments for continuous assessment purposes, the work turned in was sometimes plagiarised. However the practice was not checked. For example, Teacher C said, "I know the whole block they copied from the Internet but it's just that when I was filling in their marks, it's so near to the exam, so I have no time to address it" and Teacher D confessed he did not warn his students about plagiarism in their first project but "after this I'll give them another one which I'll caution them about plagiarism... ."

Teachers are held accountable when students do not submit their work on time. Teacher B explained the practical reality of continuous assessment in this way,

"... we just want the (students') work to be done, our work to be arr short and sweet, I suppose... . Until the last moment, the teachers are after them... . So arr, the teachers are just happy you take, paste or something there and then we give you a mark...we are just happy for that."

We see teachers here having the unenviable task of chasing students for their work. Sad to say, to accomplish their part, teachers compromise on honesty and quality of work.

An added reason for overlooking plagiarism is related to students' proficiency levels. With the weaker students, Teacher A did not want to,

"... dampen their spirits, because they bring something and then we reject and reject. These are the students who never bring things. So if they bring something it's good enough. So with them we close one eye *lah*. We accept. But the smarter ones and the average ones we are a bit strict."

In the Malaysian ESL school context, there are many students struggling with English. For them, locating the appropriate websites and putting things together, even with other people's words, are high hurdles. Therefore some teachers tend to accept their work and ignore pointing out their breach of ethical values in academic writing so as not to "dampen their spirits." Even among the better students, one wonders how seriously plagiarism is treated, given the pressure on teachers under time constraints to report good grades for their numerous students.

Conclusion

This article has highlighted some patterns and issues of Internet integration in the classroom practices of a group of English teachers within the sociocultural context of ESL teaching and learning in Malaysia. Obstacles to conducting an online lesson are contributed mainly by the lack of infrastructure, technical and administrative problems and time constraints. Furthermore, in their preoccupation with examinations and grades, teachers hardly have any time left to explore enhanced teaching and learning in an online environment. While Internet use in the classroom is limited, teachers do direct students to useful websites and set homework tasks that require browsing, reading and downloading of information. Teachers also appropriate materials online for classroom use and indirectly model the use of the Internet for school purposes. To promote Internet integration in instruction, some steps can certainly be taken.

Internet integration in classroom teaching is clearly constrained by the emphasis on high stakes examinations. However with the shift in emphasis towards School-Based Assessment in recent years, more autonomy can be given to teachers to realise the potentials of web-based teaching and learning. Proper guidelines on online assessment tasks accompanied with clearly articulated rubrics and grading schemes are crucial to guide and motivate teachers to plan and conduct online lessons effectively.

The more techno-savvy teachers should be encouraged to share their online teaching ideas with others. It would be fitting to have their contributions stored in an online repository, accessible to a local network of teachers from one school or a group of participating schools. This could really save teachers time in searching for materials developed according to the specifications of the English syllabus in Malaysian schools to suit local needs. Perhaps there are isolated cases of English teachers uploading useful ideas. There should be efforts to pool these teachers together to create the repository.

Other than showcasing teachers' innovative ideas in a repository, practising teachers should be encouraged to carry out action research to try out innovative ideas among their own students. For example, they could teach their writing class using an online writing tool that they have personally developed (e.g. Nagaletchimee, 2014; Tan-Ooi & Tan, 2013). Findings of such small scale studies disseminated in local seminars, conferences and publications can increase

awareness of online practices in the classroom. Research can strengthen teachers' confidence in integrating the Internet in their teaching as well as suggest solutions to overcome problems arising from the discourse of examinations.

Another issue concerns teachers' substantive knowledge (Katyal, 2010), more specifically, their conceptual understanding of teaching and learning in digital environments. The present study shows that teachers are at best encouraging the students to use the Internet as a source of information. They do not seem to see students' online practices within bigger issues like student autonomy, critical reading and plagiarism. These forms should be made relevant to the Malaysian teacher education programs and ICT training courses. It is not so much ICT competencies but rather a deeper understanding of as well as concern for educational, social and ethical issues arising from an Internet-based classroom that should challenge our teachers.

Finally, it is appropriate to discuss some limitations of this study which open up possibilities for future research. The study only focused on 218 secondary school English teachers from 24 urban schools in Perak and Penang. English teachers in rural schools have not been represented in this study for the reason that urban schools are more likely to have Internet connections and the potential for conducting web-based lessons. Given the difference between urban and rural school cultures, web-based teaching and learning in rural schools necessarily requires a separate study. To get the larger picture, this study can be duplicated among other groups of English teachers teaching different grades, across diverse educational contexts and geographic locations. Admittedly, documenting the voices of only four teachers is insufficient albeit a good start. Thus future studies should attempt to obtain representative voices from a variety of respondents.

Acknowledgement

This research project was funded by a Universiti Sains Malaysia Research University Grant (Account No. 1001/PGURU/816089).

About the Author

Dr. Kok-Eng Tan is Associate Professor at the School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia. Her research interests include English literacy, writing practices, ELT, TESOL and educational research. Her work has been published in both local and international journals. She is a reviewer for several journals as well as examiner of master's and doctoral theses.

References

- Asia Pacific FutureGov (2013). *Education IT*. <http://www.futuregov.asia/articles/category/education-it/>. Accessed 30 December 2013.
- Baslanti, U. (2006). Challenges in Preparing Tomorrow's Teachers to Use Technology: Lessons to be Learned From Research. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 5(1). <http://www.tojet.net/articles/514.htm>. Accessed 20 November 2009.
- Boakye, K.B., & Banini, D.A. (2008). Teacher ICT Readiness in Ghana. In K. Toure, T.M.S. Tchombe, & T. Karsenti (Eds.), *ICT and Changing Mindsets in Education*. Bamenda,

- Cameroon: Langaa; Bamako, Mali: ERNWACA/ROCARE. <http://www.rocare.org/ChangingMindsets/pdf/ch11-ICTandChangingMindset.pdf>. Accessed 22 November 2009.
- Booth, S.E. (2012). Cultivating knowledge sharing and trust in online communities for educators. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 47(1), 1-31.
- Burnip, L. (2006). ICT mediated study and teachers: Do they have access to the infrastructure? *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 22(3), 355-374.
- Chandrasegaran, A., & Kong, K. M. C. (2007). Stance-taking and stance-support in students' online forum discussion. *Linguistics and Education*, 17, 374-390.
- Chong, C. K., Horani, S., & Daniel, J. (2005). A Study on the Use of ICT in Mathematics Teaching. *Malaysian Online Journal of Instructional Technology*, 2(3), 43-51.
- Doering, A., & Beach, R. (2002). Preservice English teachers acquiring literacy practices through technology tools. *Language Learning and Technology*, 6(3), 127-146.
- Duncan, H. E., & Barnett, J. (2010). Experiencing online pedagogy: a Canadian case study. *Teaching Education*, 21(3), 247-262.
- Ehret, C., & Hollett, T. (2013). (Re)placing School: Middle School Students' counter-mobilities while composing with iPods. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 57(2), 110-119.
- Fellner, T., & Apple, M. (2006). Developing writing fluency and lexical complexity with blogs. *The JALT CALL Journal*, 2(1), 15-26.
- Frost & Sullivan (2010). Policy on ICT in Education, Malaysia. http://www.mscomalaysia.my/sites/default/files/pdf/publications_references/Policy%20on%20ICT%20in%20Education%20Malaysia%202010.pdf. Accessed 25 November 2013.
- Gee, J. P. (1996). *Social Linguistics and Literacies* (2nd ed.). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Garcia-Valcarcel, A., Basilotta, V., & Salamanca, C. L. (2014). ICT in Collaborative Learning in the Classrooms of Primary and Secondary Education. *Comunicar*, 42(XXI), 65-74.
- Goos, M., 2005. A socio-cultural analysis of the development of pre-service and beginning teachers' pedagogical identities as users of technology. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 8, 35-59.
- Iyamu, O.S.E., & Ogiegbaen, S.E.A. (2005). Assessment of the Use of Educational Technology by Social Studies Teachers in Secondary Schools in Western Nigeria. *Journal of Instructional Science and Technology*, 8 (1). http://www.ascilite.org.au/ajet/e-jist/docs/vol8_no1/commentary/assess_ed_tech.htm. Accessed 20 November 2009.
- Johnson, D. (2010). Teaching with Authors' Blogs: Connections, Collaboration, Creativity. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 54 (3), 172-180.
- Katyal, K. (2010). Educating teachers in Hong Kong for leadership in the age of the internet: a re-conceptualisation. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 38 (4), 273-284.
- Kenny, R. F., & McDaniel, R. (2011). The role teachers' expectations and value assessments of video games play in their adopting and integrating them into their classrooms. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 42 (2), 197-213.
- Koo, Y. L. (2004). Multicultural meaning makers: Malaysian ways with words and with the world. In P. Kell, M. Singh, & S. Shore (Eds.), *Adult Education @ 21st century: global futures in practice and theory*. (pp. 71-88). New York: Peter Lang.
- Kumar, N., Raduan, C. R., & D'Silva, J. L. (2008). Predictors of Technology Deployment among Malaysian Teachers. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 5(9), 1127-1134.
- Lau, B. T., & Sim, C. H. (2008). Exploring the extent of ICT adoption among secondary school

- teachers in Malaysia. *International Journal of Computing and ICT Research*, 2 (2), 19-32.
- Leu, D. J., Jr., Kinzer, C. K., Coiro, J. L., & Cammack, D. W. (2004). Toward a Theory of New Literacies Emerging From the Internet and Other Information and Communication Technologies. In R. B. Ruddell, & N. Unrau, (Eds.), *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading* (5th ed., online preprint). The International Reading Association, Inc. <http://www.readingonline.org/newliteracies/leu/>. Accessed 24 June 2011.
- Lim, W. Y., Lee, Y. J., & Hung, D. (2008). A prophet never accepted by their own town: a teacher's learning trajectory when using technology. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 36 (3), 215-227.
- Mak, B., & Coniam, D. (2008). Using wikis to enhance and develop writing skills among secondary school students in Hong Kong. *System*, 36(3), 437-455.
- Mas Nida, M. K., Moses, P., & Wong, S. L. (2009). Laptop ownership and use among educators: Reflections from school teachers in Malaysia. *International Journal of Instruction*, 2 (2), 47- 72.
- MELTA International Conference (2013). Programme: 22nd MELTA International Conference, 28-30 May 2013, Johor Bahru, Malaysia.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis* (2nd ed.). Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Miyazoe, T., & Anderson, T. (2010). Learning outcomes and students' perceptions of online writing: Simultaneous implementation of a forum, blog, and wiki in an EFL blended learning setting. *System*, 38, 185-199.
- Nagaletchimee, A. (2014). *Using and Interacting on an Online Narrative Writing Platform: An Exploratory Study*. Unpublished PhD. thesis, Universiti Sains Malaysia.
- Najafi, H., & Clarke, A. (2008). Web-supported Communities for Professional Development: Five Cautions. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 8(3), 244-263.
- Oliveira, J., Camacho, M., & Gisbert, M. (2014). Exploring Student and Teacher Perception of E-textbooks in a Primary School. *Comunicar*, 42(XXI), 87-95.
- Pennycook, A. (1994). Incommensurable Discourses? *Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), 115-138.
- Rance-Roney, J. (2010). Jump-Starting Language and Schema for English-Language Learners: Teacher-Composed Digital Jumpstarts for Academic Reading. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 53(5), 386-395.
- Rodesiler, L. (2015). The Nature of Selected English Teachers' Online Participation. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 59(1), 31-40.
- Schillinger, T. (2011). Blurring Boundaries: Two Groups of Girls Collaborate on a Wiki. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 54(6), 403-413.
- Smart School Project Team (1997). *The Malaysian Smart School: An MSC Flagship Application*. <http://www.msomalaysia.my/codenavia/portals/msc/images/pdf/ss-blueprint.pdf>. Accessed 30 June 2011.
- Shin, H. J., & Son, J. B. (2007). EFL teachers' perceptions and perspectives on Internet-assisted language teaching. *CALL-EJ Online* 8(2), 1-7.
- Smythe, S., & Neufeld, P. (2010). "Podcast Time": Negotiating Digital Literacies and Communities of Learning in a Middle Years ELL Classroom. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 53(6), 488-496.
- Tan, K. E., & Miller, J. (2007). Writing in English in Malaysian High Schools: The Discourse of

- Examinations. *Language and Education*, 21(2), 124-140.
- Tan, K. E., Ng, M.L.Y., & Saw, K.G. (2010). Online activities and writing practices of urban Malaysian adolescents. *System*, 38, 548-559.
- Tan-Ooi, L. C. & Tan, K. E. (2013). Using WebQLM to enhance performance in argumentative writing among Year 12 ESL students. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 4(1), 57-67.
- The Executive Summary (2012). Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. http://www4.unescobkk.org/nespap/sites/default/files/Preliminary-Blueprint-ExecSummary-Eng_0.pdf. Accessed 15 February 2014.
- Velazquez-Torres, N. (2006). How well are ESL teachers being prepared to integrate technology in their classrooms? *TESL-EJ*, 9 (4), 1-28.
- Wong, S.L., & Teo, T. (2009). Investigating the Technology Acceptance among Student Teachers in Malaysia: An application of the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 18(2), 261-272.
- Yuen, A. H. K., & Ma, W. W. K. (2008). Exploring teacher acceptance of e-learning technology. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(3), 229-243.

EFL Jordanian Students' Reaction to Written Comments on Their Written Work: A Case Study

Abdullah M. Al-Sawalha

Department of English Language and Literature
Jerash University, Jordan

Abstract

This paper examines how Jordanian EFL students at Jerash University react to their teachers' written feedback. In addition, the study, in its wide focus concentrates on the effect of teachers' written feedback on students writing processes. Qualitative method was used to collect data from twenty students who belong to B.A English Language at Jerash University in their third year of study during the academic year 2014/ 2015. On one hand, the study indicates that students vary in their attitude toward teachers' written feedback and the majority of EFL students reveal that they perceived teachers' written feedback to be useful for them in their writing processes on the other. In its conclusion, this study reveals that teachers' written feedback have twin effects; the first one presents improving and orientating students' revision skills, while the second one reveals the enhancement in the Jordanian EFL students' overall writing quality.

Keywords: EFL Jordanian students, Jerash University, student reactions, teacher feedback

Introduction

In a writing class, students write their composition relying on the instructions given by the teacher, and then the teacher evaluates their work and provides feedback in the form of comments, marks, or corrections. The overall objective of a teacher's role in providing feedback is to guide and help students to improve the quality of their written work by teaching them to do things differently or more effectively. But sometimes, teachers are not provided with guidelines or trained in the correct or appropriate way to give feedback on students' written assignments. An example is when a teacher provides feedback that is incomprehensible or not specific. In such a situation the students as well as the teacher do not benefit at all (Wiltse, 2002). In addition, most teachers are generally reluctant to share or exchange opinions regarding their evaluations of their students' writing with other teachers. Even the more complete and free-standing comments found at the end of papers are not generally preserved or shared, and teachers rarely have the time or opportunity to re-read comments they have made on student papers.

In the context of the process writing approach, feedback is measured as an input used to respond to any information related to the text produced. Keh (1996, p.295) describes it, "Feedback is a fundamental element of the process approach to writing. It can be defined as input from a reader to a writer with the effect of providing information to the writer for revision". Feedback on EFL writing can be advice, criticism or information about the quality or errors in the text (Kamimura, 2006). The feedback will guide the students on how to correct their errors and improve their writing.

Notwithstanding, the number in the studies on teacher written feedback is increasing in L2 contexts, most of these studies were conducted in L1 and ESL contexts. In addition, there is a need to investigate the variable learners' preferences for feedback in EFL context and in an Arabic speaking context given that studies investigating EFL learners' preferences for feedback of university students in an Arabic speaking context to the best knowledge of the researcher, do not exist. So, the findings of this study will hopefully highlight areas in the methodology used in the EFL classroom that need to provide EFL teachers with more imminent into giving useful and effective feedback.

This study will add to the little available literature in studies related to teacher written feedback in EFL contexts and student reaction to written comments on their written work in Jordan specifically and the Arab educational world in general. The data is also useful for filling the lack of knowledge regarding the variables that affect the writing process of Jordanian EFL students, particularly in terms of feedback.

Literature Review

Studies that have been conducted in area of teachers' feedback can be categorized according to three major theoretical approaches. Chandler, (2003) identified these three approaches as the self-directed feedback, peer-directed feedback, or teacher-directed feedback.

Self-directed feedback

Self-directed feedback happens when students edit their own writings after they have completed a written task. The students may use a grammar reference book or a dictionary when they are not sure of certain aspects of the language. This will help the students to further improve their ability to examine critically their own writing and eventually produce better quality texts.

However, this method can only work if students have already achieved a suitable level of proficiency that allows improvement through self directed feedback .Thus, self-directed feedback works best for highly proficient students where it can motivate them to develop a self-monitoring technique that requires substantial linguistics knowledge to identify and correct their errors (Ferris, 2002). Given the low proficiency level of the majority of students in an EFL context, this type of feedback is hardly suitable.

However, there is no denying that this type of feedback has its advantages. According to Hyland and Hyland (2006), the writer himself/herself can provide information to improve his or her writing. Thus, it is not advisable to overlook the writers as critical readers and reviewers of their own texts.

Similarly, Edge (1989, p. 51) stresses the need to give students the opportunity to self-correcting by examining their evaluated work and deciding on how to further improve it. Equally supportive of self-directed feedback is Makino (1993, who argues that

In the process of language learning, learners sometimes notice some of their errors by themselves, through the strategy of monitoring, and they can also correct some of their errors when other people such as teachers or peers, give them cues or hints about them (p.338).

Thus, while this type of feedback may not work with low proficiency students, the point being underlined is that a variety of feedback types should be utilized in the EFL classroom.

Peer-directed feedback

In a traditional EFL classroom, teachers are the authoritative figures and students have few opportunities to share their opinions and reflect on their thoughts. The purpose of producing a text is usually to communicate some ideas or information. Thus, it is only natural that the writer will want his/her peers to read the text and provide some feedback. A number of terms are used interchangeably to refer to peer-directed feedback such as peer review and peer response. However, all of them share the same idea where students offer constructive criticism after reading and evaluating each other's work (Farrah, 2012).

Peer-directed feedback can be defined as the activity through which students give and receive comments from each other on their language performance. It is premised on the rationale "... that writing and learning are social processes" (Hyland, 2003, p.198). Peer-directed feedback, according to Paulus (1999,p.267), "encourages students to focus on their intended meaning by discussing alternative points of view that can lead to the development of those ideas".

While many L2 researchers and instructors have been quite positive about peer feedback, nevertheless, it is the case that an increasing number of research findings regarding peer-directed feedback indicate mixed and even conflicting responses. Indeed some L2 teachers have already had an ambivalent attitude toward peer-directed feedback (Ferris, 2003). Thus on the one hand, it is argued that peer-directed feedback is beneficial for a number of reasons. Firstly, it helps students develop the necessary critical thinking skills to examine and revise their own writing.

Secondly, it promotes interactive learner participation and a genuine sense of audience in the writing classroom (Mendonça & Johnson, 1994). Thirdly, it offers a nonjudgmental learning environment in an authentic communicative context (Hyland, 2003).

The beneficial impact and effectiveness of peer-directed feedback have been substantiated by a number of empirical studies (Min, 2006; Paulus, 1999; Tsui & Maria, 2000). It has been claimed that peer readers can provide useful feedback and that writers can and do revise effectively relying on feedback from peer readers. Peer-directed feedback can be seen as complementary to teacher feedback. In addition, by critically reading the work of others, students could become more critical readers and revisers of their own writings. For example, Mo (2005) conducts an experimental study to investigate the feasibility of organizing peer review activities in Chinese classrooms and the effects that peer review might have on student revision. It was concluded that peer review was as effective as relying solely on teacher feedback. The students were reported to be willing to receive feedback from peers, and they were already capable of effective peer revision.

On the other hand, a number of studies have indicated conflicting responses regarding the effectiveness of peer-directed feedback. Some studies revealed that peer-directed feedback failed to induce much revision and did not lead to significant improvements in writing. For example, Miao et al., (2006) compare two groups of students who received feedback from their teacher and their peers respectively. Peer feedback was found to have less impact than teacher feedback because students incorporated less peer feedback than teacher feedback in revisions. Thus less improvement occurred than would have been possible. However, despite its reduced impact, peer feedback did encourage learner autonomy and complemented teacher feedback even in Chinese classrooms, which were seen very much as teacher-centered environments.

In general, instructional feedback provides students with informational or critical comments that either confirms what they already know or change their existing knowledge and beliefs. Higgins et al., (2002) note that meaningful feedback of good quality given at the right time helps students become cognitively engaged in the content under study as well as the context of learning. Researchers such as O'Brein (2004) believe that peer feedback is helpful in improving EFL/ESL writing by highlighting findings by other researchers that signify that learners still value peer-directed feedback even though they prefer teacher feedback. This view is further corroborated by Ferris (2003, p.133), who state that "in general, researchers have found that peer response is well received by student writers and that they enjoy the process".

In another study conducted by Jacobs et al., (1998) on EFL students from the University of Hong Kong, their findings revealed that 93% of the students preferred to have feedback from other students. One of the most important reasons for preferring feedback was that students were provided with more ideas as well as helped to identify problems they missed. In addition, Jacobs et al., (1998) pointed out that by engaging in peer-directed feedback, EFL students get to learn about each others problems and experiences and in this way it makes learning more meaningful and enjoyable. While another study conducted by Tsui and Ng (2000), into the effects of teacher and peer comments on secondary L2 learners in Hong Kong revealed that "some learners incorporated high percentages of both teacher and peer comments, some incorporated higher percentages of teacher comments than peer comments, and others incorporated very low

percentages of peer comments.” Those who favored teacher comments found peer comments not useful. Those who favored peer comments reported that they “enhance a sense of audience, raise learners’ awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses, encourage collaborative learning, and foster the ownership of text.” According to them, learners were able to “develop a sense of autonomy over their own writings”, and, the writing classroom is no longer one that gives absolute control to the teacher. The role of the teacher changed into “negotiating meaning and collaborating with learners to clarify and voice their thinking, emotions, and argumentation as well as in helping them to develop strategies for generating ideas, revising, and editing” (Tsui& Ng, 2000.p.168).

In the case of Abu-Jarad (2008), a study conducts in Al-Azhar University in Palestine comprising forty-seven EFL students at intermediate (Writing I) and advanced level (Writing II), reveal that the students felt an improvement in their writing, especially in the mechanical aspects of writing. Additionally, the advanced level students were more positive about peer-directed feed back in the areas compared to the intermediate level students. The researcher concludes that positive response to peer-directed feedback increases in line with increasing level of proficiency. While a study conducts by Kurt and Atay (2007) on Turkish EFL students conclude that students benefited from the peer feedback process as their friends ‘picked out the mistakes’ they were not aware of, gave them ‘opinions to elaborate on’ in their essays, and ‘helped them look at their essays from a different perspective’. There were others who indicated that many things came to mind when they were discussing their own essays with their friends. They enjoyed participating in peer feedback sessions. Moreover, as they were discussing their paper with their friends, they felt ‘free’, ‘less anxious’ and ‘self-confident’, in discussing their point of view.

In a most recent study, Farrah (2012) investigates students’ attitudes towards peer feedback in process writing classes in addition to assessing the effectiveness of this teaching technique, the findings reveal that students viewed peer feedback as a worthwhile experience as it offered an opportunity for social interaction. It also improved students’ writing skills and hence the quality of their writing. Furthermore, the technique enhanced students’ critical thinking, confidence, creativity, and motivation.

Teacher-directed feedback

Teacher-directed feedback involves a teacher editing a student’s writing by correcting errors, giving comments and grading the work. This type of feedback is usually the most traditional method for responding to students’ writings that is often used in many L2 writing classes (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). According to Hong (2006), L2 students prefer this feedback most probably because of the teacher’s level of proficiency. As such they have great confidence in it. Ferris and Roberts (2001) have confirmed the notion where L2 student writers found teacher feedback significantly more preferable than either peer or self-directed feedback. Furthermore, in an EFL context where most students are of low proficiency, it is only natural that feedback from the more proficient teacher is considered suitable.

There are two types of teacher feedback, namely, conferencing feedback and written feedback. Conferencing feedback is face-to-face communication between teachers and students. There are some advantages and disadvantages to this method. Hyland (2003) states that face-to-face communication between teachers and students enables students to discuss their writing with

their teachers, it is also the case that it does not necessarily benefit the students as some of them may be intimidated by the personal attention given by the teacher in such a situation. Similarly, Charles (1990.p. 287) voices his reservation when he argues while for face-to-face conferencing may be the ideal method, in practice it may not be the real solution because "...the problem for most students in most institutions is that the time is simply not available for this kind of individual editorial discussion". As Ferris, (2007) notes, usually an EFL class has too many students to make such a method practicable as it would use up too much of the lesson time. In addition, while the conferencing is in progress, other students may feel bored or have no idea as to what they should actually be doing. Hence, this method is most probably unsuitable in a writing process class with a large number of students. In other words, conferencing is definitely not an effective form of feedback for students, especially in an EFL context, where there are a large number of low proficiency students and not enough lesson time to ensure that all of them are given equal opportunity to receive and participate in feedback conferencing.

In contrast with oral conferencing, the well known traditional written feedback has some obvious advantages in an EFL/ESL context. Written feedback may include comments, praises, and suggestions to inform students pertaining to how well they have written a piece of work. The teacher will also rectify, mark or identify surface level errors for the attention of students (Chandler, 2004). The significant advantage of this traditional method is that it is less forgettable since it is written down and students can access it time and again, making this method especially suitable for L2 learners with limited language proficiency that have difficulty remembering oral feedback (Arndt, 1993). In addition, written feedback is usually only for the attention of the individual student. Thus, when negative comments are given, the particular student will not feel so embarrassed as compared to conferencing feedback. Also the teacher can ask the student to read aloud positive comments not only to share with the class but also as a reward for good work. Another advantage of teacher written feedback is that as Muncie (2000) points out, students can make good use of teacher feedback, even if it is given in the final draft, to produce a summary of all the feedback given which would act as a personal reference manual for a student to help him/her to produce better quality writing. By creating personal reference manual based on teacher written feedback, students can selectively use teacher feedback with a greater degree of freedom.

All the advantages highlighted above explains why teacher written feedback can be the most appropriate method of feedback and as such the most widely used method to evaluate student writing and hence assist them to produce better writing in an EFL context. Another positive value of written feedback is that it can motivate students to continuously revise their draft which will surely help them to improve their writing.

However, there are problems with this method too. For example, some students ignore teacher feedback because they are only interested in the final grade. Thus, they will not spend time on reading and learning from the teacher's feedback. In other words, teacher written feedback is not considered as a source to improve their written work. Consequently, students who are not motivated to learn from error treatment are unable to learn from their mistakes.

Effects of teacher feedback

A number of studies have been conducted from various perspectives regarding teacher feedback on student writing in ESL and EFL classrooms. Among these studies, is a particularly insightful one conducted by Connors and Lunsford, (1993). This study as cited in Stern and Solomon (2006) analyzed examples of the top twenty error patterns teachers commented on in college essays from a randomly selected (3,000) samples out of (21,000) essays. The study revealed that many of the teachers' comments were global and rhetorical comments rather than local comments. The teachers usually started with positive remarks with reference to some elements of a paper and ended with negative comments or vice versa. It was reported that most of the comments were usually judgments to explain or justify the grades given by the respective teachers. As such the comments were written in tandem with the grades scored where higher scores were given positive comments while lower scores received less favorable comments. Some of the worst grades even received negatively critical judgments which indicated the teacher's disappointment.

In another study investigating the nature of teacher response to student writing, Zamel (1985) discovered a similarity between L1 writing teachers and ESL writing teachers in the way they responded to the texts written by their students. In this study, the researcher assumed that teachers' attitudes toward writing exerted a major influence on their evaluation of the student writings. The researcher analyzed the responding behaviors of (15) ESL teachers in relation to (105) texts, and examined each teacher's response to three or more student compositions. The study found that contrary to the numerous findings related to the process approach, most teachers only concentrated on the surface level features of writing and error identification with little regard for the discourse features. By emphasizing the language-related local problems the teachers ignored the fact the compositions were drafts and not final products and as such did not assess the writing as an ongoing process (Zamel, 1985). This resulted in treating and evaluating them the compositions in a product oriented approach even though they had meant to employ the process oriented approach.

The impact of both peer and teacher feedback on student writing is the main focus of a study conducted by Paulus (1999). The researcher analyzed the first and final drafts of (11) ESL students and student verbal reports during revisions based on Faigley and Witte's taxonomy of revisions (1981, as cited in Paulus, 1999) to classify the type and the source of the revisions into whether they were surface changes or meaning changes. The study discovered that both peer and teacher feedback helped students in their revision processes. It was also found that when left on their own, the students made most of their own revisions at the surface-level. In contrast, at the peer and teacher feedback level, the changes mostly occurred at the meaning-level.

The relationship between different types of error feedback and their impact on the improvement of accuracy and fluency of student compositions was the focus of a study conducted by Chandler (2003). Thirty-one ESL students participated in this experimental study of which (16) made up the control group and (15) the experimental group. Although, both groups received the same treatment and error feedback from the same teacher, the study discovered that there was a difference between the revision processes of each group. The results of the study revealed that the experimental group increased the accuracy in their writings on first drafts over the semester as compared to the control group. The control group who were instructed against

doing corrections based on their teacher's feedback did not show any significant progress in their writing accuracy. The findings illustrate the importance and benefit of giving immediate feedback to students.

In this regard, it is instructive to note that most teachers in EFL/ESL classrooms tend to spend more time and interact in more positive and supportive ways with students who are high achievers students rather than with low achievers. It comes as no surprise, therefore, that these teachers would often ignore the comments of low achievers compared to those of high achievers. This in turn, may have a negative impact on students' confidence and self-worth and make them feel inferior to others. This feeling of superiority or inferiority can produce the immediate effects of anger and apprehension in most students. To prevent this happening, teachers must provide supportive and constructive feedback to all students, regardless of proficiency level in order that students feel good about what they are doing or have done. This will help create a good relationship between teachers and students and in turn reduce a student's apprehension or worries towards the process of writing itself. If teachers treat their all their students in equally supportive ways, then positive outcome is that students would be more receptive and willing to make use of teacher feedback in revising their drafts.

Research methodology

Research questions

The following research questions are formulated to achieve the objectives of this study:

1. How do English language major students at Jerash University perceive their teachers' written feedback on their written texts?
2. How does the teachers' written feedback affect students writing processes?

Participants of the study

Twenty third year students taking the B.A English Language program at Jerash University in Jordan for the academic year 2014/ 2015 were randomly selected from a total of 55 students for this study. Of this number 13 were females and seven were males and they had just completed all their basic writing courses. It should be noted that the rationale for selecting them is premised on the fact that they have completed their English language compulsory writing courses. Thus, their experiences and suggestions would be a significant source to further improve the courses for future students of EFL.

Data collection and analysis

The research instrument used in this study was semi-structured interview. Unlike the quantitative method of using questionnaires, semi-structured interview instrument represent methods where data is collected through direct interaction between the respondents and the researcher (Creswell, 2009). The semi-structured interview involved 20 EFL students because it was used to obtain information pertaining to their perceptions and opinions on how they perceive their teachers' written feedback on their written texts.

There are three advantages to using semi-structured interviews as a research tool. Firstly, the interviewer has better control of the interview situation. Secondly, there is greater flexibility and thirdly, the response rate is higher. Nunan (1992, p. 149) expresses it as follows: "in a semi-structured interview the interviewer has a general idea what he or she wants to

interview with a list of predetermined questions, topics and issues rather than questions determined during the course of the interviews”.

According to Singleton and Straits (2002), it is possible to schedule and construct the items in a semi-structured interview so that they facilitate the collection of essential data and information. Thus, in this study, the items were carefully constructed so as to obtain relevant and reliable responses to find answers to the research questions and in turn solutions to the problems. In this regard, the interview questions for this study were constructed with the objective of discovering the 20 EFL students perceived their teachers' written feedback on their written texts. In addition, the overall design and organization of the interview items and questions were also given due attention.

Data analysis

The analysis of the interviews that were conducted with the respondents in this study was qualitative in nature and hence subjective. Thus it was necessary for the researcher to structure the data in order to facilitate the analysis in a systematic way. Bearing this in mind the analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data were conducted following a sequence of processes based on content analysis.

The actual process of effectively analyzing the qualitative data had to be done in a sequential manner. As Wiersma and Jurs (2005) affirm, in general, a qualitative research is a sequence of processes toward an accurate description or interpretation of the phenomenon accordingly. Following Gay & Airasian, (2003), the process of analyzing the interviews was done firstly, by transcribing, then segmenting the transcripts followed by coding of the segments and finally categorizing the codes. It should be noted that coding and categorizing the segments were done simultaneously to ensure that the transcripts were categorized into the appropriate units according to the established codes.

Thus firstly, following Maxwell (2005), data collected from semi-structured interviews was transcribed literally on paper before being downloaded on computer using Microsoft Office Word Software. In doing so, no changes were made to the respondents' actual sentences, phrases, and words. Although most of semi-structured interviews were in the English language, sometimes the respondents used Arabic in order to explain clearly what they meant. In such cases, the researcher translated their responses into English language.

Then, the researcher segmented the information into smaller units and in doing so, the researcher tried as best to make sure that readers could understand the information too. Besides, the process of segmenting the transcribed data from the semi-instructed interviews followed a bracketing procedure whereby data that contained areas of interest and significance and which were directly related to the interviews questions were highlighted. In the case of transcripts of interviews, they were segmented into smaller units and subsequently categorized generally.

Finally, the researcher coded the segmented units; Neuman (2003) view that the process of coding segmented qualitative data should be simultaneously carried out in terms of reducing the data as well as categorizing the data under broad themes so that the resulting data can be coded into fewer and larger categories that are easier to manage and analyze. Thus, by coding data in terms or larger categories, it is easier for a researcher to analyze the data from a broader

perspective of analysis. Thus in this study, the researcher coded all segments of the interview under broad categories in accordance with the research objectives.

Findings

Students' attitude reactions to teachers' written feedback

The aforementioned twenty English language major students showed different types of attitude reactions toward written feedback they received from their teachers varying from positive attitude reactions to negative ones. The results of this study indicate that the students responded effectively and they had a very high level of attention to teachers' written feedback. The majority of the participants perceived teachers' written feedback as tools to know their weakness in writing. For example, Ahmad respected the teacher comments, saying:

"I would like to thanks my doctor for his comment, all the time he give me a good comments on how to write the word and sentence and make connection between the paragraphs"

A second positive attitude reaction to teachers' written feedback showed that students were being happy and glad. The participants showed their happiness when perceived their teachers' comments praised their written drafts. For example, Ahlam and Ali appreciated the teacher comments, saying:

"sometimes doctor write on my essay very good, good, I'm very happy for this comments and this encourage me and help me to write in good way"

"sometime doctor comment on my essays as good, your idea is very good, organization of paragraphs very good... I'm happy to read this comments because it support me"

"you know.. when doctor evaluate and mark my essay he always wrote good title and sometimes he wrote great job..this comments I feel it is very important for students who write in English language"

To sum up, the majority of the student revealed that they felt satisfied with their teachers' written feedback and they expressed their liking of the teachers' written feedback. However, some students expressed their negative attitude reactions towards types of written feedback. For example, Mua'taz stated that:

"doctor wrote many comments on my essay.. I can't read what he wrote and understand what I should correct"

The first negative attitude reactions towards teachers' written feedback were "dislike". Some students could not understand written feedback provided to them by their teachers and resulted in their negative attitude reactions. Another example from Ahmad stated that:

" when doctor evaluate my essay he wrote many comments ...I cant read it or what he meant ..his writing way like doctor in the hospital when he write prescription"

Besides, other students revealed that they "deny" some written feedback because they think that teachers evaluate randomly and they have confused criteria for evaluation. When Amal and Ali were asked about their reaction to the written feedback, they replied:

"I feel that my essay is very good because I do my best in wrote it... I can't imagine that teacher wrote on it poor writing or no connection between the ideas"

"teacher sometimes evaluate my essay word by word and focus on spelling but with other students he focus on organization of the essays... we don't know what teacher interested in or what criteria he follow to evaluate our essay"

"Disappointed" is another negative reaction that the student showed in this study. Some students mentioned some situation in which they felt disappointed when they read teacher written feedback. For example, Mohammad and Sara declared that:

"when I read the teacher comments I imagine that I need to take another 5 to 6 course in English write to become good writer in English language"

"I read the comment ... all time he wrote in my essay and ask are you sure this is your language?"

On the whole, some students felt disappointed when they read teachers comments. In their opinion, the practice of highlighting their errors and giving them a lot comments and less encouraging comments caused feeling of disappointed.

The effect of teachers' written feedback on students writing processes

The qualitative data showed that the written feedback have a superior persuade on students' writing process development of Jordanian EFL students. Besides, the majority of students considered written feedback learning tool. In this regards, Hamza and Shahid said:

"Sometimes doctor wrote useful comments on my essay about how to organize and how to punctuate my essay.. it help me a lot because text essay I will take this comment into my consideration"

"when we practice writing in the class doctor randomly read some essay and write some feedback such as who to make connection between title and introduction and how to make and write the conclusion"

Moreover, the data revealed that the participants perceived teachers' written feedback to be useful for them in their writing processes. Doa'a and Nader commented:

"yes, it is very helpful for me it allow me to improve my writing."

"doctor comments make my English writing more professional by the time because he give a good comments and I make and correct my second draft based on his corrections"

Students also reported that teacher written feedback helped them to clarify and simplify their idea and to avoid future mistakes. Barakat and Abdullah commented:

"sometimes doctor comment on my essay as how to make the sentence and paragraph more simple and don't write in ambiguity way"

"doctor comments help me a lot in writing he all time wrote a comments on how to use present tense and the differences between it and simple past and he always wrote comment to make connection between sentences in each paragraph"

Moreover, interview results showed that students also considered teachers' written feedback as helpful to improve their ideas, content, and organization. For example, Rawan and Zainab remarked:

"when we finish first draft doctor write to us some useful comments such as to organize our essay and to write and explain more and sometimes he asked to support our idea with example"

"doctor interested in the idea he ask us to write to read our mined and on how we think, so he encourage us to focus on idea and when we write he make useful comment to enhance our content with good vocabulary"

Surprising, the majority of the students revealed that it was important to them received feedback before they started writing. Amera and Somaiaa for example responded:

"doctor ask us to make group and each group corporate to write essays and doctor discuss the topic and he give us a good comment about how we start to write"

"usually we discuss the topic with the doctor before we start to write he give us some suggestion about how we can enhance our idea more and make it understandable"

The qualitative data also showed that the teachers written feedback can enhanced their grammar and vocabulary improvement. Hassan and Irshaid expressed their reasons in the interview:

"Doctor all the time comment on our grammar mistake and he wrote to us how to choose good words I think this is very important for us for learn more English language and improve our writing processes".

"As you know most the time when we write we think in our native language Arabic language but when we translate it to English language it become wrong word sometimes, so doctor comment and feedback help us a lot to choose suitable words".

Discussion

The present study mainly aimed at identifying and investigating how do English language major students at Jerash University perceive their teachers' written feedback on their written texts. Another focus of the study was to find out how teachers' written feedback was regarded as helpful by students for their writing processes.

The first research question in this study focused on English language major at Jerash University students' attitude reactions to their teachers' written feedback. The results of the study revealed that English language major students at Jerash University varying in their attitude towards the written comments given by their teachers. Jordanian EFL students sometimes reject teachers' written feedback because it is unclear for them. In some cases the students revealed "deny" to some written feedback because they think that teachers evaluate randomly and they have confused criteria for evaluation. Moreover, students feel disappointed toward some teachers' written feedback because, in their opinion, their teachers give them a great deal of critical comments and less encouraging comments.

On the other hand, student positive attitude reactions, such as happy, glad and fulfilled of their teachers' written feedback. The majority of the participants perceived teachers' written feedback as tools to know their weakness in writing, besides, they had a very high level of interest in teachers' written feedback. Ellis (2009) suggested and highlighted that positive feedback supports the learner and fosters motivation to write more and better.

The second research question focused on investigating how teachers' written feedback was regarded and considered as helpful and as learning tool by students for their writing processes. The results showed that Jordanian EFL student perceived teachers' written feedback to be useful for them in their writing processes. Students also reported that teacher written feedback helped them to clarify and simplify their ideas and to avoid future mistakes. Similar to the findings of studies on ESL contexts (e.g., Srichanyachon, 2012; Ferris, 2003; Lee, 2005; Ellis, 2009) the results showed that students also considered teachers' written feedback helpful in improving their ideas, content, and organization and enhanced their grammar and vocabulary usage.

Conclusion

This study has provided evidence that students attitude towards teachers' written feedback do have an effect on writing process and the quality of written work produced by Jordanian EFL students. Besides, this study concluded that teachers' written feedback have a twin effect: the first one was improving and orientating students' revision skills and correcting their writing mechanisms, and the second was enhancing the Jordanian EFL students' overall writing quality while doing a different draft of the same essay and composition. Consequently, Jordanian EFL teachers are encouraged to promote confidence and a positive attitude amongst students and in doing so, their comments should be worded in diplomatic, easy terms and encouraging. They should as far as possible avoid making negative comments. In such way, teachers would be able to motivate their students to write better and to reap good products.

About the Author:

Dr. Abdullah Musa Al-Sawalha has a PhD in Applied Linguistics and English Studies from Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). He is currently an assistant professor of Applied Linguistics at Jerash University, Jordan. His research interests are Sociolinguistics, ESP, methodologies and practices in the teaching of English, especially in the areas of writing.

References:

- Abu- Jarad, A.M. (2008). Palestinian EFL Intermediate and Advanced Learners Perceptions about Peer Feedback in Writing Classes. *Journal of Al Azhar University- Gaza, Humanities Sciences*. 10 (1)-B
- Arndt, V. (1993). Response to writing: Using feedback to inform the writing process. In M. Brock & L. Walters (Eds.), *Writing around the Pacific Rim* (pp. 90-114). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 267-296.
- Chandler, J. (2004). A response to Truscott. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13, 345-348.
- Charles, M. (1990). Responding to problems in writing English using a student-monitoring technique. *ELT Journal*, 44, 286-293.
- Edge, J. (1989). *Mistakes and correction*. London: Longman.
- Ellis, R. (2009a). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, 1(1): 3-18.

- Farrah, M. (2012). The Impact of Peer Feedback on Improving the Writing skills among Hebron University Students. *An - Najah Univ. J. Res. (Humanities)* 26. (1).
- Ferris, D. (2007). Preparing teachers to respond to student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 165-193
- Ferris, D. (2003). Responding to writing. In Kroll, B. (Ed.) *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing* (119 – 140). Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
- Ferris, D. (2002). *Treatment of error in second language student writing*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Ferris, D., & Roberts, B. (2001). Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be? . *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10, 161-184.
- Gay, L. R., & Airasian, P. (2003). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application (7th ed.)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Hong, (2006). Students perceptions of peer response activity in English writing instruction. *CELEA Journal*. 29. (4)-48-52
- Higgins, R., P. Hartley, and A. Skelton. (2002). The conscientious consumer: Reconsidering the role of assessment feedback in student learning. *Studies in Higher Education* 27:53-64.
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). Feedback on second language students' writing. *Language Teaching*, 39, 83–101.
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jacobs, G.M., Curtis, A., Braine, G& Huang, S. (1998). Feedback on student writing: Taking the middle path. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7, 307-317
- Kamimura, T. (2006). Effects of peer feedback on EFL student writers at different levels of English proficiency: A Japanese context. *TESL Canada Journal/ Revue TESL*, 28(2), 12-39.
- Keh, C. L. (1996). Feedback in the writing process: a model and methods for implementation. In Hedge, T. and Whitney, N. (eds). *Power, Practice and Pedagogy*(pp. 271-282). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kurt, G. & Atay, D. (2007). The effects of peer feedback on the writing anxiety of prospective Turkish teachers of ESL. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, 3(1), 12-23.
- Lee, I. (2005). Error correction in the L2 writing classroom: What do students think? *TESL Canada Journal*, 22(2), 1–16.
- Makino, T. Y. (1993). Learner self-correction in EFL written compositions. *ELT Journal* 47.4, 337-341.
- Maxwell, J. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mendonça C. O., & K. E. Johnson (1994). Peer review negotiations: Revision activities inESL writing instruction, *TESOL Quarterly*. 28, 4,745-769.
- Miao et al., (2006) Miao, Y., Richard, B. & Yu, Z. (2006). A comparative study of peer and teacher feedback in a Chinese EFL writing class. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15, 179-200.
- Min, H.T. (2006). The effects of trained peer review on EFL students' revision types and writing quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15, 118-141.
- Mo, J. H. (2005). An exploratory study of conducting peer review among Chinese college students. *Teaching English in China*, 6, 43-48
- Muncie, J. (2000). Using written teacher feedback in EFL composition classes. *ELT Journal*, 54 (1), 47-53.

- Neuman, W.L. (2003). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Fifth edition. Allyn and Bacon. Boston. Massachusetts.
- O'Brein, T. (2004). *Writing in a foreign language: teaching and learning*. Cambridge University Press
- Paulus, T. (1999). The effect of peer and teacher feedback on student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(3), 265-289.
- Singleton, R. A., & Straits, B. C. (2002). Survey interviewing. In, J. F. Gubrium & J.A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research*. Context and method (pp. 59-82). Thousand Oaks California/London: Sage Publications.
- Srichanyachon, N. (2012). An investigation of university EFL students' attitudes toward peer and teacher feedback, *Educational Research and Reviews*, 7(26), 558-562.
- Stern, A & Solomon, A. (2006). Effective faculty feedback: The road less traveled. *Assessing Writing*, 11, 22-41
- Tsui, A. B. M., & Ng, Maria. (2000). Do secondary L2 writers benefit from peer comments? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(2), 147-170.
- Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2005). *Research methods in education: An introduction* (8th ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.
- Wiltse, E., M. . (2002). Correlates of college students' use of instructors' comments. *Journalism & Mass Communication Educator*, 57(2), 126.
- Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(1).

EFL Saudi Undergraduate Students' Use of Metacognitive Listening Strategies

Nasrin Altuwairesh

College of Languages & Translation

King Saud University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

The main intent of the present study is to investigate the metacognitive listening strategies used by female Saudi students at the College of Languages & Translation (henceforth COLT) at King Saud University (henceforth KSU) in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, when listening to texts in English. Two main research questions have been explored in the study: (1) Which of the five major types of metacognitive strategies do the participants use most when listening to English texts? and (2) What are the metacognitive listening strategies used most by the target group when listening to English texts? The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire has been used to arrive at answers to the two research questions. Participants are 82 students from the same cohort. Results indicate that the participants (N=82) use problem-solving and directed attention strategies more commonly than the other metacognitive listening strategies; mental translation and person knowledge strategies are the least used by the participants.

Keywords: EFL listening, learning strategies, metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (MALQ), Saudi female university students

Introduction

Listening is a language skill that has long been neglected and undervalued by both teachers and researchers (Field, 2008, p. 1; Oxford, 1993, p. 205). The “*Cinderella*” of the four language skills has been treated as a secondary skill and as a means to an end, rather than an end in itself (Nunan, 2002, p. 238). “Until recently,” Richards and Renandya (2002) believe, “the nature of listening in a second language was ignored by applied linguists” (p.235). The contention among researchers nowadays, Graham (2003) says, is “that listening in a foreign language is a complex but underestimated skill” (p. 64). In the past, listening was believed to be “a passive activity, meriting little classroom attention” (Vandergrift, 2004, p. 3). It was not until the 1960s, which witnessed emphasis on oral language skills, that listening was given a boost (Nunan, 2002, p. 238). However, Rost (2001) states that “since 1980, listening has been viewed as a primary vehicle for language learning” (p. 8).

One justification for the downgrade of listening, according to Field (2008), “is the difficulty of teaching it” (p.1). He explains that listening is a skill that takes place in the “hidden reaches of the learner's mind.” Furthermore, it is not tangible compared to the skills of speaking and writing, nor is a listening text “easily manipulated like a reading one” (Field, 2008, p. 1). These factors shed light on the complex nature of listening comprehension and explain, to some extent, why it has long been overlooked by researchers and classroom teachers. It also explains why, as Field believes, students consider “listening as the area about which they feel most insecure” (p. 4). This particular reason motivated the researcher to look for ways to help students feel more confident when listening in English. As Vandergrift (2007) explains “research into L2 listening is important because a better understanding of the process will inform pedagogy” (p. 191). The reason why the focus of this study is particularly on metacognitive listening strategies, rather than any other type of strategies, is that this group is believed to play a vital role in facilitating language learning, for they “oversee, regulate, or direct the language learning process” (Vandergrift, 1999, p. 170).

Listening Processes

Vandergrift (2004) believes that “listening instruction is expanding from a focus on the product of listening (listening to learn) to include a focus on the process (learning to listen)” (p.3). He further explains that learners need to *learn to listen* in order to be able to *listen to learn*. Researchers distinguish between bottom-up and top-down processes, which, are “sometimes associated loosely with 'decoding' and 'meaning building’” (Field, 2008, p. 132). According to Buck (2001), the two terms are used to refer to the order of the different types of knowledge a listener applies during comprehension (p. 2). Field (2004) says that they “mark a distinction between information derived from perceptual sources and information derived from contextual ones” (p. 364). Lynch (2006) also explains that these two processes are “the conventional way of describing the use made of the internal and external resources available to listener” (p. 92). Rost (2006) also argues that these two areas have a direct impact on L2 listening instruction (p. 65), hence it becomes important for teachers to make sense of these processes.

Lynch and Mendelsohn (2002) explain that bottom-up processing “involves piecing together the parts of what is being heard in a linear fashion, one by one, in sequence” (p. 197). This process, Nunan (2002) states, is a linear one in a sense that “meaning itself is derived as the last step in the process” (p. 239). However, Field (2008) argues that “because listening is online,

we cannot assume that there is an easy 'bottom-up' progression from sounds to syllables to words to phrases" (p. 132).

On the other hand, top-down processing, Lynch and Mendelsohn (2002) say "is in some ways the converse of bottom-up" (p. 197). It is, they say, "holistic, going from whole to part, and focused on interpretation of meaning rather than recognition of sounds, words and sentences" (p.197). In top-down processing, Nunan (2002) explains, "the listener actively constructs (or, more accurately, reconstructs) the original meaning of the speaker using incoming sounds as clues" (p. 239). Here, Lynch (2006) says, listeners rely on what is already known to help make sense of what is heard (p. 93). However, Field (2008) notes that context here can serve one of two very different purposes: either to "compensate for gaps in understanding or to enrich a fully decoded message" (p. 132).

Nevertheless, "both research and daily experience," Buck (2001) says, "indicate that the processing of the different types of knowledge does not occur in a fixed sequence, but rather, that different types of processing may occur simultaneously, or in any convenient order" (p. 2). "A competent listener," Lynch and Mendelsohn (2002) explain, "uses both of these kinds of processes in order to fully comprehend spoken language" (p. 197). Yet, Vandergrift (2004) believes that "the degree to which listeners may use one process more than another will depend on the purpose for listening" (p. 4). In terms of teaching, Lynch (2006) argues that "listening skills teachers should not regard the approaches as mutually exclusive but as essentially complementary" (p. 92). He also states that "efficient listening involves the integration of whatever top and bottom information the listener is able to exploit" (p. 104). Hence, listening teachers should encourage their learners to use both approaches in an interactive way.

Language Learning Strategies

Research indicates that effective learners make use of learning strategies more often and they even have a wider repertoire of strategies when compared to their less effective peers (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). According to Rost (2002), the two terms 'strategy' and 'learning strategy' have been used in the literature of applied linguistics in various senses. He further explains that these two terms have been used to refer to "a range of goal-directed plans and behaviors and have encompassed all 'thoughts and actions that assist learning'" (p. 154). Learning strategies are more precisely defined as "mental processes that are activated in order to understand new information that is ambiguous or to learn or retain new information" (O'Malley et al., 1989, p. 422). What characterizes learning strategies, O'Malley et al. state (1989), is that they are "are conscious and they are intended to enhance comprehension, learning, or retention" (p. 422). However, even though learning strategies have been under investigation for some time now, "what learner strategies actually are," Macaro (2001) believes, "has been difficult to define at an international level and with full consensus" (p. 18).

Rost (2002) notes that "the most widely agreed-upon classes of language use strategies" are social, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies (p. 154). This is the classification adopted in this paper, for as O'Malley and Chamot (1990) explain "the classification scheme based on a division of learning strategies into three categories . . . is useful in describing the strategies derived from both retrospective and think-aloud interviews" (p. 144). Yet, one problem with such classification is that "a learner's use of what is ostensibly a single strategy may actually

represent a continual shifting or 'dance' from one of these categories to another" (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002, p. 181).

Vandergrift (1999) states that learning strategies "are useful tools for students because they open up more reliable and less frustrating routes to language learning success" (p. 174). Chamot (2005) believes that the importance of learning strategies in second language learning and teaching is due to two reasons: one is that investigating the strategies used by second language learners during the language learning process helps gain insight into the various processes involved in language learning. The other reason is that by identifying the strategies used by successful second language learners, less successful ones can be inspired with and taught new strategies which will help them become better language learners (p.112). Nonetheless, to fulfill the aim of this paper, the focus of the following part will be merely on one type of learning strategies, i.e. metacognitive strategies.

Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognition, according to Vandergrift et al. (2006), is "a construct that refers to thinking about one's thinking or the human ability to be conscious of one's mental processes" (pp. 432-433). The term was first coined by Flavell in the 1970s and refers to "an individual's awareness of thinking and learning" (Goh, 2008, p. 192). "Metacognition," Chamot (2005) says, "is believed to involve both declarative (self-knowledge, world knowledge, task knowledge, strategy knowledge) and procedural knowledge (planning for learning, monitoring a learning task while it is in progress, and evaluating learning once a task has been completed)" (p. 124). Evidence indicates that metacognition is one significant contributor to variance in L2 listening (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 205).

Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) note that metacognitive strategies refer to "those processes which learners consciously use in order to supervise or manage their language learning," which "allow learners to control their own cognition by planning what they will do, checking how it is going and then evaluating how it went" (p. 181). Oxford (2001) says that this type of strategies helps learners "manage themselves as learners, the general learning process, and specific learning tasks" (p. 167). Since metacognitive strategies are related to such essential variables in learning, i.e. the learner, learning in general and particular learning tasks, it becomes evident why researchers argue for the importance of investigating this type of strategies. Furthermore, investing classroom time in them enables language teachers to equip their students with 'empowering' tools (Anderson, 2002). Anderson (2002) elaborates on this point by stating that "the use of metacognitive strategies ignites one's thinking and can lead to more profound learning and improved performance, especially among learners who are struggling" (p. 2), all of which are aims of any language teacher and learner as well.

Anderson (2002) identifies five major components metacognitive strategies are composed of, which include "preparing and planning for learning, selecting and using learning strategies, monitoring strategy use, orchestrating various strategies and evaluating strategy use and learning" (p. 1). This relates to some extent to the declarative and procedural knowledge involved in metacognition, mentioned by Chamot (2005), in which planning, monitoring and evaluating forms the procedural knowledge, whereas selecting, using and orchestrating strategies form part of the declarative knowledge. However, researchers in the area classify metacognitive

strategies into three main groups: planning, monitoring and evaluation (Rost, 2002, p. 156; Goh, 2008, p. 198). Under each main group, a number of sub-categories belong: planning includes advanced organization, directed attention, selective attention, and self-management; monitoring includes comprehension monitoring, auditory monitoring, and task monitoring; evaluation has under it performance evaluation and problem identification.

Studies on Metacognitive Listening Strategies

Among the first studies carried out in the field of L2 listening is one by O'Malley, Chamot and Küpper (1989) who attempted to identify listening strategies used by 11 intermediate level high-school-age students while performing a listening task through the use of a think-aloud procedure. The researchers gathered information from both effective and ineffective listeners as an attempt to identify differences in the degree and character of learning strategy use between these two groups of learners. They also tried to examine the different phases of listening comprehension and the types of strategies used in each phase. Results of the study demonstrate a picture of listening comprehension "consistent with the depiction of general comprehension processes in the cognitive literature" (p.434). The study also indicates that strategies students use vary depending on the phase in the listening comprehension process. In the perceptual processing stage, learners use selective attention and self-monitoring; in the parsing stage, grouping and inferencing are used while during utilization, students use elaboration. Another result of the study is that effective listeners used strategies more successfully than ineffective ones.

On the other hand, a study by Vandergrift (2003) investigates the listening strategy applications of 36 grade 7 students learning French. The study looks into the types of strategies used and the differences in strategy use between more skilled and less skilled listeners. The study uses think-aloud protocols in which the subjects had to listen to a text in French and verbalize their thoughts while listening. Results indicate that participants used all types of metacognitive strategies recognized in the literature, including: planning strategies, monitoring strategies and problem identification strategies. The only type not used was evaluation strategies. The results also indicate that more skilled listeners used metacognitive strategies more frequently than less skilled listeners. Furthermore, less skilled listeners seemed to engage more in on-line translating, which is a bottom-up approach to listening.

Goh and Taib (2006) conducted a small-scale study on 10 primary school pupils regarding the effect metacognitive instruction has on listening. One of the main aims of the study was to elicit and identify the subjects' metacognitive knowledge about listening in English. Learners were asked about the factors that influenced their listening. They were also required to observe how they had tried to understand the listening input. By doing this, the researchers aimed at examining the subjects' task knowledge and strategy knowledge respectively, which are two types of metacognitive knowledge. The study demonstrates that the four most commonly reported strategies are planning, directed attention, selective attention and inferencing, which is regarded as a cognitive strategy. Results of the study also show that the participants had limited knowledge of comprehension strategies. However, comparing the pupils' scores on listening tests before and after receiving metacognitive instruction, all but one pupil showed improvement in the second round of testing. The authors further conclude that "metacognitive instruction also

reduces language anxiety and builds confidence when approaching listening tasks” (2006, p. 230).

Research Design

According to Vandergrift et al. (2006), among the various procedures used to elicit learners' metacognitive knowledge about listening, the most commonly used are diaries, interviews and questionnaires (p. 436). However, Oxford (1996) states that “questionnaires are among the most efficient and comprehensive ways to assess frequency of language learning strategy use” (p. 25). Questionnaires have been widely used in studies on listening strategies like Goh (2002), Vandergrift (2005), and Vogely (1995). Hence, the instrument used to answer the two research questions of this study is a questionnaire adapted from Vandergrift et al. (2006).

Participants

Participants of the study were level four female Saudi students at COLT at KSU in Riyadh. They were all doing their bachelor's degree in English language and translation, and were taking their last listening course during their course of study, which is ten levels. The reason for targeting level four students, in particular, was that they were expected to have gained experience in the use of listening strategies through the listening courses they have already completed and, thus, be more articulate in that area. The questionnaire has been administered to around 84 students. All participants were around 19 -20 years old and their anticipated length of exposure to English ranged between 8 –14 years. They shared the same mother tongue, i.e. Arabic. Sharing the same mother tongue made it easier to administer the questionnaire in the participants' first language.

Research Questions

As previously mentioned, listening is an under-researched skill. This lack of research resulted in listening being “the least understood” despite it being “at the heart of language learning” (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 191). Goh (2008) explains that the focus of listening instruction since the 1990s has shifted towards “the use of listening strategies for enhancing comprehension and coping with problems” (p. 190). In particular, she states that “research into metacognitive awareness about listening is still relatively new” (p. 195). Hence, this study aimed at filling in a gap in this area, with the intent of answering the following research questions:

RQ1: Which of the five major types of metacognitive strategies do level four female Saudi students at COLT at KSU use most when listening to English texts?

RQ2: What are the metacognitive listening strategies used most by level four female Saudi students at COLT at KSU when listening to English texts?

Data Collection

The questionnaire used in this study is a translated version of the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (henceforth MALQ) developed and validated by Vandergrift et al. (2006). This questionnaire, according to the authors, is a “self-report measure for assessing L2 listeners' metacognitive awareness and use of strategies when listening to oral texts” (p. 438). The only change the researcher introduced to the questionnaire is the number of options participants have to choose from; the original is a six-point Likert scale, while the one used in

this study is a four-point Likert scale. Vandergrift et al. (2006) state that the purpose of using the instrument is what informed their decision in regards to this point. They explain that “the ultimate purpose of the instrument was to track development of metacognitive awareness for purposes of either self-assessment or research.” (p. 440). Tracking learners' development is clearly not the purpose behind this study; hence the researcher felt the need for change. A five-point Likert scale was not opted for in order not to give participants a chance to hedge.

Data Analysis

The cohort target group included 120 students, but the number of participants in this study was 84, which represents 70 percent of the total number of students and is the number the researcher was able to get hold of. The questionnaires were subject to inclusion & exclusion criteria (data treatment), of which (2) questionnaires were excluded for being totally incomplete. At the end, the total number of questionnaires that were fulfilling to be entered for SPSS analysis was 82, which represents a percentage of 91.11 percent of the total number of questionnaires distributed.

To summarize the metacognitive listening strategies of the whole target population, it would be informative to examine the frequencies of strategy use first according to the five factors identified by Vandergrift et al. (2006), i.e. problem-solving, person knowledge, mental translation, planning and evaluation and directed attention. The means and standard deviations of each factor were calculated in order to arrive at an answer to the first research question. Then the 21 items which the questionnaire is composed of were examined in terms of means and standard deviations in order to answer the second research question.

Results

RQ1: Which of the five major types of metacognitive strategies do level four female Saudi students at COLT at KSU use most when listening to English texts?

The participants report the use of problem solving and directed attention strategies more than the other types of metacognitive listening strategies. Another major finding related to this question is that mental translation and person knowledge strategies are the least metacognitive listening strategies used by the target group.

Regarding the individual strategies that belong under the problem-solving group (Table 1), item 5, which is *the use of known words to guess the meanings of unknown ones*, is the most commonly used strategy by the subjects ($M = 3.45$), with most participants (96.4%) on the agree side of the continuum. *Using the general idea of the text to guess the meaning of unknown words* is another strategy favored by the participants of the study ($M = 3.35$) with most subjects again on the positive side of the scale (93.9%). *Use of general knowledge and experience to help understand the text* is another strategy commonly used by the target group ($M = 3.26$). The remaining three strategies in this group did not show any significant means, which entails that not a large number of the target group favor the use of these strategies.

Table 1 Distribution of the target population according to problem-solving strategies, N=82

Items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Mean	Standard Deviation	Order
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%			
5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.	40	48.8	39	47.6	3	3.7	0	0.0	3.45	0.57	1
7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.	26	31.7	43	52.4	10	12.2	3	3.7	3.12	0.76	4
9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.	31	37.8	42	51.2	8	9.8	1	1.2	3.26	0.68	3
13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.	20	24.4	49	59.8	12	14.6	1	1.2	3.07	0.66	5
17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't.	34	41.5	43	52.4	5	6.1	0	0.0	3.35	0.60	2
19. When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense.	21	25.6	47	57.3	12	14.6	2	2.4	3.06	0.71	6
Total Arithmetic Mean	3.22										
Standard. Deviation	0.41										

As for directed attention strategies (Table 2), which is the second group of metacognitive strategies with the highest means, the use of *focusing harder on the text when having trouble understanding* (M= 3.54) is reported by almost all participants in the target group (98.8%). Another strategy commonly used by the target population is *trying to get back on track when losing concentration* (M=3.29), with most participants on the agree side of the continuum

(95.1%). Furthermore, participants also report the use of *recovering concentration when their minds wander while listening* ($M=3.02$). The only strategy in this group that is not commonly used by participants is *giving up when having difficulty listening* ($M=1.84$), with a very low mean compared to the other strategies in this group.

Table 2 Distribution of the target population according to the directed attention strategies, $N=82$

Items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Mean	Standard Deviation	Order
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%			
2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.	45	54.9	36	43.9	1	1.2	0	0.0	3.54	0.53	1
6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.	22	26.8	42	51.2	16	19.5	2	2.4	3.02	0.75	3
12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	28	34.1	50	61.0	4	4.9	0	0.0	3.29	0.56	2
16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening.	2	2.4	17	20.7	29	35.4	34	41.5	1.84	0.84	4
Total Arithmetic Mean	2.92										
Standard. Deviation	0.36										

RQ2: What are the metacognitive listening strategies used most by level four female Saudi students at COLT at KSU when listening to English texts?

Among the 21 items in the questionnaire which is used to investigate the metacognitive listening strategies of the target group, 13 items have been reported to be used more commonly than the other strategies by participants (see Appendix). Most participants agree on the use of *focusing harder on the text when having trouble understanding* ($M= 3.54$), *using known words to guess the meanings of unknown ones* ($M= 3.45$), *using the general idea of the text to guess the meaning of unknown words* ($M= 3.35$) and *trying to get back on track when losing concentration* ($M=3.29$). The target group also favor the use of strategies like: *using general knowledge and experience to help understand the text* ($M=3.26$), and *comparing what has been understood so far with what is known about the topic* ($M=3.12$). Many participants report *feeling that listening*

comprehension in English is a challenge for them (M=3.09), which is a type of person-knowledge strategy. Other strategies include: *thinking back after listening on how I have listened and what can be done differently next time* (M=3.09), *adjusting my interpretation while listening when realizing it is incorrect* (M=3.07), *thinking back on everything heard when guessing the meaning of a word* (M=3.06), *having a goal in mind while listening* (M=3.04), *recovering concentration when my mind wanders while listening* (M=3.02) and *having a plan in head before starting to listen* (M=2.89).

Discussion

The results of the study demonstrate that the participants (N=82) use problem-solving and directed attention strategies more commonly than the other metacognitive listening strategies; mental translation and person knowledge strategies are the least used by the participants. Another major finding is that among the 21 items that compose the MALQ, 13 items are used more commonly by the target population. Interestingly, most of these 13 items belong under the problem-solving and directed attention factors, which suggests some kind of correlation and harmony between the results of the two questions of the study.

In terms of the five groups, problem-solving strategies appear at the top of the pyramid and is the group of strategies most favored by participants. When strategies were compared individually to answer the second research question, all six strategies belonging under this factor have been reported among the most commonly used strategies by the target population. Most participants report making use of linguistic cues (N=79) and the general gist of the text (N=77) to deduce the meanings of unknown words. Another large sample of the population (N=73) report using their experience and schemata knowledge to help them understand the text.

Problem-solving, according to Vandergrift et al. (2006), “represents a group of strategies used by listeners to inference . . . and to monitor these inferences” (p. 450). Chamot and Küpper (1989, cited in Graham, 2003) reported that among their subjects, which were university level students of Russian, comprehension monitoring and problem identification strategies were more frequently used by effective listeners than ineffective ones. Both types of strategies are related to the factor of problem solving in the MALQ, for inferencing is the way students deal with words or ideas that might cause them some listening comprehension problems. In a study that investigated the listening strategies used by French L2 listeners, Vandergrift (1997) found that “comprehension monitoring appears to be the metacognitive strategy reported most often” (p. 396). Furthermore, Berne (2004) reviewed the findings of a number of studies that were concerned with differences between more and less-proficient listeners. In regards to problem-solving strategies, she concluded that more proficient listeners are able to “guess the meanings of words” and “relate what they hear to previous experiences” whereas less-proficient listeners “make fewer inferences” and “do not verify their assumptions” (p.525).

Directed attention, on the other hand, is the second group of metacognitive listening strategies most commonly used by the target population. Under this factor belongs four individual strategies, of which three have been reported to be commonly used by the participants when the 21 items of the MALQ were compared on an individual basis. The only strategy of this group which is not favored by the subjects is *giving up and stopping listening when having difficulty understanding*. This strategy has a negative connotation and not using it is a good sign.

However, it is related in some way to the first most common directed attention strategy used by the subjects, which is *focusing harder on the text when having trouble understanding*. The two strategies are mutually exclusive, which suggests, to some degree, the validity of the questionnaire results. Most participants, instead of giving up when facing any kind of difficulty, carry on listening and try to focus harder on the text.

Directed attention is defined by Vandergrift et al. (2006) as “strategies that listeners use to concentrate and stay on the task” (p. 451). However, it is defined in a taxonomy developed by Vandergrift (1997) as “deciding in advance to attend in general to the listening task and to ignore irrelevant distractors; maintaining attention while listening,” and is classified under planning (p. 392). The two definitions appear inconsistent at first, yet when further examined, we find that both represent, as Vandergrift et al. (2006) explain, “the important roles played by attention and concentration in the process of listening comprehension” (p.451). O'Bryan and Hegelheimer (2009) state that similar to the personal knowledge items, “it is difficult to elicit these types of beliefs while using think-aloud protocols” (p. 29). A study conducted by Vogely (1995), in which both a questionnaire and a recall task were used, more than half the participants reported using the strategy of recovering concentration upon losing it, which entails, according to the researcher, that they are active listeners (p.47). The study also indicated that giving up listening when having a problem is not favored by students (Vogely, 1995).

A large number of the target population (N=64) consider listening comprehension in English as a challenge. This correlates to some extent with another strategy under the person knowledge factor, which is not feeling nervous when listening to English. More than half the population (N=48) do in fact report feeling nervous when listening in English. Graham and Macaro (2008) say that “the challenges that listening comprehension in second language (L2) poses for learners have long been highlighted” (p. 747). This, according to them, is mainly due to the complexity and rapidity of the processes involved in listening (p. 748). They also state that “there is evidence that [L2 listening comprehension] induces anxiety in learners, because of the pressure it places on them to process input rapidly” (Graham and Macaro, 2008, p. 748).

Finally, mental translation strategies are the least of the metacognitive listening strategies used among the participants. Vandergrift et al. (2006) note that this factor “represents strategies that listeners must learn to avoid if they are to become skilled listeners” (p. 450). Graham and Macaro (2008) also explain that translation is a type of bottom-up strategy which is “the mark of ineffective listeners” (p. 749). Furthermore, Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) believe that for them to be successful L2 listeners, students are required to overcome the compulsion to translate word for word, which they may face while listening. Vandergrift (2003) says that less translation is a strategy employed by more skilled listeners (p. 458). Translation, he says, “involves only surface mapping between languages [and] generally fails to activate conceptual processes” (2003, p. 486).

However, more than half of participants (N=45) report translating key words as they listen. This is not to be seen as a “mark of ineffective listeners,” for Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) believe that any translation of key words seems to be related to inferencing and, is thus, seen as helpful. This relates to the use of inferencing, in which listeners make use of linguistic, context and schema knowledge to guess meanings of unknown words. The use of inferencing,

which is a top-down process, as well as translating key words, which is a bottom-up process, indicates that successful listening entails the use of both processes in an interactive way.

In general, the results of this study are consistent with what has been said in the literature regarding metacognitive listening strategies used by successful L2 listeners. A potential justification for the participants' reported use of strategies that are associated with successful listeners is that they are doing their last listening course and are expected to have achieved a high level of listening comprehension ability. However, this is not proof enough that the vast majority of them are effective listeners, for "whatever strategies listeners use, they need to know how to use them effectively and appropriately to deal with task demands" (Graham et al., 2008, p. 67). Graham (2003) also explains that "it is not the *number* of strategies employed that is crucial, but the *manner* in which they are employed" (p. 65), an aspect that cannot be tapped into through the use of a questionnaire.

Conclusion

The study gave insight into the metacognitive listening strategies used by effective L2 listeners, with ample evidence provided from the literature available on the subject. Results of this study also demonstrate that many L2 learners do in fact perceive listening as difficult, thus investing classroom time in developing learners' strategies is worthwhile. Guiding students through the process of listening, Vandergrift et al. (2006) argue, "can help learners develop the metacognitive knowledge critical to the development of self-regulated listening" (p.437). Such guidance also motivates students and grants them control over their learning (Vandergrift, 2003, p. 489). Also, the fact that listening in a foreign language induces anxiety among learners should be taken into account by teachers, particularly when setting listening tests; they should try their best to reduce as much pressure as possible.

To conclude, Berne (2004) states that "listening comprehension strategies have been and continue to be a very fruitful area for researchers to explore" (p.52). However, "whilst there is a considerable body of literature exploring listening strategy use, the literature related to strategy instruction is more sparse, although there is an emerging research agenda" (Macaro et al., 2007, p. 165). Further, even though listening is now generally believed to play a vital role in second language acquisition and the facilitation of language learning, it is still considered "a young field that merits greater research attention" (Vandergrift, 2003, p. 464).

Acknowledgement

This is a research project that was supported by a grant from the Research Center for the Humanities, Deanship of Scientific Research at King Saud University.

About the Author:

Nasrin Altuwairesh is Assistant Professor of TESOL at the College of Languages and Translation at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. She holds a PhD in Education/ TESOL from the University of Leeds in the United Kingdom. Her research interests focus on language learning and teaching, teaching EFL listening in particular.

References

- Anderson, N. J. (2002). The role of metacognition in second language teaching and learning. *ERIC Digest*, April 2002. Washington, DC: Centre for Applied Linguistics.
- Berne, J. (2004). Listening comprehension strategies: a review of the literature. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37(4), 521-531.
- Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chamot, A. (2005). Language learning strategy instruction: current issues and research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, 112-130.
- Cohen, A., & Dörnyei, Z. (2002). Focus on the language learner: motivation, styles and strategies. In N. Schmitt (Ed.). *An introduction to applied linguistics* (pp.170-190). London: Arnold.
- Field, J. (2004). An insight into listeners' problems: too much bottom-up or too much top-down? *System*, 32, 363-377.
- Field, J. (2008). *Listening in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Goh, C. (2002). Exploring listening comprehension tactics and their interaction patterns. *System*, 30, 185-206.
- Goh, C. (2008). Metacognitive instruction for second language listening development: theory, practice and research implications. *RELIC*, 39(2), 188-213.
- Goh, C., & Taib, Y. (2006). Metacognitive instruction in listening for young learners. *ELT Journal*, 60(3), 222-232.
- Graham, S. (2003). Learner strategies and advanced level listening comprehension. *Language Learning Journal*, 28, 64-69.
- Graham, S., & Macaro, E. (2008). Strategy instruction in listening for lower-intermediate learners of French. *Language Learning*, 58(4), 747-783.
- Graham, S., Santos, D., & Vanderplank, R. (2008). Listening comprehension and strategy use: a longitudinal exploration. *System*, 36, 52-68.
- Lynch, T. (2006). Academic listening: marrying top and bottom. In E. Usó-Juan, & A. Martínez-Flor (Eds.). *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills* (pp. 91-110). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Lynch, T., & Mendelsohn, D. (2002). Listening. In N. Schmitt (Ed.). *An introduction to applied linguistics* (pp.193-210). London: Arnold.
- Macaro, E. (2001). *Learning strategies in foreign and second language classrooms*. London: Continuum.
- Macaro, E., Graham, S., & Vanderplank, R. (2007). A review of listening strategies: focus on sources of knowledge and on success. In A. Cohen, & E. Macaro (Eds.). *Language learner strategies* (pp.165-185). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nunan, D. (2002). Listening in language learning. In J. Richards, & W. Renandya (Eds.). *Methodology in language teaching: an anthology of current practice* (pp.238-241). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Bryan, A., & Hegelheimer, V. (2009). Using a mixed methods approach to explore strategies, metacognitive awareness, and the effects of task design on listening development. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 9-33.
- O'Malley, J., & Chamot, M. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Malley, J., Chamot, M., & Küpper, L. (1989). Listening comprehension strategies in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 10(4), 418-437.

- Oxford, R. (1993). Research update on teaching L2 listening. *System*, 21(2), 205-211.
- Oxford, R. (1996). Employing a questionnaire to assess the use of language learning strategies. *Applied Language Learning*, 7(1), 25-45.
- Oxford, R. (2001). Language learning strategies. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan (Eds.). *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp.166- 172). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J., & Renandya, W. (Eds.). (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: an anthology of current practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rost, M. (2001). Listening. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan (Eds.). *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp.7-13). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rost, M. (2002). *Teaching and researching listening*. Harlow: Longman.
- Rost, M. (2006). Areas of research that influence L2 listening instruction. In E. Usó-Juan, & A. Martínez-Flor (Eds.). *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills* (pp. 47-74). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- SPSS Inc. (2004). *SPSS Base 12.0 for Windows User's Guide*. SPSS Inc., Chicago IL.
- Vandergrift, L (1997). The strategies of second language (French) listeners: a descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30, 387-409.
- Vandergrift, L. (1999). Facilitating second language listening comprehension: acquiring successful strategies. *ELT Journal*, 53(3), 168-176.
- Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: toward a model of the skilled second language listener. *Language learning*, 53(3), 463-496.
- Vandergrift, L. (2004). Listening to learn or learning to listen? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 3-25.
- Vandergrift, L. (2005). Relationships among motivation orientations, metacognitive awareness and proficiency in L2 listening. *Applied Linguistics*, 26(1), 70-89.
- Vandergrift, L. (2007). Recent developments in second and foreign language listening comprehension research. *Language Teaching*, 40, 191-210.
- Vandergrift, L., Goh, C., Mareschal, C., & Tafaghodtari, M. (2006). The metacognitive listening awareness questionnaire: development and validation. *Language Learning*, 56(3), 431-462.
- Vandergrift, L., & Tafaghodtari, M. (2010). Teaching L2 learners how to listen does make a difference: an empirical study. *Language Learning*, 60(2), 470-497.
- Vogely, A. (1995). Perceived strategy use during performance on three authentic listening comprehension tasks. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79(1), 41-56.

Appendix 1

Distribution of the target population according to the use of metacognitive listening strategies, N=82

Items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Mean	Standard Deviation	Order
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%			
1. Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen	18	22.0	41	50.0	19	23.2	4	4.9	2.89	0.80	13
2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.	45	54.9	36	43.9	1	1.2	0	0.0	3.54	0.53	1
3. I find that listening in English is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in English.	17	20.7	20	24.4	32	39.0	13	15.9	2.50	0.99	17
4. I translate in my head as I listen.	6	7.3	39	47.6	30	36.6	7	8.5	2.54	0.76	16
5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.	40	48.8	39	47.6	3	3.7	0	0.0	3.45	0.57	2
6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.	22	26.8	42	51.2	16	19.5	2	2.4	3.02	0.75	12
7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.	26	31.7	43	52.4	10	12.2	3	3.7	3.12	0.76	6
8. I feel that listening comprehension in English is a challenge for me.	27	32.9	37	45.1	16	19.5	2	2.4	3.09	0.79	7
9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.	31	37.8	42	51.2	8	9.8	1	1.2	3.26	0.68	5
10. Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.	10	12.2	14	17.1	40	48.8	18	22.0	2.20	0.92	19
11. I translate key words as I listen.	12	14.6	33	40.2	31	37.8	6	7.3	2.62	0.83	15
12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	28	34.1	50	61.0	4	4.9	0	0.0	3.29	0.56	4
13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.	20	24.4	49	59.8	12	14.6	1	1.2	3.07	0.66	9
14. After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do	26	31.7	39	47.6	15	18.3	2	2.4	3.09	0.77	8

differently next time.											
15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to English.	11	13.4	23	28.0	30	36.6	18	22.0	2.33	0.97	18
16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening.	2	2.4	17	20.7	29	35.4	34	41.5	1.84	0.84	20
17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.	34	41.5	43	52.4	5	6.1	0	0.0	3.35	0.60	3
18. I translate word by word, as I listen.	0	0.0	13	15.9	34	41.5	35	42.7	1.73	0.72	21
19. When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense.	21	25.6	47	57.3	12	14.6	2	2.4	3.06	0.71	10
20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.	15	18.3	32	39.0	28	34.1	7	8.5	2.67	0.88	14
21. I have a goal in mind as I listen.	23	28.0	42	51.2	14	17.1	3	3.7	3.04	0.78	11
Total Arithmetic Mean	2.84										
Standard. Deviation	0.26										

Self-Deception in Margaret Laurence's *The Stone Angel*

Asmaa Awad Ahmed

University of Sharjah, United Arab Emirates

&

Nelly Atef Hashaad

Al-menofeya University, Egypt

Abstract

This research paper attempts to underscore the growth of the Canadian personality reflected in *The Stone Angel*. The Canadians' psychological sufferings are largely caused by their country's subordinate position under the imperial power of America. In Canada, the citizen who is trapped between the American technological superpower with its spiritual poverty on the one hand and his own psychological unrest on the other fails to establish a workable balance between his needs and interests and the society's values and expectations. This "colonial mentality" prevents the Canadians from valuing themselves. They withdraw from reality into their inner world and cannot act because they see themselves as acted upon. Consequently, they accept to play the passive role which is extended by their self-conceit. The Canadian citizen who is victimized by different visible and invisible forces is psychologically disturbed, insecure and frustrated. In *The Stone Angel*, Margaret Laurence tries to diagnose and analyze the Canadian characters' psychic conflicts within their social and political framework. Furthermore, she investigates in the consciousness of the characters' personal life to study their relations to each other and to examine their potentiality. Laurence tries to help Canadians create a more positive identity, for she strongly disapproves of the negative destructive self-image created by the Canadians themselves and tries to rediscover their authentic selves.

Key Words: individuation, negative self-image, neurosis, self-actualization

Introduction

Although it has been an independent country since 1867, Canada's "psychological transition from a colony to a nation has been extremely slow and painful." This is mainly because of the "colonial cringe" imprinted on the "Canadian sensibility" (Sullivan, 1977, p. 32). The psychological problems which haunt the Canadian people and aggravate their "identity crisis" are mainly because of the Canadian immigrants who belong to various ethnic groups and insist on preserving their cultures and thus fail to respond to the idea of Canada as a whole country. Another cause of the Canadian identity crisis is that in what way Canadians think they are different from their American neighbors? For Americans, who are a vivid symbol of the technological age, Canada is unofficially part of their country. "There is no call for Canadians to fret about their identity, because everyone knows they're Americans really. If Canadians disagree with that, they're told not to be so insecure" (Atwood, "Through," 2015, p.11). Consequently, Canadians have a painful feeling that nobody wants to consider Canada as a country: "There you have the Canadian dilemma in a sentence. Nobody wants to talk about Canada, not even us Canadians" (Moore, 2001, p.2). Thus, Canadians need to rediscover themselves in order to overcome their psychological traumas.

Margaret Laurence's interest in the psychological background of individuals and sympathy with the outcasts and marginalized people has been constantly obvious in all her novels. The novel selected for this study- *The Stone Angel* (1980), has "the essence of Manawaka is that it is a small-town" (Caldwell, 2006, p.64). This small town, in the novel, symbolizes the "divisiveness" rooted in the Canadian society. However, like all other places in Canada it also contains the seeds of man's freedom. Laurence's Manawaka characters try very hard to escape from it but eventually realize that Manawaka is an aspect of their own inner self which must be confronted from within. They also discover that their quest is mainly for finding a meaning and a potential for their lives instead of running away.

The Writer's Background:

Margaret Laurence is "a leading major contemporary postmodern author" (Irvine & Lorna, 1999, p. xix) who is not easily separable from her fictional protagonists. She creates characters whose experiences, like Canadians, bear a measure of resemblance to her. Suffering the loss of her parents at a very young age, Laurence's "loneliness and isolation in which she dwelt nearly all her life" (King, 1998, p. xx) is apparent throughout her works. It also produces a prevailing tone of despair in all of her works. She believes that the aspects of the texts she writes are integral elements of its construction of her sense of identity. Her parents' death when she was young marked both her literary and private life, as she was never able to remove herself from her childhood. Laurence's despair, loneliness and insecurity, are "an emphasis that produces monotony that relentlessly tracks her experience along a single and descending path" (Irvine & Lorna, 1999, 11).

James King (1998) considers Laurence "the most renowned writer in [the] Canadian literary history" (King, 1998, p. xix). For King, the richness of Laurence's imagery, "the concreteness in her language," and "the attempt to make harmonies out of disparate elements of human experience" make her one of the most prominent writers in Canada and thus in the whole world (King, 1998, p. xxiv). Mark Cohen finds Laurence "a writer dedicated to exploring human nature in all its various complexities," (Cohen, 2001, p.88) as she is always able to express

something that in fact everybody knows but can't express. Laurence has also a distinctive Canadian voice "though her concerns are of wider significance, they are deeply rooted in the local Canadian experience" (Caldwell, 2006, p. 65).

Laurence is aware of the emotions that lay buried beneath the surface of people's lives and "often casts a gently ironic eye upon the more fundamental absurdities of the human condition, particularly the discrepancy between the idealized and the actual" (Djwa, 1972, p. 43). Her psychological analysis of characters implies a religious perspective; she believes that the "religious experience can be a numinous one, stabilizing old neuroses and so accomplishing a kind of psychological salvation" (Djwa, 1972, p. 44). Laurence uses the Biblical allusion when she names, for example, her character Hagar of *The Stone Angel* after the Hagar of the Bible, "to provide a mythic framework for an essentially psychological study of character" ((Djwa, 1972, p. 46). The Parallels between the two Hagars are intended. Both are destined to roam the "wilderness" which is also "within" the self (Atwood, *Survival*, 206). In one of her interviews with Donald Cameron, Laurence says that in writing her novels she has a great deal with the Bible which moves her very deeply, as it expresses "certain symbolic truths about the human dilemma and about mankind" (Cameron, 1973, p. 112).

As a realistic writer, Laurence is able "to transform the regional into the universal, a marginal country into the world" (Irvine & Lorna, 1999, 12). In each of her works there is a movement from isolation towards order and meaning; "the exploration and revealing of an order that is there and is within the power of seeking men and women to apprehend" (Thomas, 1970, p. 85). "Life", Laurence says, "is extraordinarily and in a way wonderfully formless, and yet the whole world, sort of examined minutely has got incredible form" (Cameron, 1973, p. 107). She implies that though our security is temporarily threatened during the process of self-discovery, we are "awakened" to a "bolder, cleaner, more spacious, and fully human life" (Campbell, 2008, p. 8).

Margaret Laurence's protagonists undergo a struggle to find their real self and because of the painful pressures of anxieties, they lose it. They experience a gap between the higher needs of their inner nature and the unchangeable enormous conditions of existence. The protagonists' personal and past problems play a significant role in exaggerating their neurotic troubles and in bringing about their basic anxiety. Those who are able to comprehend and conquer their personal difficulties, gain a healthy vision of life. However, sick personages are often entangled in personal problems and cannot feel whole, because they are obsessed by neurotic anxiety. Such characters lose their real self, sacrifice human value and create unalterable conditions for themselves.

Laurence believes that the lack of basic needs in childhood cause basic anxiety, but they are not the only cause of later troubles. The characters' social, biological and cultural forces also share in forming their personalities. In her novels, Laurence does not fully expose the childhood of her characters but she frequently uses the flashback technique to help the reader understand the character's background and she uses the first-person narrative form to help the reader enter into the character's psyche and get glimpses of its life. Her characters have much more complex realities behind their inexplicable behaviour, reactions and rigidities. The reader meets them as grown-up individuals, apparently well-settled in life, some of them right into their middle-age, nonetheless disturbed psychologically by forces beyond their comprehension. With the reflective

flashbacks and first-person narrative techniques, the characters' childhood is revealed enabling the reader to relate the present structure of psyche to their past.

The World of Manawaka

The world of Manawaka in *The Stone Angel* is a fictionalized small Canadian prairie town which resembles Margaret Laurence's hometown Neepawa. It is created by Laurence and is populated by racially and culturally different people including Scots, Irish, English, French, Indians, Metis, Ukrainians, Germans and Jews exactly like the real Canadian society. These ethnic groups do not mix easily as each one has its own respective culture. In *The Stone Angel*, Laurence tries to describe the growth of her character, Hagar, against such a "multiracial, multicultural background" in order to acquire self-definition. She sees that to become an independent individual spiritually as well as externally, Hagar has to understand the "validity of others." To do so, Hagar should overcome her "idealized" image and achieve personal and social recognition by integrating with other cultures giving herself "freedom to love, to share, to meet and to touch. Such a state ... is our spiritual home, the human goal the grail" (Morely, 1991, p. 19).

According to Laurence, Manawaka is not just a town. It has a further part to play in the lives of its people. It is considered "a microcosm of [Laurence's] native country" (King, 1998, p. 95). Hagar is attracted to Bram who looks 'a bearded Indian' with his lack of modesty, but comes to despise this Indian quality soon after their marriage.

Problems presented by Laurence's characters in *The Stone Angel* reveal the fact that "self-actualization" in the Canadian society can be only established in relation to others. That requires affirming the "irreplaceable uniqueness" of each individual at the same time with "common humanity." In other words, the Canadians can overcome their psychological problems and regain psychic equilibrium only if they respect the reality of themselves as well as that of others;

The problem for human beings, however much they differed from one another, was to acquire, not the ability but the will to understand each other. It is as difficult to see something of oneself in all men as it is to accept oneself completely as one is.

(Mannoni, 1991, p. 1)

Laurence's interest in the psychological background of individuals and sympathy with the outcasts and marginalized people are always visible in all of her works. The novel selected for this study- *The Stone Angel*, has "the essence of Manawaka is that it is a small-town" (Caldwell, 2006, p.64). This small town, in the novel, symbolizes the "divisiveness" rooted in the Canadian society. However, like all other places in Canada as well as in the whole world, it also contains the seeds of man's freedom. Laurence's Manawaka character tries very hard to escape from it but eventually realizes that Manawaka is an aspect of her own inner self which must be confronted from within. She also discovers that her quest is mainly for finding a meaning and a potential for her live instead of running away. To do so, Hagar passes through a state of psychological crisis that affects her live. Thus a psychological analysis for Hagar will enable us to understand her conflicts and behavior.

Hagar Shipley

Hagar Shipley, protagonist and central character of *The Stone Angel*, is the ninety-year-old narrator of the novel. She is a snobbish, proud, and tough woman who fears the loss of her

independence by being placed in a nursing home by her son Marvin and his wife, Doris. Hagar's neurotic difficulties arise due to her spiritual pride. In Margaret Atwood's view, Hagar is "the most extended portrait of the frozen old woman" in Canada (Atwood, *Survival*, 1972, p.205). Like Laurence, Hagar's mother died giving birth to her. She was brought up by her father, Jason Currie, a 'stern disciplinarian,' who is deceived by the past glory of his family. His pride in his position, prosperity and success made his life a 'desert.' Instead of satisfying his daughter's neurotic need for love, affection and approval, he detached her from her true self and from others. According to Monkman (1981), a specialist in Canadian literature in English, "Jason Currie plays the role of the imperialist" for Hagar, the same role played by America to Canada (Monkman, 1981, p.37).

At the age of ninety, and only a few days before her death, Hagar realizes that her spiritual 'pride' is the main cause of the barrenness of her relationship with others and her discontent with life. She discovers that she has never been able to delight due to her pride. Her inability to express joy is because in her self-exiled state she has failed to realize that joy can be derived from interacting openly with others and from giving and receiving love. Pride is the root-cause of the "deadly sins" because, as Robertson Davies observes, it can be made to look like something else. "It looks like sturdy independence ... it is pigheadedness, domineering possessiveness, sheer cussedness" (Davies, 1964, p.4). Hagar's pride is ancestry as her father was "a relentlessly proud and 'God-fearing' man" (Thomas, 1970, p. 161). Considering himself to be 'a pioneer,' he strongly believes in the gospel of 'individualism' and hands down this belief to his children. He repeatedly tells them:

You'll never get anywhere in this world unless you work harder than others ... Nobody's going to give you anything on a silver platter. It's up to you, nobody else. You've got to have stick-to-itiveness if you want to get ahead. You've got to use a little elbow grease.

(13)

Although Hagar's father observes his religious duties thoroughly, he is fiercely proud of his position in the congregation, "we have to give special thanks to those of our congregation whose generosity and Christian contributions have made our new church possible" (16). Brought up with such ideas, Hagar is extremely conscious of her privileged position in Manawaka society. Her snobbishness, which is apparently inherited from her father, separates her from the poor men and women in the town. Hagar finds the poor people's hired help merely laughable and says that as a young girl she regarded herself as "quite different from Auntie Doll [the house keeper] ... a different sort entirely" (34).

Hagar looks down upon Henry Pearl for being a farm boy and on Telford Simmons for being the son of a penniless father who owned a funeral parlor. Likewise, she mocks at Auntie Doll's desire to marry her father, Hagar says that she and her brothers knew that their father "could never have brought himself to marry his housekeeper" (17). She also scorns Doris for coming from a large family "with nothing to speak of" (34) and her younger son's girlfriend, Arlene, for being the daughter of Telford and Lottie. Thus, parental indifference, and familial disorder characterize Hagar's childhood. Her incapacity to satisfy her basic needs of love and affection from her family creates basic anxiety. As a result, she withdraws into a world of her own. She glorifies herself as different from people around her. She gets happiness in this state.

But later she faces the problem of separateness, as she sticks to the illusion of being unique in herself.

Hagar has a tendency towards autonomy. She can gain self-sufficiency and strength by such denial of the ordinary ways of life. People who forsake themselves and merge in the non-self, giving up will, freedom, self-sufficiency, self-control and autonomy, suffer from 'self-alienation.' This quest for the self is only achieved when one is able to establish a "communication with the outer world to improve along with the improvement in the development of the personality... i.e. perception of reality should improve" (Maslow, *The Farther*, 1971, p.161-2). Hagar's ironic expressions on the poor people in the restaurant refer to her constant need to indicate her insistent quest to raise themselves by standing superior to others. Hagar sees pride as her wicked spirit. Hagar is hateful and thoughtless and is not capable of relating with those around her with sympathy and generosity of spirit.

Hagar's rebellion against the social hierarchy in Manawaka takes the form of her marriage. To satisfy her neurotic needs for love, affection and safety, she challenged her father's wish of marrying one of the "pliable boys of good family" (48), and married the disreputable but good-looking farmer Bram Shipley who is, indeed, considered below her class. During their wedding reception Hagar says that wanting to be free of her father's influence; she flew around "like a new-born gnat" (50). However, Hagar in her own way loves her father and greatly desires his approval of her husband. She felt certain "that father would soften and yield, when he saw how Brampton Shipley prospered, gentled, learned cravats and grammar" (50). Soon after their marriage, she reverts to her "class-conscious self." Hagar cannot understand why Bram and her younger son, John, need to associate with and care for the reactions of wanderers and half-breeds from the wrong side of the tracks. Bram once asserts his hatred for his wife's pride and thus, the Curries' values by urinating on the steps of Currie's store. Confronted by the social affectation of Charlotte Tappen, Bram "hugged surliness like a winter coat around him" (70). It is clear that there is a mutual misunderstanding between Hagar and Bram. If Bram had been willing to verbalize his anxieties and Hagar to comprehend his mentality, neither would have to break up. Laurence is of the opinion that though the potential for "emotional communication between individuals is very great," it is very difficult and can be achieved only if the individuals involved in it go on trying (Fabre, 1983, p. 200).

A few years after Bram's death, John tells Hagar that he was a good natured man who gave him jellybeans when he was a child and let him have rides in Doherty's two-horse sledge. Forced to play hostess and serve breakfast to those she regards as "lowly", Hagar rages inwardly when she thought of "Hagar Currie serving a bunch of breeds and, ne'er-do-wells and Galicians" (114). In Laurence's view, pride is a demon and it implies "the tempting conviction that one is able to see the straight path and to point it out to others." (Laurence, *The Rain*, 1970, p. 125) A closer look at Hagar's pride, however, reveals that it is nothing but a mask she unconsciously wears to conceal her numerous fears. She looks at herself as "a woman who has been in some way petrified all her life – petrified, in the dual sense of turned to stone and terrified." (Atwood, *Survival*, 1972, p. 205). Although she is tough-minded and goes through life "sniffing over bad spelling and impermissible in language" (Cooley, 1983, p. 45), Hagar fears of being different or isolated. Her fear of seeming foolish makes her turn away from human contact thereby resembling the stone angel of the title. After returning from the East, her father holds her by her

hand and begs her to stay but Hagar pulls it away from him without a word. Aware that her sign has greatly hurt him, she feels that she must follow her father out and "say it was a passing thing and not meant" (45), but could not bend enough to say so. Similarly, she wants to hold Doris's hands and beg forgiveness for acting rude over a pot of tea but holds her tongue afraid that Doris would think her "daft entirely instead of only half so" (30). Her inner self makes her want to take care of Dan and the dying baby chicken but her glorified self which exercises rigid control on her emotions, does not allow any display of warmth and affection.

Hagar constantly restricts her life to "narrow borders." She doesn't seem to simplify her life to join a simple order. She is a neurotic who feels that she doesn't need anybody. She is a "resigning individual" who believes that she is perfect. In psychology, 'resignation' leads to peace and wisdom. But a neurotic's strive for resignation signifies a peace born out of "the absence of conflicts." For a neurotic, "resignation" means "giving up struggle ... and settling for less". It is a process of reducing life and growth. For Hagar, resignation implies restricting her life and living. Wrongly, she thinks that she achieves peace. Since she does not develop a "healthy self-esteem", she reaches for false glory based on "neurotic pride". (Horney, 1965, pp. 111-112)

Hagar sees love as a kind of weakness. For her, love implies a state of dependence on others. Thus, she never realizes her husband's love for her. The tragedy of their relationship is clearly seen in the moment when they are alone together for the first time after their wedding:

When we entered, Bram handed me a cut-glass decanter with a silver top. "This here's for you Hagar." I took it so casually, and laid it aside, and thought no more about it. He picked it up in his hands and turned it around. For a moment I thought he meant to break it, and for the life of me I couldn't see why. Then he laughed and set it down and came close to me. (51)

Though married to Bram Shipley, Hagar remains Jason Currie's daughter all her life. She sees the monument of the stone angel imported by her father from Italy "at a terrible expense and was pure white marble" (3) to mark her life as clearly superior to other marbles which are "lesser breed entirely, petty angels" in the memorial park. Hagar (4), who resembles the stone angle, likewise, sees herself as a cut above those around her. She avoids any show of emotions even with her husband. She never reveals her love for him, even when she enjoys sex with him.

It was not so very long after we were wed; when I felt my blood and vitals rise to meet his. He never knew. I never spoke aloud, and I made certain the trembling was all inner. He had innocence about him, I guess, or he'd have known. How could he not have known? Didn't I betray myself in rising sap, like a heedless and compelled maple after a winter? But no, he never expected any such thing, and so he never perceived it. I prided myself upon keeping my pride intact, like some maidenhead. (81)

In response to Bram's love, she feels her body rising 'to meet his,' but she refuses to "betray" herself. By her unspoken and unexpressed love, she makes Bram feel guilty for desiring sex with her for she herself says: "Sometimes, if there had been no argument between us in the day, he would say he was sorry, sorry to bother me, as though it was an affliction with him,

something that set him apart, as his speech did from educated people" (116). Hagar, unlike the cold, marble stone angel of the title, is capable of love but does not wish to admit that she experiences the emotion of love at all. As a child, her elder son Marvin seeks love and approval from his mother. "He would hang around the kitchen, after doing little chores for, awaiting her approval. But Hagar never spoke the words he wanted to hear" (113). Not until Mr. Troy's moving singing of the hymn in hospital was Hagar set free from the captivity forged by her pride; only then were the chains loosed, so that she was able to give Marvin the blessing he had sought throughout his life.

Similarly, in one of the most painful scenes in the novel, Hagar fails to express her love and concern for Marvin, when he comes to say goodbye before going to army at the age of seventeen. Hagar always suppresses her feelings and does not try to release them. Instead, she yearns for greater 'will-lessness,' which is indicative of severe 'neurosis.' As mentioned before, Hagar has a strong tendency to remove herself from the 'inner battlefield' in order to relieve her tensions. She does not participate in the act of living and becomes an observer on life. She lacks aspirations, efforts and the will for achievement. By stifling her wishes, she feels satisfied at having reached a state of 'non-attachment,' happy that she has no expectations from life and others. She shows a fear for 'emotional involvement,' because it may restrict her freedom. Thus, by withdrawing herself from her surroundings into a world of her own, Hagar assumes that she saves her individuality, but as this 'withdrawal' is not healthy, it leads to "disintegration". Hagar's main aim is defeated in itself. She does not realize that an individual "cannot grow in a vacuum, without closeness to and friction with other human beings" (Horney, *Neurosis*, 1965, p. 267).

Hagar is a well-educated woman who greatly values correct speech and good behaviour. For example, she finds colloquial, idiomatic and ungrammatical speech unacceptable. She hates the way Bram talks with a lot of sprinkling of offensive words and phrases and incorrect grammar. She constantly corrects the speech of her sons, Marvin and John. Doris's speech nearly drives her mad and she tries to hide when Doris, Marvin's wife, says things like: "I dasn't give a good loud rap these days or you know what she'll say" (28), "Marv and me are having a cup of tea" (30) and "You always said the oak chair was to go to Marv and I" (64). In addition, Hagar feels irritated with Marvin for placing his elbows on the dining table and angrily tells the reader: "High day or holiday or Judgment Day - no difference to Marvin. He would put his elbows on the table if he'd been an apostle at the Last Supper" (34).

By insisting on criticizing others, Hagar again isolates herself from social life and substitutes her 'real self' by an 'actualized self-image.' By doing so, she feels assured of her non-involvement with others, which in fact is unhealthy for her real self. She tries to "close life out, to impose on others, notably her husband and children, her own rectilinear sense of what should be allowed." (Atwood, *Survival*, 1972, p. 205). William New strictly criticizes Hagar's behaviour, saying "The linguistic tension, between formal and informal, enacts a social tension that exists both within Hagar and within the social structure of the world she inhabits" (New, 1983, p. 175).

On the day Marvin started school, Hagar made him wear a sailor suit hoping to make him appear different from the rest of the boys. Similarly, she spends her first few months' salary

earned from Mr. Oatley, entirely on clothes in order to appear civilized. Convinced of the correctness of her own tastes, she finds Doris's choice of clothes terrible. She feels that her daughter-in-law looks more of a frump than nature intended her to be. According to Hagar, Doris "whose tastes and looks resemble a broody hen ... wouldn't know silk from flour sacks" (29). She is also likely to criticize Doris quickly for thinking that "dignity depends upon vestment" (28), although she herself believes in that. Hagar does not actually acquire the well-mannered behaviour which is necessary for social suitability.

On the contrary, Hagar feels "different" from others, as she clings to the illusion of being unique in herself. Defeating "others in personal relations" is a neurotic way to feel "great" and "free" (Horney, *Neurosis*, 1965, p. 27). That is why Hagar is confronted with the problem of separateness from others. She never tries to analyze herself and apprehend her demands. The clash between her inner and outer selves continues till the moment of her death. The fast scornful self and the withdrawing contact with outer world, leave the core of her integrity impaired. Hagar's 'basic anxiety', again, lies in her incapacity to relate herself to others. She lives a cut off life keeping her inner self securely apart from her socially conditioned self. Hagar wants to master her life and fate, get over her difficulties alone. But she is not a strong and healthy person. She strives to maintain a subjective feeling of superiority with compulsive rigidity. As readers, we may consider Hagar perfectionist and vindictive at the same time as she wants to achieve the highest excellence in everything she does, and has a compulsive need for vindictive triumph.

What gives rise to Hagar's self-hate is her refusal to acknowledge all softer feelings as a threat to her whole structure of living. She does not expect others to give her anything. She wishes to stand by her own vision of life and fight all softness. These characteristics also comprise the "aggressive" neurotic type of people. Aggressive types tend to keep people away from them. They only care about their needs. They would do whatever they can to be happy and continue hurting others. For Hagar others exist only to serve her aggressive needs and so, they should bow down to her. Hagar always has a neurotic need for power, for control and exploitation. Under Horney's assertions the aggressive individual may also wish for social recognition, "narcissism," in terms of simply being known by subordinates and peers alike. Hagar has needs for a degree of personal admiration by those within her social circle.

Hagar's marriage fails mainly on account of her aggression and emotional block. Desperate to make her husband into "a Currie houseboy respectfully and artfully antimacassar against the dirt of living" (Cooley, 1983, p.35), she nags him for his manners and speech and does not reveal even a 'stray trace of gentleness'. One night, however, seeing Bram return home grieving over the disappearance of his favourite horse, Soldier, Hagar feels deeply moved and acts affectionately. She tells us that she walks over to him "without pausing to ponder whether I should or not or what to say" (87) and utters words which comfort him. Bram is even more surprised when she tells him that she feels "sorry" for his loss. That night Bram behaves tenderly with her. This event clearly shows that their marriage would not have ended the way it did, if Hagar had chosen to reject her idealized self-image and act instinctively in tune with her real self.

Moreover, Hagar communicates openly with Murray Lee. He tells her of his frustrations over the death of his son and prompts her to do the same. Murray and Hagar confess their

mistakes, repent and find peace. It is only after 'confession' and 'repentance', Hagar is awakened to her true self, but not converted. 'Conversion' implies giving up powers while awakening implies gaining of power. The entire scene between them is laden with religious overtones and according to James Baird: "To rediscover the gods as psychic factors is simply to be stripped of allegiances to existing symbols of God and to proceed to make new symbols in agreement with one's psychic condition" (Buss, 1985, p. 27). For Hagar, this is her time of freedom. But, what she considers freedom is just a flight from conflict. Real freedom implies ceasing all conflicts and liberating from all fear, "unless the mind is absolutely free from fear every form of action brings about more mischief, more misery, and more confusion." (Krishnamurthy, 1973, p. 31).

Hagar undergoes a deep psychological change. She does not get freedom because she does not acquire self-knowledge yet. Hagar's quest "is away from a tradition that offers her the values of light, logic and paternal godhead and towards the values of darkness, emotion, instinct and materiality" (Buss, 1985, p. 27). Thought and sensation she realizes must be balanced by feeling and intuition. Only when she "accepts her shadow" and achieves "union with the positive animus," Hagar finds support in a fuller life as is seen from the way she relates with the old women, particularly Elva, in the hospital ward and with the young half-Chinese girl, Sandra Wong. Her awakening reaches the conscious part of her mind and gets verbalized only when she hears Mr. Troy sing the first verse of the Doxology in a soft voice. The last line of the first verse- "Come ye before Him and rejoice" - ushers in a vital moment of insight and Hagar acknowledges the destructiveness of her self-conscious pride with the words:

This knowing comes upon me so forcefully so shatteringly, and with such bitterness as I have never felt before... I was alone, never anything else, and never free, for I carried my chains within me, and they spread out from me and shackled all I touched. (292)

Believing herself independent-minded and free all her life, Hagar has in fact never been free of Jason Currie's legacy. Burdened with guilt and self-hate, Hagar tragically realizes that her life-long battle against God and man has been in vain and that all her life she has been "labouring mightily against a door which actually is not locked" (Gibson, 1973, p. 206). Self-deception has prevented her from rejoicing.

The irony of the pathos . . . is that the whole damn problem of making contact with other people is so easy, so human if only one will take the risk of exposing his or her emotional jugular and admit to the uncertainty of being human.

(Labonte, 1980, p. 175)

At ninety Hagar accepts her humanity and wonders if she is at least partly responsible for the deaths of John and Brant. It is obvious here that the guilt Hagar feels for her mother's death giving birth to her may explain her inability to comfort her brother Matt when he is dying, as Laurence "herself may also have felt responsible at an unconscious level for the deaths of her parents" (King, 1998, 162), that is why Laurence's desire for privacy and for escape from the demands of her family is because of her fear of "day-to-day intimacy." Laurence knows that "if she withdrew from others and into a secret world of writing, perhaps she could escape further catastrophes descending upon her" (King, 1998, 295). Trying to think of the free acts performed by her in ninety years, she can think of only two "recent" acts - a "joke" in fetching the potty which she ironically refers to as "the shiny steel grail" for Sandra and the other, a "lovingly-

spoken lie" to Marvin telling him that he has been a better son than John (301). She forgives Murray for breaking his promise to her by leading Marvin and Doris to her hide-out, tries to console Mr. Troy by saying that the hymn has not upset her, tells Doris that the hymn sung by her clergyman did her good and gives Doris her mother's sapphire ring for Tina.

Hagar finally transcends the dichotomies in her thinking and realizes that the values of both the Curries and the Shipleys are necessary for making the most of life: "the journey of the human spirit out of the bondage of pride, which isolates, into the freedom of love, which links the lover to other humans" (Morley, 1991, p. 79). Having come to terms with her past, Hagar ceases to be the stone angel of the title and comes close to becoming a flesh-and-blood angel. However, Laurence respects human nature enough not to show her as converted; "nothing is ever changed at a single stroke" (88). In a final rage of spiritual pride, Hagar employs "aggression" against the nurse in the hospital, she exhibits basic hostility to her. She does not want the nurse to hold the glass of water for her at the moment of her death. Hagar's movement from a state of alienation to spiritual survival, despite her cultural baggage, indicates her limited triumph a short while before her death.

Hagar cannot tolerate tears or any other indicator of weakness, even at the age of ninety. She longs to catch a glimpse in the mirror of her earlier, independent self. She chafes over her dependence on Doris and the nurses in the hospital and feels betrayed by her obese body, stiff bones and weak memory. To add to her humiliation, she has no control over her bladder and suffers repeated attacks caused by gall bladder disorder during which she is entirely helpless. At the hospital when she resentfully tells the nurse that she hates being helped, all that the nurse says in response is "Haven't you ever given a hand to anyone in your time? It's your turn now. Try to look at it that way. It's your due." (276) At this time only, Hagar realizes that by acknowledging weakness, one is in no way diminished and that at some time or the other in life we all need to help and to be helped by others. This brief moment of self-discovery enables Hagar to know her real self. This is her glorified self, afraid of disintegration in the encounter with true self.

As the nurse speaks to Hagar, the latter awakens to a greater truth about her life; she has so far led a barred, enclosed existence devoid of all human feelings. The truth unveils still greater reality that her life has been a waste. A terrible struggle ensues between her glorified and real selves. There is a too late frenzied search for feelings and emotions. So far, Hagar's realization was directed inward but its centre was false. Now, in the light of the outer world, she comprehends the inner reality. All her "grandiose fantasies" about herself as a detached person of "steady wisdom" perish. Self-hate emerges with the realization that she has been an escapist. She has run away from the realm of feelings. So far, she lacks human warmth. She reproaches herself; the consciousness of having been emotionally crippled and the inability to share feelings with others on human level, isolate her.

Laing (1973) points out that pure violence erupts as an ultimate form of self-analysis. Such "isolation is greatly in danger of passing over into psychotic alienation" (Laing, 1973, 140). So intense are her feelings that she despises the idea of being herself. It is a tremendous terror for her to have a clear perception of her identity. This brief moment of introspection for Hagar makes her suffer intensely. Suffering leads to self-analysis which is the preconscious process that

gives a person orientation. But for Hagar, it's too short to allow any constructive thinking. Overpowered by self-reproach, she feels like Sartre's Roquentin, "my thought is me... at this very moment- its frightful, if I exist, it is because I am horrified at existence" (Sartre, 1966, p.135).

Technique:

Hagar's tragedy lies in the fact that her revelation comes at ninety. If Hagar had been awakened to her true self earlier, she would have been able to live a healthy, natural life for several years instead of the few days before her death. The hour of Hagar's death is also the hour of recognition. Laurence ends *The Stone Angel* with the phrase "And then-" (308) which reflects the open-endedness of the writer's vision, leaving the ending to be interpreted by the readers according to their own individual perceptions. Laurence, a champion for the cause of human liberation, visualizes a society in which all of us can "experience our deepest needs and our deepest requirements for survival as sanity rather than insanity" (Gelpi, 1975, p. 117). Margaret Laurence claims that when writing *the Stone Angel* she felt "an enormous conviction of the authenticity of Hagar's voice" (Laurence, "Gadgetry," 1983, p.82), as the form of *The Stone Angel* "foregrounds the isolation of the main character" (Spriet, 1981, p. 107). Hagar's character is revealed in the succession of events that the present brings back the past. In other words, what the novel depicts is Hagar's psychological journey across time to her origins in an effort to locate her present in a true perspective. The manifestations of Hagar on her past emerge as a series of different portraits at these stages of her life. In fact, the narrative, told from Hagar's point of view, develops very much as an unfolding.

By the end of the novel, Laurence uses the third person voice to underline the fact that this is not absolutely Hagar's story but the story of many people in Canada. The wide-ranging narrative of the novel, in fact, documents Hagar, the narrator-protagonist's journey towards self-discovery and quite deliberately aims at defining and projecting a specifically Canadian identity by fusing together personal and national history so that it finally emerges not merely as Hagar's individual story but a story of the Canadian nation as well. It is "about Canada as well as Manawaka, about the need to give shape to [Canada's] own legends, to rediscover what is really ours" (Atwood, "Face," 1983, p. 26). Actually, this technique serves as a particular kind of catharsis for Laurence herself. She was, at the time of writing *The Stone Angel*, separated from her husband John Laurence and was living in England with her young children. These were obviously not easy times for her as England, an alien country for her, could not and did not provide her with the much-needed sense of 'place,' 'belonging' and 'rootedness' so that she could face her personal predicament in a bold manner.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, this research paper attempts to uncover the fact that Laurence's selected character, Hagar, is a well-developed reflection of the Canadian personality. The growth from her first stage of life to her latest is a steady process towards self-realization. Hagar may not be fully healthy, but is not totally morbid. In the process of individuation, she reveals self-strength and a tendency to emerge out of her isolation, insecurity and anxiety, and gain a kind of closeness and solidarity in her march from neurosis to full humanness. Hagar gains considerable self-awareness at Shadow Point and from her short stay in the hospital, although her insights come too late to be of use to her. When the process of self-actualization is complete for Hagar,

her death becomes an essential as it holds the promise of new birth. Her growing process for "self-actualization" reflects the potential growth and the developing vision of Laurence herself as a writer. Symbolically, Hagar's growing process mirrors the growing process of Canada as a nation not as a fragmented whole inhabited by immigrants and culturally occupied by America.

About the Authors:

Dr. Asmaa Awad Ahmed is an English Language Instructor in the ELC, University of Sharjah. She has PhD in Comparative Literature, MA in English Language and Literature and CELTA. She has been teaching English for 20 years in different parts of the world. Her areas of interest are Comparative Literature and Education Technology.

Dr. Nelly Atef Hashaad is an English Language Instructor in the English Department, College of Arts, Almenofeya University. She has PhD and MA in English Language and Literature. She has been teaching English for more than 20 years. Her areas of Interest are English literature and comparative cultures.

References

- Atwood, Margaret. (1972). *Survival: A Thematic Guide to Canadian Literature*. Toronto: House of Anansi, 07-221
- Atwood, Margaret. (1983). Face to Face, in *A Place To Stand On: Essays on and about Margaret Laurence*, ed. George Woodcock, Edmonton: NeWest Press, 26-28
- Atwood, Margaret. (2015 June 3). "Through the One-Way Mirror," Comparison and Contrast, Maroars, V000, http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:http://www.urbandaleschools.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/Through-the-One-Way-Mirror.pdf&gws_rd=cr&ei=7a9YVryUGMjYU8ivg5AD_, 11-12
- Buss, Helen M. (1985). *Mother and Daughter Relationships in the Manawaka Works of Margaret Laurence*. Victoria: University of Victoria, 26-30
- Caldwell, Joan. (2006). "Laurence, Margaret," *Literature Criticism Series*. Thomson Gale http://www.bookrags.com/criticism/laurence-jean-margaret-1926-crit_4/ (2015 July 5), 1-2
- Cameron, Donald. (1973). *Conversations with Canadian Novelists*. Toronto: Macmillan, 106-112
- Campbell, Joseph. (2008). *The Hero With A Thousand Faces*. California: New World Library, 8-9
- Cohen, Mark. (2001). *Censorship in Canadian Literature*. Montreal, McGill-Queen's University Press. <http://site.ebrary.com/lib/hct/Doc?id=10132743&ppg=100> (2014, May 14), 64-65
- Cooley, Dennis. (1983). *Essays on and about Margaret Laurence*. George Woodcock, Edmonton: NeWest Press, 35-39
- Davies, Robertson. (1964 June). "Self-Imprisoned To Keep The World At Bay," *New York Times Book Review*. Section 7, 4-5
- Davis, Laura Strong. (2006). *Margaret Laurence: Heart of a Strange*. Thomson Gale: *International Fiction Review*, 2-26
- Djwa, Sandra. (1972 fall 1). "False Gods and the True Covenant: Thematic Continuity Between Margaret Laurence and Sinclair Ross," *Journal of Canadian Fiction*, 43-46
- Fabre, Michel. (1983). "From the Stone Angle to the Diviners: An Interview with Margaret Laurence," *A Place to Stand on: Essays on and about Margaret Laurence*, ed. George

- Woodcock, Edmonton: NeWest, . 200-204
- Gelpi, Barbara and Albert Gelpi. (1975). "Three Conversations," Interviews with Adrienne Rich in Adrienne Rich's Poetry: The Poet on her Work - Reviews and Criticism, Norton,. 117-118
- Gibson, Graeme. (1973). "Interview with Margaret Laurence," *Eleven Canadian Novelists*. Toronto: House of Anansi 206-208
- Horney, Karen. (1965). *Neurosis and Human Growth: The Struggle Toward Self-Realization*. London: Routledge, 27-267
- Irvine, Lorna. (Winter 1999).** "Critical spaces: Margaret Laurence & Janet Frame". *Journal of Canadian Studies*, xix-12
- King, James. (1998). *The Life of Margaret Laurence*. Canada: Vintage, xx-295
- Krishnamurthy, J. (1973). *Beyond Violence*. London: Victor Gallenez, 31-33
- Laing, R. D. (1973). *The Divided Self*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, . 140-146
- Labonte, Ronald. (1980). Disclosing and Touching: Revaluating the Manawaka World, in 'The Work of Margaret Laurence,' ed. John Sorfleet, *Journal of Canadian Fiction*, 27, 175-181
- Laurence, Margaret. (1980). *The Stone Angel*. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1-307
- Laurence, Margaret. (1983). "Gadgetry Or Growing: Form and Voice In the Novel," in *A Place To Stand On: Essays on and about Margaret Laurence*, ed. George Woodcock, Edmonton: NeWest Press, 82-88
- Laurence, Margaret. (1970). "The Rain Child," in *The Tomorrow-Tamer and Other Stories*, Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 125-134
- Mannoni, O. (1991). *Prospero and Caliban: The Psychology of Colonialization* Toronto: McClelland and Stewart 1-4
- Maslow, Abraham. (1971). *The Father Reaches of Human Nature*, Harmondsworth: Penguin, pp. 161-162
- Monkman, Leslie. (1981). Ancestral and Contemporary Communities in the Stone Angel, *Etudes Canadiens* 37-39
- Moore, Joyce. (2001 March 19). In *The Luck of Ginger Coffey*, Emily Cho <http://www.oocities.org/echomyst/literature/gingercoffey.html>, (2015 Sep 8), . 2-3
- Morley, Patricia. (1991). *Margaret Laurence: The Long Journey Home* Montreal: McGill-Queens University, 19-20
- New, William H. (1983). "Every Now And Then: Voice And Language In Laurence's *The Stone Angel*," in *A Place To Stand On: Essays on and about Margaret Laurence*, ed. George Woodcock Edmonton: NeWest Press, 175-178
- Sartre, Jean-Paul. (1966). *Nausea*, trans. Robert Baldick, Harmondsworth: Penguin, pp. 135-136
- Spriet, Pierre. (1981). Narrative and Thematic Patterns in the Stone Angel. *Etudes Canadiens*, . 107-109
- Sullivan, Rosemary. (1977 Jan). "Breaking The Circle," *Malahat Review*, NO. 41. Victoria: University of Victoria, 32-34
- Thomas, Clara. (1985). "Towards Freedom: The Work of Margaret Laurence and Northrop Frye," *Essays on Canadian Writing*, Winter, 161-166
- Thomas, Clara. (1970). *The Psychiatric Interview*, New York: Norton,. 85-86

Learner-centered Instruction in English Education: Reality and Expectations

Al-maqtri Mahmoud Ahmad

English Department
College of Sciences and Arts, Annamas,
University of Bisha, KSA
(Previously a faculty member at Ibb, Yemen)
Annamas, 61977
Po Box # 101
Asir, KSA

Abstract

This study aims to find out the extent to which classroom instruction in teaching English as a foreign language in the departments of English is learner-centered. The study combines between the elements of a case study, descriptive and self-reflective techniques. The subjects are the teachers and students of English in the college of Sciences and Arts, University of Bisha, Saudi Arabia. To collect the relevant data, the researcher used the tools of a questionnaire and unconstructed observations. The questionnaire is used to find out the extent to which teachers are aware of the concept of learner-centeredness, and the observations are used to note down the behavior of the teachers and students in the teaching/learning process. The observations are a kind of self-reflection notes resulted from my teaching experience in the English teaching field. The findings show that teachers surveyed are not aware of the concept, and when appear to be aware they give contradictory responses about the concept of learner-centeredness. The results from the self-reflection observations appear in the form of different constraints in the way of learner-centered instruction. These constraints are those related to students, teachers, system and family. The most important among these constraints are the ones related to students' lack of motivation to learn. Awareness constraints on part of the different participants comes next. The paper concludes that different types of constraints stand in the way of implementing learner-centered instruction (LCI). Some recommendations and suggestions are offered for a better use of this approach.

Keywords: English, instruction, learner-centered, students

Introduction

Learner-centeredness is the vogue of the day in the field of education in general and in second and foreign language instruction in particular. Teaching can be either teacher-centered or student-centered or a combination of both. Teacher-centered teaching has been in practice for centuries. Learner-centered instruction, on the other hand is quite a recent approach. It has been growing rapidly for the past three decades. Now it seems to have won ground over traditional teacher-centered instruction in many educational institutions and among educationists' circles in many parts of the world. The shift of emphasis from teacher-centeredness to that of the centeredness of the learner is due to what is believed to be the failure of teacher-centered instruction style to prepare the learner to cope with the demands of the ever-changing and challenging life socially, politically and economically. At the same time, educators concerned with the growing problems of school dropout, low levels of academic achievement, and other indicators of school failure have been arguing for more learner-centered models of instruction. Such models attend to the diversity among students and to the use this diversity to enrich learning and to produce results within the context of current school reform (BEA, 1997).

Memorization, or rote learning and repetition, characteristic of teacher-centeredness, have come short to prepare the learner to survive the present challenging society, which requires an individual equipped with the strategies, skills, and other thinking abilities that entail him to take responsibility of his learning and cope with the ever-changing demands. "The meaning of knowing has shifted from being able to remember and repeat information to being able to find and use it" (Doyle, 2008, p3). Furthermore, politically, democratic systems have given a unique place to the individual citizen to exercise his freedom to choose whom to represent and even rule him. So is the case in the field of economy where the emphasis has shifted to the individual customer. This means learners need to learn lifelong learning skills they need to live successfully in an ever-expanding global economy (Doyle, 2008). In response to all this, education has started to pay attention to the learner rather than to the teacher, or the content, to learning rather than to teaching. Here comes the idea of learner-centered approach, which takes the learner as the focus of the whole teaching learning process.

However, in spite of this wide spread use of learner-centered instruction in all fields and particularly in the field of foreign and second language education, most of our language teaching educational institutions are still under the dominance of the traditional teacher-centered styles (Liu, Qiao, & Liu, 2006). This paper is an attempt to investigate where our institutions stand with regard to the implementation of learner-centered instruction (LCI) in the field of English language instruction.

Historical Background to LCI

The philosophy of the concept of learner-centered instruction is not new (Norman & Spohrer, 1996). It has been there centuries long. One can trace its roots back to Plato and Aristotle's ideas in which they claimed that true knowledge is within each individual and the process of learning consists of discovering that which is within each individual (Al-Maktri, 2002). This concept also has been credited as early as 1905 to Hayward and in 1956 to Dewey's work (O'Sullivan, 2003). Arab philosophers share this; Khalil Jubran, for example, sees that knowledge is within each learner, and what is needed is only a skilful teacher to dig that knowledge out (Al-Maktri, 2002).

In America the term learner-centered was used as early as 1930. (Hidden curriculum, 2014). However, as an approach to teaching and learning, one can trace it to the writings of Dewey and Piaget and more recently to Malcolm (Wikipedia, 2015). The shift of emphasis from the teacher to that on the learner in practice took place in the 1970s onwards (Oller & Richards, 1973).

The idea of learner-centeredness was driven by the need for change in the traditional environment where the students became passive, apathetic and bored. At school level, the idea of 'child-centeredness' connected with the claim that the teacher should not interfere with the child process of maturation. In other words, the point was that the child will learn only when he is ready. The teacher should act as a guide, facilitator, and stimulator. The students are not empty vessels to be filled with knowledge and information by the teacher. Rather, they are human beings who are as able as the teacher himself is and who can take responsibility of their own learning. This way, the paradigm started to shift away from an emphasis on teaching to an emphasis on learning which means a shift of power from the teacher to that on the learner or student (AL-Huneidi & Schreurs, 2013).

The theoretical framework relates to the constructivist view of learning in the importance it places on learner's discovery and independence and on classroom activities. This theory of education and learning rests on the work of a variety of psychologists and philosophers, most notably Piaget, Bruner, Von Glaserfeld, and Vygotsky (Weimer, 2013).

At the core of this constructivists' view is the relationship between learners and content. Constructivist approaches emphasize learners' actively constructing their own knowledge rather than passively receiving information transmitted to them from teachers and textbooks. From a constructivist perspective, knowledge cannot simply be given to learners: learners must construct their own meanings (Stage, et.al. 1998). In a learner-centered paradigm, knowledge is constructed by students through gathering and synthesizing information and integrating such information with skills such as inquiry, communication, and critical and creative thinking (Huba & Freed, 2000).

In the field second language learning, different teaching approaches emerged in harmony with this shift. We have those approaches, like the humanistic approaches, which advocate the concept of the learner as a whole-person in which not only his intellect but also his feelings, wishes, attitudes and other affective elements have to be considered (Larsen-Freeman, 2008). Other approaches in same line also advocated the idea that learning can take place only when the learner is ready for it.

Now the idea of learner-centered has become the rule rather than the exception in most of language educational institutions around the globe particularly in the developed world. This means, teachers need to allow learners to raise their own questions, generate their own hypotheses and models as possibilities and test them for validity. Education is now changing from an instructor-centered to a student-centered paradigm.

Objectives

The study tries to fulfill a number of objectives among which are the following:

1. finding out the extent to which teachers and students are aware of the concept and nature of the learner-centered approach.
2. examining the current position of learner-centered instruction in our English departments.
3. examining the constraints and difficulties that hinder a full application of the learner-centered approach.

Study Questions

1. To what extent are teachers and students aware of learner-centered (LC) approach?
2. To what extent is the current English instruction learner-centered?
3. What are the constraints and difficulties that stand in the way of implementing this approach?

The Significance of the Study

The study is significant as it deals with one of the topics that are of concern to teachers, educationists, and to the teaching and learning process as a whole. Learner-centered instruction now is the rule rather than the exception in many educational institutions around the globe. However, educational institutions, in the Arab World, regarding the use of this approach, seem to lag behind. Though some educational institutions claim that their instruction is learner-centered, this is not the case; learner-centered teaching and learning is still a wish not a reality. The traditional teacher-fronted style of teaching is still dominant. This paper tries to find out and reflect on the status of learner-centeredness in English instruction in the departments of English. This topic is important as learner-centered instruction is in accordance with demands of the current time in that it responds to the individual learner who is considered a central in the teaching learning process. Learners do not have only to receive knowledge from teachers; rather they must construct their own meanings (Stage et al., 1998). Adopting this approach may help prepare students to be independent and responsible individuals equipped with the skills, abilities and knowledge that help them to be active and productive citizens capable of facing the challenges of the fast ever-changing and demanding modern age. Therefore, this study is in response to the needs of the individual students and to the requirements of the society at large.

Study Delimitations

A delimitation of this study involved the selection of a single institution namely the Department of English, College of Sciences and Arts in Annamas town (Saudi Arabia) because the researcher-teacher is a member of the teaching staff there. Other institutions are not included now due to practical constraints. They can be the target of further studies.

Definition of the Term

For the purpose of this study, the following definition is adopted:

Student-centered instruction [SCI] is an instructional approach in which students influence the content, activities, materials, and pace of learning. This learning model places the student (learner) in the center of the learning process. The instructor provides students with opportunities to learn independently and from one another and coaches them in the skills they need to do so effectively (Froyd & Simpson, 2003 & Collins & O'Brien as cited in Froyd & Simpson 2003).

Literature Review

Learner-centered instruction is claimed to be widespread. However, the actual practice belies this claim. Lea et al. (2003, P.322) maintain that one of the issues with student-centered learning is the fact that 'many institutions or educators claim to be putting student-centered learning into practice, but in reality they are not'. The following studies give us some idea of about the status of learner-centered instruction in different institutions and contexts.

In a number of research studies, findings show that though the learner-centered approach is acknowledged for being the right approach for the present time, yet actual practice at universities is still teacher-centered. One of these studies by Liu et al.(2006), the findings indicate that instructors whether are they of language or content subjects still use traditional, teacher-centered styles in university settings.

Shipton (2011) conducted a study in the New South Wales (NSW) Police College with the aim to determine Police College staff dominant teaching approach prior to extensive staff development that commenced in 2010. The results highlight contradictions in the survey findings, with responses to closed questions indicating a majority favoring learner-centered approaches, while responses to open-ended questions suggest staff tend to be more teacher-centered. Discussion of these results highlights several possible reasons for this contradiction and suggests that further development of staff teaching conceptions is required to encourage reflective practice and the use of learner-centered approaches crucial to the facilitation of problem based learning.

A quantitative study by Ervin (2012) identified the teaching style of associate degree nursing faculty at Kettering College as teacher-centered or learner-centered. Results from the faculty and student surveys demonstrated teacher-centered tendencies concerning faculty use of learner centered principles. While content analysis of course syllabi showed a propensity for learner-centered instruction.

Another exploratory study for the same purpose using PALS measure (Conti, 1989) indicated that there were two types of teaching style among graduate education instructors at the Midwestern University. Yet, the tendency was geared toward learner-centered rather than teacher-centered teaching style (Ahmed, 2013)

Some of the papers are meta-analyses that synthesize results from numerous individual studies. These results confirm positive influences of student-centered learning approaches to teaching on academic performance, attitudes toward learning, and persistence in programs. In light of the growing evidence on the effectiveness of student-centered, learning approaches (Froyd & Simpson, 2003).

According to Handelsman et al (2004), there is mounting evidence that supplementing or replacing lectures with active learning strategies and engaging students in discovery and scientific process improves learning and knowledge retention.

The Method

The method used in this study is descriptive, analytical, and reflective type of method in which the actual personal experience and observations of researcher-teacher are used as a main source of the data. It also has the features of a case study and action research through the researcher's daily contact with teachers and students. A questionnaire is administered to teachers to find out the extent of their awareness of the learner-centered approach (LCA).

The Setting and Subjects

The setting is the Department of English, boys College of Sciences and Arts, Annamas town, University of Bisha, Saudi Arabia. The subjects of the study are the ten teachers (all those available) of English and the whole students in the department.

Data Collection

The following tools are used to gather the relevant data:

1. A questionnaire

The questionnaire is used to consolidate the data generated from the researcher's experience (Self-reflection). It is administered to the teachers of English for purpose of finding out how well they understand the concept of learner-centeredness. The questions of the questionnaire are simple and brief asking the teachers: (1) if they have heard about the concept of learner-centeredness; (2) if they understand the concept; (3) if they agree with the idea that the students should be independent from the teacher; (3) and finally, they ask about their views of who is the most important among the following three elements in the teaching-learning process: the teacher, the students or the teaching-learning materials. Generally speaking, these questions elicit if the teachers concerned are aware of the learner-centered approach (LCA) and its concept.

2. The researcher's personal experience (self-reflection)

The researcher teacher has been teaching English and training teachers of English as a foreign language for over thirty years. His teaching included different types of students from primary to college students. He also trained teachers of English of both genders. In addition, he has conducted a number of studies in the field of English and in the area of learner-centeredness in particular. His PhD thesis was on this very topic: learner-centeredness. Therefore, reflecting on this experience is valuable in providing first hand data on the topic under discussion. In addition, the researcher's daily contact with teachers and students consolidates this reflective experience.

Data Analysis

The interpretive (namely percentages) method is used to analyze the data obtained from the questionnaire. Those obtained from the self-reflection are analyzed descriptively.

Results

Results of the Questionnaire

Data obtained from the questionnaire are give in the following tables: Table 1 shows responses to the first three questions:

1. Have you heard about learner-centered approach?
2. What does the concept of learner-centeredness mean?
3. Do you think students should be independent from the teacher?

Table 1. Knowing About the Learner-centeredness

If teachers have heard about Learner-centeredness		understanding the concept LCA	If students should be independent from the teacher
Yes	87.5 %	37.5%	37.5%
No	12.5%	62.5%	62.5%

Table2 contains responses to the fourth question:

Put the three elements in order of importance: teacher, student, textbook (materials).

Table 2. The most Important Element as Perceived by the Sample

Teacher	Student	Textbook
%62.5	%37.5	% 0

Results of the Experience Observations

Table 3 shows the most important observations from my experience in the field.

Table3. Results of Researcher's Personal Experience (Self-reflection)

No	Students-related Constraints
1	The majority of students are not motivated to learn English
2	Students are not willing to work in groups or teams
3	Students' lack of confidence and courage to be active
4	Low level of language proficiency on the part of students
5	Lack of awareness about the nature of learner-centeredness
6	Lack of awareness about the nature of language and language learning
7	Students are happy to be under the teacher control
8	Students are not accustomed to learner-centered assessment
9	Female students are slightly more motivated than males
	Teacher-related Constraints
1	Teachers' lack of awareness of LCI
2	Teachers are not ready to change roles
3	Problems with disciplines with LCI
4	Teaching under learner-centeredness is demanding
5	Teachers not used to behave in a democratic way
6	Teachers are not trained in LCI
7	Female teachers are less enthusiastic than male teachers to use LCA
	System-related Constraints
1	Educational system is still centralized.
2	Traditional system of assessment is dominating
3	Lack of LC related materials and resources
4	Crowded classes
	Family-related Constraints
1	Parents are not aware of the need to learner-centered instruction
2	Parents too busy to bother about their children education

Results Discussion

The Questionnaire

Table1 provides us data for the three questions in the preceding section as follows: a majority of about 87.5% says they have heard about the concept of learner-centered approach. Only 12.5 % say they have not. This is a good beginning to say that a majority knows learner-centeredness. However, in answering the other three remaining questions, we can identify clear contradictions of the sample. As for question two, only 37.5 % seem to say they understand the concept of learner-centeredness. A majority of 62.5 % does not have clear idea about it. They give either wrong or at best vague understanding. The same happens with the third question, which inquires whether teachers agree that the student should be independent from the teacher. A majority of 62.5 % does not agree that students should be independent from the teacher. This contradicts the core of the idea of learner-centeredness.

In Table 2, the respondents [teachers] are asked to order the three elements of the teaching/learning process i.e., the student, the teacher and the textbook, from the most important to the least important. The order they gave was as follows: the teacher comes first as the most important with 62.5%. Next comes the 'student' with 37.5%. The textbook comes last with 0%. This shows that the respondents do not have a clear understanding of the approach and the concept of learner-centeredness, which considers the learner the most important element in the teaching/learning process.

All this tells us that implementing learner-centeredness is not feasible in such environment where the teachers do not have clear understanding of the concept and the rationale behind it. This way, the first study question about whether the teachers are aware of the concept of learner-centeredness is answered that teachers generally are not aware of the learner-centeredness. This in turn, tells us that these teachers do not use learner-centered instruction.

Results of the Researcher's Personal Experience (Self-reflection)

The most salient observations given in Table 3 are classified as constraints in the way of implementing learner-centered approach. These constraints are put in the following categories: student-related, teacher-related, educational system-related and family-related:

Student-related Constraints

1. One of the major difficulties facing learner-centered instruction in our context is the one related to students' motivation. Most of the students are not motivated not only to learn under learner-centeredness but also to learn under any circumstances. If motivation is lacking then no real learning is expected. The matter becomes even worse when it comes to implement learner-centered instruction, which demands that students are highly involved in the learning process and motivation is a prerequisite for that. When motivation is lacking, learning is doomed to failure. A learner-centered student is an engaged one, and an engaged student is a motivated student. It is assumed that only when students are active participants, learning will be deep, enduring, and enjoyable, and transfer to contexts beyond the classroom (Walczyk & Ramsey, 2003).

Motivation, which correlates well with time on task, can make more of a difference between success and failure than any other factor (Ervin, 2012). What and how much is learned is influenced by the learner's motivation. Motivation to learn, in turn, is influenced

by the individual's emotional states, beliefs, interests, goals, and habits of thinking (McCumbs, 2004, p 6). When a teacher starts to use learner-centered techniques, he is faced with students who are already too passive to take any active part in the learner-centered activities.

Now it is argued that learner-centered instruction helps to increase motivation to learn (Collins & O'Brien, 2003). This means that we have only to start using learner-centered techniques, then motivation will take care of itself. However, this is not always the case. Learner-centered instruction can motivate only those who enjoy some level motivation. For those who motivation is at zero level, learner-centered is useless. Of course, why is it the case that our students are not motivated to learn is a long story and it not the right time and place to go to that issue now.

2. Closely related to the negative motivation of the students, is the idea that they are not willing to work in groups and teams (collaborative learning), which is characteristic of learner-centered approach. The researcher has always observed that whenever we ask the students to work in pairs, groups, or teams, they show discomfort and resistance. In contrast to what Doyle (2008) says that students need to be persuaded that learning is the central purpose of their schooling..., here students are not even ready to be persuaded. When the teacher tries to involve them, they feel that they are under threat and they feel insecure. Cooperative and collaborative learning – modes of learner-centeredness were found not to appeal to the learners who enjoy following the teacher doing the job for them. Moreover, these modes require that a student handle the group activities, which require them to use English to communicate.

3. Another constraint is the lack of courage and confidence on the part of the students to take an active part in the different learner-centered activities. In addition, students do not exert the required effort to practice and use what they have learned in classroom. This makes them underachievers lacking even the basics to communicate in English. Language acquisition is of a sophisticated nature and classroom lessons and lectures are not enough; more practice with active involvement and real interest on the part of the students is required. Acquisition of complex knowledge and skills requires extended student effort and guided practice. Without learners' motivation to learn, the willingness to exert this effort is unlikely without coercion (BEA, 1997).

4. Low English proficiency of the students is another constraint in the way of learner-centered instruction. The students come to class with a very low level of English. Their learning English in earlier stages does not seem to help them have a reasonable command of the basics of English. This is also true to the same students even after two to four years of studying English; they show little improvement. After all, learner-centered activities require some English for simple communication to take place and for a learner-centered activity to be successful.

5. Lack of awareness is another problem. The students are not aware of the learner-centered concept; they do not know other related ideas such as self-learning, learner autonomy, and the shift of the roles of both the teacher and student in the learning process ...etc. "They are not aware that the key idea is that students actively construct their own knowledge..." (Al-Huneidi & Schreurs, 2013). They do not know that learning is active mental work, not passive reception of teaching and that the teacher may teach but the learner may not learn.

6. Students have either old or misconceptions about what the nature of language is and how it is learned. This is also true about their knowledge of the nature of learning and the process of learning. Such misunderstanding makes learner-centered instruction difficult. For example, they think that to learn a language, you have to learn its grammar and vocabulary; or that memorization and rote learning are the only means to learn; or just to be in classroom is enough to learn a foreign language.

7. Due to the low levels of motivation and proficiency, and due to the absence of clear learning goals, and lack of awareness of the concept of learner-centeredness students are comfortable to be under the teacher's control and protection. This is because this state releases them from the responsibility to play an active role. Difficulty of get rid of deeply rooted habits of being passive receivers of knowledge and that it is the teacher whose job is to impart and clarify everything for the students, all contributes to passiveness of the students and the acceptance to the status quo on the part of the teachers. When the teacher wants to make activities learner-centered, the students feel insecure. Therefore, the students feel happy to be under the teacher control and to let him do the job of both teaching and learning for them.

8. Assessing students using learner-centered techniques can be a potential threat to students. It is informal and based mostly on formative or cumulative (Doyle, 2008) rather than summative assessment (Liu et al. 2006). They are accustomed to more summative assessment where they expect formal tests with grades and marks, and to evaluate them informally through self-evaluation, peer evaluation, self reflection, using reflective journals assignments, files, blogs ...etc is too demanding and they will not respond to it easily. Students do not bother even to bring simple stationeries like pens and notebooks to classes let alone using such learner-centered devices.

9. Compared to their male counterparts, girls are slightly more motivated to learn than boys are. They are better achievers under teacher-centered mode, and are more involved in classroom activities, which means if learner-centered instruction is used they can adapt to it more readily than boys do.

Teacher-related Constraints

1. Like students, many teachers are not aware of the learner-centeredness concept, and when they happen to know it, it is hazy and incomplete. This is also in agreement with what results have shown in the questionnaire.

2. When teachers happen to be aware of the learner-centeredness, not all of them are ready to exchange role with and give their traditional power to the students. They cannot even imagine how the situation will be under the mercy of the students.

3. The idea of power shift from teachers to students implies that teachers have to be prepared to confront problems of discipline, which already poses problems even under teacher-centered mode. This will be unbearable to many. In an environment where people are not used to the free atmosphere, this freedom is either misunderstood or misused by the people concerned. This is the

situation with our students. Many teachers see students' lack of motivation as a factor that undermines in them any desire to attempt to implement learner-centered approach.

4. Learner-centered teaching requires more work on the part of instructors than traditional lecture –recitation – evaluation mode in planning for, delivering and assessing instruction. (Walczyk & Ramsey, 2003). It is demanding compared to teacher-centered mode. The teacher has to do a lot to cope with the different needs of the students. In addition, classroom organization is different from the teacher-fronted one. It requires some skills and effort from the teacher. Dealing with the differences between students requires some effort on the part of the teacher. He needs to provide different materials and arrange different activities that suit each individual or at best each group of individuals. This is not the case with the traditional teacher-centered instruction. In addition, the teacher has to be equipped with different skills to deal with the rising problems and situations and this is not always possible with many teachers. Moreover, he must be well versed not only with the language but also with general knowledge to handle the students' needs, questions and enquiries.

5. The idea of democratic behavior is central to learner-centered instruction. The teachers must be prepared to behave democratically which may not be so easy to many teachers as they are not of the habit of behaving so. Most faculty often teach in the same way they were taught (Brookfield, 1995 & Gardiner, 1994). Moreover, democratic behavior means that a teacher has to expose himself as vulnerable and accept criticism from the students, which is not a welcomed gesture.

6. Teachers are not trained to handle learner-centered techniques and activates. Teachers in our case come from countries with different backgrounds and qualifications. These backgrounds have not yet embarked on learner-centered instruction. Therefore, we cannot expect them to be learner-center oriented without some training and more experience to deal with this approach.

7. Compared to their male counterparts, female teachers are less ready to change role and adopt learner-centered instruction. They are usually more teacher-centered oriented. They are not aware of the importance of this mode of instruction, and therefore, their change may take longer time to change. Reasons for are beyond the scope of this paper.

System - related Constraints

1. The present educational system is essentially teacher-centered though teachers frequently are demanded to make use of learner-centered instruction. As Weimer (2002) makes the observation, that for the most part, decisions about the course are made by the instructor; he prepares the content, the schedule, the conditions for learning, the attendance policies, and the evaluation process. She adds that the very language used to communicate this information is in the form of heavy-handed directives which make clear that the teacher is in charge. These decisions, however, are imposed on the teacher from higher authority. For example, teachers are given a prescribed syllable and are required to finish it in a given and pre-specified period of time, usually a semester. When the course is not completed in the given time, teachers have to explain the reasons of not finishing the syllabus. So, on one hand, teachers are asked to use learner-centered techniques and on the other, they are instructed not to do so by restricting their freedom of choice and telling them to cover certain topics of the syllabus and do that in a given time.

2. The whole administrative system has to follow an already defined program where little freedom of choice is given to the syllabus designer or teacher. When an enthusiastic teacher tries to implement learner-centered techniques or use learner-based activities, he is faced with such difficulties like the need to follow a prescribed syllabus and finish it in a given time or to teach certain topics not of his or of the student's choice.

3. The current assessment system poses problems. Since teaching is still traditional, so assessment is. The major concern of traditional teaching methods is effectiveness: how much students learn. This effectiveness is measured through the only method of testing. Traditional tests measure declarative knowledge: learned recitations and applications to small problems. They do not necessarily address depth of understanding nor the skills that the students have acquired (Norman & Spohrer, 1996). Assessing students using learner-centered techniques is different and measures different skills and abilities like thinking, both critically and creatively, deep understanding, evaluating and so on. The traditional tests may not be used under learner-centered style. New techniques are used, like self-evaluation or peer-evaluation through using journals, files, blogs diaries profiles and projects (Gibbs, 1995). This kind of assessment can not only be demanding but also threatening to students and teachers.

4. Learner-centered instruction means that enough resources must be available and ready for both learners and teachers from which the students can choose to study and from which the teachers can select and give tasks and arrange activities and so on. This is not always possible. Moreover, well-equipped and up-to-date libraries are not yet available.

5. Learner-centered instruction requires small numbers of students in classes so that a teacher can use different group work activities. This is not the case in most situations where the average number of students in a class can reach fifty students.

Family-related Constraints

1. Families are not aware of the nature and importance of learner-centered education. They hold traditional beliefs about teaching and learning; For example, most, if not all parents still think that it is the teacher who is the most important element, who can determine the success or failure of their children. When their children get high scores, they attribute that to the teacher who is then viewed as good and skilful, When their children fail, it the teacher who is to blame.

2. The family, due to their having little education or due to their having many children, offer little help and spend little time on their children to help them depend on themselves and train them to be learner-centered and learn by themselves. Moreover, even when parents are educated, they are not aware of the concept of learner-centeredness, and what it means for their children to be learner-centered.

Conclusions

1. Learner-centered instruction is not currently in use in English education in the department of English in the Saudi Arabian universities. Attempts by those who try to use it are faced with many constraints related to students, teachers, the current educational system, and family-related ones.

2. Lack of motivation to learn English on the part of the learners is a major factor for not implementing the approach by teachers not only at present but also in the near future.

3. Lack of awareness about the rationale and advantages of LCI on the part of teachers, learners and parents presents another difficulty.
4. Long rooted habits of learning like rote learning and having misconceptions about the nature of language and how it is learned plays a negative role in adopting learner-centered instruction.
5. Other difficulties related to the whole system like that of assessment and the rigid syllabus prescription, the large numbers of students in a classroom and so on; all this poses serious obstacles to make real progress with learner-centered instruction.
6. Family's traditional beliefs about education in general and about the changed roles of the learner and teacher contribute to the fact that learning and teaching remain teacher-centered.
7. Though female students are more motivated to learn, female teachers are less ready to adapt to the LCI mode.

Recommendations

It is recommended that

1. educationists and policymakers should reexamine the nature of the present system and curriculum at all levels, whether of schools or higher education, and should make the necessary changes to accommodate learner-centered instruction.
2. teachers need to be acquainted and trained to use the learner-centered approach.
3. teachers should try to do their best to encourage and motivate students to work hard and take active part in classroom.
4. teachers should start making use of the techniques that are based on learner-centered learning.
5. teachers are required to familiarize their students with the concept and the requirement of approach of learner-centeredness.
6. teachers, students and parents have to accept change of role as a requirement and style of modern life.
7. teachers should try to adapt the prescribed textbooks to be more-learner-centered. They should start to adopt, adapt and use learner-centered assessment techniques that are possible and easy to use.
8. parents should be familiarized with the necessity to help their children to depend on themselves. This can be done through intensive programs by using different means including the mass media and the social net works.
9. parents also should be alerted to the causes of the lack of motivation of their children to learn.

Suggestions

1. Lack of motivation to learn is common among a large number of students. This needs to be taken seriously by all concerned: administrators, educationists, education policy makers, teachers, parents, and the whole society. All need to take action to find out the reasons behind this problem.
2. Research studies should be conducted to find out the pitfalls of the whole educational system in relation to learner-centeredness.
3. A more comprehensive study is needed that encompass a larger population of learners of both genders to find out about the status of implementing learner-centered instruction.

About the Author

Mahmoud Ahmad Thabet al-Maqtri is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics in the Department of English, College of Sciences and Arts, University of Bisha, Kingdom of Saudi

Arabia. Previously He was a faculty member at Ibb University, Yemen. He headed English Department till 2015 in both universities.

References

- Ahmed, K. A. (2013, February). Teacher-centered Versus Learner –centered Teaching Style. *The Journal of Global Business Management*, 9(1) 21-34.
- Al-Huneidi, A. & Schreurs, J. (2013). Constructivism Based Blended Learning in Higher education. In *Information Systems, E-learning, and Knowledge Management Research* (pp. 581-591). Springer, Berlin Heidelberg.
- Al-maktri, M.A. (2002), *The Feasibility of Adopting a Learner-centered Approach to ELT in Secondary Schoosl in Sana'a(Yemen)*. (Unpublished doctorate Dissertation). Sindh University, Sindh, Pakistan.
- BEA, (1997). Learner-centered Psychological Principles: A framework for school reform & redesign. Prepared by American Psychological Association. Available at <http://www.apa.org/ed/governance/bea/learner-centered.pdf>
- Brookfield, S. (1995). *Becoming a Critically Reflective Teacher*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Conti, G. (1989). Assessing Teaching Style in Continuing Education. In E. Hayes (Ed.), *Effective Teaching Styles*, 43, (pp. 2-16). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Doyle, T. (2008). *Helping Students Learn in Learner-centered Environment*. Stylus Publishing, LLC.
- Ervin, B. J. (2012). *Learner-centered Education: Bridging the gap between ideal and actual practice* (Doctoral dissertation), University of Dayton. Available at Higher & Continuing Education > ... > www.amazon.com
- Froyd, J. & Simpson, N. (2003). Student-centered Learning Addressing Faculty Questions about Student-centered Learning. Texas A&M University. Available at <https://books.google.com>
- Gardiner, L.F. (1994). Redesigning *Higher Education: Producing Dramatic Gains in Student Learning*. Washington, DC: George Washington University. Available at <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED394442.pdf>
- Gibbs, G. (1995). Assessing Student- centered Courses. Oxford: Oxford Centre for Staff Learning and Development.
- Handelsman, J., Ebert-May, D., Beichner, R., Bruns, P., Chang, A., DeHaan, R., et al. (2004).Scientific Teaching. *Science* 304(5670), 521–522. Available at <http://www.sciencemag.org/>
- Hidden curriculum (2014, August 26). In S. Abbott (Ed.), *The Glossary of Education Reform*. Available at <http://edglossary.org/hidden-curriculum>.
- Huba, M. E., and Freed, J. (2000). *Learner-Centered Assessment on College Campuses: Shifting the Focus from Teaching to Learning*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Jeffrey J. Walczyk, J. & Ramsey, L. (2003). Use of Learner-centered Instruction in College Science and Mathematics Classrooms. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*. 40(6), 566 –584.
- King, M.J. (2000). *Learner-centered Teacher Beliefs and Student-perceived Teaching Effectiveness*. PhD Dissertation. University of North Texas. Available at

- digital.library.unt.edu/ark:/67531/.../Dissertation.pdf
- Larsen-Freeman, Daine (2008). *Techniques and Principles in Language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lea, S. J., D. Stephenson, & Troy, J. (2003). Higher Education Students' Attitudes to Student Centered Learning: Beyond 'educational bulimia'. As cited in O'Neill and McMahon (2014). Student-centered learning: What does it mean for students and lecturers? Available at <http://www.aishe.org/readings/2005-1/oneill-mcmahon-Tues>
- Liu, R., Qiao, X., & Liu, Y. (2006). A Paradigm Shift of Learner-centered Teaching Style: Reality or illusion? *Arizona Working papers in SLAT*, 13, 77-91.
- McCumbs, B. (2004). Learner-centered Principles and Practices: Enhancing motivation and achievement for children with learning challenges and disabilities. *International Review of Research in Mental Retardation*, 28, 85-120. Available at <http://www.researchgate.net/>
- Norman, D. A. & Spohrer, J. C. (1996). Learner- centered Education. *Communications of the ACM*, 39, (2), 4-27. Available at <https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q>
- Oller Jr, J. W., & Richards, J. C. (1973). *Focus on the Learner: Pragmatic perspectives for the language teacher*. Rowley, Newbury House Publishers.
- O'Sullivan, M. (2004). The Reconceptualisation of Learner-centered Approaches: A Namibian case study. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 24(6), 585–602.
- Shipton, B. (2011). Expanding police Educators' Understanding of Teaching, are they as Learner-centered as they Think? *Journal of Learning Design*, 4 (2), 1-19.
- Stage, F. K., Muller, P., Kinzie, J., & Simmons, A. (1998). Creating Learning Centered Classrooms. What does learning theory have to say? *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report*, 26, (4). ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education, One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 630, Washington, DC 20036-1183; toll-free.
- Walczyk, J. Ramsey, L. (2003). Use of Learner-Centered Instruction in College Science and Mathematics Classrooms. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 40, (6). 566–584.
- Weimer, M. (2013). *Learner-Centered Teaching: Five key changes to practice*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Weimer, M. (2002). In Liu, R., Qiao, X., & Liu, Y. (2006). A Paradigm Shift of Learner-centered Teaching Style: Reality or illusion? *Arizona Working papers in SLAT*, 13, 77-91

Does Student Self-Assessment Assess as Valid and Reliable as Teacher Assessment?

Abdul Muth'im

English Education Study Program
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Lambung Mangkurat University, Banjarmasin
South Kalimantan, Indonesia

Abstract

Assessment is an integral part of instruction. As one form of assessment, self-assessment is relatively rarely used in writing class. This might be because its validity and reliability is still in question. This research aims at finding (1) whether students assess their writing tasks the same as their teacher does, (2) if they assess differently, why they do it differently. Twenty four students who were taking Writing IV course were involved in this study. The research method used was a mix of quantitative and qualitative descriptive. For one semester the students were taught to write an essay in English. Strategies on how to get an idea, to organize idea, to implement proper language use, to choose appropriate vocabulary, and to use mechanics (e.g. punctuation, spelling and capitalization) were intensively discussed. Along with the activities they were encouraged to implement the feedback received in their writing tasks. Finally, at the end of semester, an assessment was done. The writing task was not merely assessed by the teacher. The students were also given trust and responsibility to assess their own writing tasks. The results of the two assessments were compared. It was found that, in general, the results of assessment represented by scores given by the students did not much differ significantly from the scores given by the teacher. This implied that self- assessment can be as valid and reliable as teacher-assessment if students were properly and adequately trained by teacher.

Key words: essay, score, self-assessment, teacher assessment

Introduction

Assessment is an integral part of teaching and learning program. As an integral part of teaching and learning, assessment may be used for different purposes, such as (a) checking whether the goal or the objective(s) of teaching and learning is/are attained, (b) determining whether the teaching and learning materials are suitable for certain group of students, whether the methods and techniques of teaching and learning are appropriate for the students, and whether the learning experience provided are stimulating learning. In other words, assessment can be used as a means of determining whether instructional objective(s) or purpose(s) are achieved. Wiliam (2013) believes that “it is only through assessment that we can discover whether the instructional activities in which we engaged our students resulted in the intended learning” (p. 15). New Zealand Ministry of Education (2007, p. 39 in Earl & Giles, 2011) state that “the primary purpose of assessment is to improve students’ learning and teachers’ teaching as both student and teacher respond to the information that it provides” (Earl & Giles, p. 12). Boud (1995 in Spiller, 2012) argued that all assessment including self-assessment comprises two main elements: making decisions about the standards of performance expected and then making judgments about the quality of the performance in relation to these standards.

Assessment is understood in a variety of definitions. The New Zealand Ministry of Education, as reported in *The Literacy and Numeracy Secretariat Capacity Building Series*, define assessment as the process of gathering information ... from a variety of sources that accurately reflect how well a student is achieving the curriculum expectation in a subject (2012). Joice, et al. (2009) define assessment as collecting information on student learning or performance based on various sources of evidence. Miller (2008, p. 2) defines assessment “as a broader term than tests and encompasses the general process of collecting, synthesizing, and interpreting formal and informal measurement. Assessment provides information about individual or group over time”.

Assessment, in accordance with Gronlund and Waugh (2009) can be administered in different phases of instruction. It can be administered at the beginning of instruction, during instruction and at the end of instruction. The first is called *placement assessment*, the second one is called *formative and diagnostic assessment*, and the last is called *summative assessment*. At the beginning of instruction, the *questions* that need to be answered are to what extent do the students possess the skills and abilities that are needed to begin instruction, and to what extent have the students already achieved of the planned instruction. During instruction, the questions that must be answered are on which learning tasks are the students progressing satisfactorily? On which ones do they need help?, and which students are having such severe learning problems that they need remedial work? At the end of instruction, the questions that must be answered are which students have mastered the learning tasks to such a degree that they should proceed to the next course or unit of instruction, and what grade should be assigned to each student?

Earl & Giles (2011) group assessment into three categories: assessment of learning, assessment for learning, and assessment as learning. Assessment of learning, which is also called summative for assessment purposes, in accordance with Krause, et al. (2003, in Earl & Giles, 2011) refers to ‘formal checks of learning outcomes that are conducted at the end of a teaching program. Assessment for learning, according to Black & William (1998), is defined as a range of informal and formal procedures undertaken by teachers as an integral part of the normal teaching

and learning. The information obtained via these procedures is used to modify and enhance learning and understanding. Whereas assessment as learning is comprehended as learning concept underscores that students should be valued participants in their own learning, anticipate receiving and utilizing constructive feedback and feed-forward and be able to identify their own learning gaps and solve their learning needs, with teacher assistance (Black & William, 2008 in Earl & Giles, 2011),.

Seen from its purpose, assessment is intended to (1) evaluate and improve student learning, (2) identify student strength and weaknesses, (3) assess the effectiveness of a particular instructional strategy, (4) evaluate and improve the effectiveness of curriculum programs, (5) evaluate and improve teaching effectiveness, and (6) communicate with parents and guardians and involve them in their children's learning (Kellough, 1993).

Self-assessment

Self-assessment, in accordance with Andrade & Du (2007), is defined as a process of formative assessment during which is a process students reflect on and evaluate the quality of their work and their learning, judge the degree to which they reflect explicitly stated goals or criteria, identify strengths and weaknesses in their work, and revise accordingly (in Spiller, 2012). McMillan & Hearn (2008), in the other hand, propose that self-assessment is more accurately defined as a process by which students 1) monitor and evaluate the quality of their thinking and behavior when learning and 2) identify strategies that improve their understanding". For Joyce, et al. (2009), self-assessment takes place if the student him/herself is involved in some or all aspects of assessment process. McMillan & Hearn (2008), suggest that self-assessment occurs when students judge their own work to improve performance as they identify discrepancies between current and desired performance (in Price, et al., 2011). Kayler & Weller, (2007); Mok et al., (2006) claim that self-assessment develops the self-judgmental ability of students through analysis of their own work in class and at home (in Amo & Jareño, 2011). Joice et al., (2009) argue that self-assessment is crucial for students because they not only have to gather evidence of their learning, but also analyze their work in terms of the goal/standard, make decisions about what they need to do to improve, know what to do to close the gap, and monitor their progress towards achieving this. Of course, the involvement of students in assessment depends very much on the teacher. If the teacher is committed to the learner-centered principles, he/she will be willing to get students involved in the assessment. Kayler & Weller (2007) state "Commitment to the learner-centered led us to involve students in the assessment of the pedagogy" (p. 136).

So far the most common means of assessment is the assessment done by teacher. That is why it is called teacher assessment. Yet, teacher assessment is not the only means which is claimed to be valid and reliable in assessing students' learning. There are other means of assessment which can also be used to assess students' learning, for instance, peer assessment and self-assessment.

Self-assessment, for example, is relatively rarely used in teaching and learning program. It is not known for sure why this kind of assessment is not used as a means of assessing students' learning. It might be related with its validity and reliability which are still in question. It is based on this phenomenon that this research is carried out. The questions that should be answered in

this study are: 1) Do students assess their writing tasks the same as their teacher does?, 2) if they assess their writing tasks differently, why do they do that?

Review of previous studies

Self-assessment has proven itself as an effective means of assessing students' learning. The results of a number of studies show this effectiveness. Noonan and Duncan (2005), in their study, for example, uncovered that peer and self-assessment useful and there is a potential for greater classroom applicability. The study carried out by Zheng, et al. (2012) reveal the following: (1) students could perform self-assessment in writing reasonably well, (2) the instruction of scoring rubric contributed to the improvement of self-assessment in writing and the overall improvement was significant (3) students' overall composition performance was enhanced. Price, et al. (2011) quoted various results of research on self-assessment. For instance, they quoted the studies conducted by H. Andrade & Valtcheva (2009); by Klenowski (1995); by McMillan & Hearn (2008). The results of those quoted research reveal that self-assessment can have positive effect on achievement, motivation, self-perception, communication, and behavior (in Price, et al., 2011). The other result of study quoted was the one conducted by McDonald & Bound (2003) who found that high school students who were trained in self-assessment not only felt better prepared for their external examinations, they actually outperformed their peers who had not received the training. The third result of study quoted was the one conducted by Ross (2006) who found that students across grade levels and subject areas including narrative writing, mathematics and geography outperformed their peers in the control group who had not received self-assessment training (in Price, et al. (2011). McMillan & Hearn (2008) argue that if it is correctly implemented, student self-assessment can promote intrinsic motivation, internally controlled effort, a mastery goal orientation, and more meaningful learning". Azorín (1991) argues that self-assessment has a number of additional advantages related both to the effective implication of students in introspecting about their learning processes and to students' participation in class management.

In summary, from what have been discussed above, Spiller (2012) drew conclusions that self-assessment had a number of advantages: for example, (a) the natural tendency to check out the progress of one's own learning is built, (b) the recognition of what is needed to be learned is only possible after further learning, (c) if a student can identify his/her learning progress, further learning may be motivated, (d) reflection on one's own learning is encouraged, (e) learner responsibility and independence can be promoted, (f) student's ownership of learning tasks be encouraged, (g) the focus of the tasks is shifted from something imposed by someone else to a potential partnership, (h) the formative aspects of assessment is emphasized, (i) a focus on process is encouraged, (j) diversity of learners' readiness, experience and backgrounds can be accommodated, (k) align well with the shift in the higher education literature from a focus on teacher performance to an emphasis on student learning is practiced, and (l) students in the formulation of criteria for self-assessment tasks are engaged to help them to deeper their understanding of what constitutes quality outcomes in a special area.

Assessing writing

Writing may be understood in different ways. Copying is the most basic and is considered as the simplest form of writing. Whereas composing an essay is considered to be the most difficult and complicated one. This can be implied from the definitions of writing given by

some experts for the latter. Byrne (1984), for instance, defines writing as the production of a sequence of sentences arranged in a particular order and linked together in certain ways. For Troyka (1987), writing is understood as a way of communicating a message to a reader for a purpose. Hammond (1989), on the other hand, defines writing as a complex task which requires everything from getting your spelling right to making your voice distinctive enough to be heard. Based on the definitions, it may be concluded that writing is a way of communicating ideas, opinions, feelings, wants, or wishes in the form of written language, called composition. To be more specific, it is the composition of essay.

In higher education context, the most common genre that second language learners usually produce is the genre of academic writing. Academic writing in accordance with Oshima & Hogue (2006) is the kind of writing used in high school and college classes. The kinds of writing that belong to this genre, according to Brown (2004), includes: papers and general subject report, essays, compositions, academically focused journal, short-answer test responses, technical reports, theses, and dissertation. The reasons why the teaching of writing in higher education context are emphasized on academic writing are (a) it does many of the things that personal writing does not such as its structure in which there should be beginning, middle, and end, (b) it is based on citation of published authors, (c) there are always rules of punctuation and grammar to be followed, and (d) academic topics traditionally focus on abstract things, like ideas and concepts (Bowker, 2007). In the context of genre-based writing teaching, Hyland (2007) claims “... people don’t just write, they write something to achieve some purpose: writing is a way of getting things done” (p. 5). This means that there are certain social conventions that should be followed in organizing the messages. Hyland (2007) argues that these conventions can be described and taught.

There are three scales used to assess writing assignment, namely primary trait scales, holistic scales, and analytic scales (Weigle, 2002). Primary trait scoring, in accordance with Weigle (2002) “lies on the philosophy that understanding how well students can write can be assessed through a limited range of discourse, e.g. persuasion or explanation” (p. 110). She then continues “in primary trait scoring, the rating scale is defined with respect to the specific writing assignment and essay is judged according to the degree of success with which the writer has carried out the assignment”. For this purpose, Weigle suggests the rater to create a scoring rubric in which the writing task, a statement of the primary rhetorical trait, a hypothesis about the expected performance on the task, a statement of the relationship between the task and the primary trait, a rating scale which articulates levels of performance, sample scripts at each level, and explanation of why each score was given should be included (Weigle, 2002).

Holistic scoring scale in accordance with Weigle (2002) is the way of assigning of a single score to a script based on the overall impression of the script. In quite different formulation Ferris & Hedgcock (2005) define holistic scoring as the way to rate or rank writing proficiency as reflected in a given sample based on the scoring rubrics provided. There are some advantages in using holistic scoring scale. Weigle (2002) argues that holistic scoring is faster (and therefore less expensive) to read a script once and assign a single score than to read it several times, each time focusing on a different aspect of writing. In addition to the above advantage, holistic scoring scale has another strength, that is, it is intended to focus the reader’s attention on the strength of the writing, not on its deficiencies. However, holistic scoring scale

also has some disadvantages. For example, in the second language context, a single score does not provide useful diagnostic information about a person's writing ability, whereas, this information is needed to improve students' learning. The reason is it does not allow raters to distinguish between various aspects of writing. The other disadvantage is that holistic scores are not always easy to interpret.

Analytic scoring in accordance with Weigle (2002) is a way of giving score to a script based on several aspects of writing or criteria rather than given a single score. Jacobs et al. (1981) suggest to use what they call ESL Composition Profile. This guideline suggests raters to focus on five components of writing, namely: content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. In an analytic scoring system, the rater relies on a rating guide that separates and weights textual components a priori: criteria are prioritized before scoring begins (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). In other words, the instructor gives score based on the components of writing. Of course, this type of assessment is more complicated and takes longer time because the rater should give score to each of the components of writing. In the context of second language, the major benefit of this assessment is that it provides more useful diagnostic information about students' writing abilities (Weigle, 2002). Al Makhzoomi & Farheit (2011) in their study found that the analytic method has pedagogical advantages over the impressionistic one in that it lays the foundation of the relevant elements of good writing. The major disadvantage of analytic scoring in accordance with Weigle (2002) is that it takes longer time than holistic scoring because readers are required to make more than one decision for every script. Besides, if scores on different scales are combined to make a composite score, a good deal of information provided by the analytic scale is lost, Weigle (2002) continues the argument.

Based on the discussion above, considering the advantages and disadvantages of each type of writing assessment, the present research employs analytic scoring approach. Assessing students' writing by using analytic scoring approach gives many advantages for the students because they will know what their strengths and also their weaknesses are in their writing. By being corrected this way they will know in what component(s) they need to practice a lot and improve their weakness.

Method

Subject

By employing quantitative and qualitative descriptive method 24 Indonesian university students of English education study program who were taking Writing IV course consisting of 9 male students and 15 female students were involved in this study were. They were purposively chosen because they met the pre-determined characteristics of the subjects, that was, the students had already passed some pre-requisite courses, namely, Writing III course, Structure III course, and Reading III course. Those were pre-requisite courses for the students to write thesis proposal. By having passed in these courses, the students are assumed to have adequate preparation to write an essay.

Research procedure

This research was conducted to find out (1) whether students assess their writing tasks the same as their teacher does, (2) if they assess differently, why they do it differently. Since this study was carried out in classroom context, for the purpose of study, the procedure of research

was relatively similar to the one usually carried out in normal situation. The procedure can be described as follows.

1. Distributing questionnaire phase

By referring to Jacob's et al. (1981) writing profile, this questionnaire was used to get an overall picture of students' problem(s) in writing essay in English. Specifically, it was conducted to find out whether they had problem(s) in getting and developing idea as the content of their essay, in organizing idea(s) in terms of unity and coherency, expressing idea(s) in term of language use, in choosing appropriate word(s) for certain context and situation, and implementing their knowledge of mechanics (e.g. punctuation) in their essay correctly. (Appendix A)

2. Introducing scoring guide phase

In this phase, a guide for giving score of writing tasks was introduced. The scoring guide which was adapted and adopted from Jacob's et al. (1981) covered five areas: (1) how to assess content, (2) how to assess organization, (3) how to assess language use, (4) how to assess vocabulary, and (5) how to assess mechanics. (Appendix B)

3. Reviewing phase

In this phase, lead by the teacher, the students were asked to assess their essays. First, they had to assess the content to find out whether it was relevant with the task of writing. Second, they should assess the organization of the essay to make sure that the essay was well organized both in terms of sentence level and paragraph level. Third, they had to assess the grammar used in the essay to make sure that it reflected the meaning(s) intended. Fourth, they should assess the words used in the essay whether or not the choice was appropriate. Fifth, they were asked to assess whether the mechanics used (e.g. punctuation, spelling) were rightly implemented.

4. Scoring phase

In this final phase, the students were asked to give score to their writing tasks by filling out scoring sheet provided. (Appendix C)

Findings

From the question distributed it was found out that the problems faced by the students in writing essay in English can be described in the table 1.

Table 1. *Problems faced by students in writing essay in English*

No	Components	Rate										Total	
		Always		Most of the time		Rarely/ Seldom		Almost never		Never			
		5		4		3		2		1			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%
1	Content	2	8.33	12	50	7	29.17	3	12.50	0	0	24	100

2	Organization	2	8.33	12	50	8	33.33	2	8.33	0	0	24	100
3	Language use	6	25	12	50	4	16.67	2	8.33	0	0	24	100
4	Vocabulary	16	66.67	3	12.5	3	12.5	2	8.33	0	0	24	100
5	Mechanics	0	0	1	4.16	2	8.33	20	83.33	1	4.16	24	100

Table 1 revealed that those who always had problem in content were 2 students (8.33%), those who had problem most of the time in content were 12 students (50%), those who rarely/seldom had problem in content were 7 students (29.16%), those who almost never had problem in content were 3 students (12.50%), and those who never had problem in content was none (0%).

Table 1 also discovered that those who always had problem in organization were 2 students (8.33%), those who had problem in content most of the time were 12 students (50%), those who rarely/seldom had problem in organization were 8 students (33.33%), those who almost never had problem in organization were 2 students (8.33%), and those who never had problem in organization was none (0%).

Table 1 also found that those who always had problem in language use were 6 students (25%), those who had problem in language use most of the time were 12 students (50%), those who rarely/seldom had problem in language use were 4 students (16.67%), those who almost never had problem in language use were 2 students (8.33%), and those who never had problem in language use was none (0%).

Table 1 also uncovered that those who always had problem in vocabulary were 16 students (66.67%), those who had problem in vocabulary most of the time were 3 students (12.50%), those who rarely/seldom had problem in vocabulary were 3 students (12.50%), those who almost never had problem in vocabulary were 2 students (8.33%), and those who never had problem in language use was none (0%).

Table 1 also showed that those who always had problem in mechanics was none (0%), those who had problem in mechanics most of the time was 1 student (4.16%), those who rarely/seldom had problem in mechanics 2 students (8.33%), those who almost never had problem in mechanics 20 students (83.33%), and those who never had problem in mechanics use was 1 student (4.16%).

How the students scored their writing tasks and how the teacher scored his students' writing tasks can be seen in table 2 and table 3. (Appendix D & Appendix E).

From table 2 and table 3 it was found that in general both the students and the teacher scored the writing tasks relatively the same. The mean scores of the two assessments: student self- assessment and teacher assessment were consecutively as follow, 73.92 and 73.75. Though they were different, the difference was not significant. Both scores in the system of evaluation of the institution fell onto grade B. Out of 24 students, 22 persons (91.67%) gave the same score as

the teacher did. Only 2 students (8.33%) gave different scores. One student scored her writing task under the score given by the teacher. The other student scored his writing task above the score given by the teacher. When asked, the student (FAU) who scored her writing task lower than the score given by the teacher told that she did not deserve to get more than that score, i.e. 71 (B). She thought that she still found some problems in her writing essay in English. On the contrary, her teacher thought that she deserved to get higher score than that – she had the right to get ≥ 80 (A). The teacher believed that his assessment about FAU was not far from her real capability. This was proven by the fact that she has been chosen as one of the speakers representing her university in English language education seminar held in one private university in Bali, Indonesia, on November 2014.

On the other hand, the male student, MSA, when interviewed, honestly acknowledged that actually he did not deserve to get score 80 (A). He confessed that he scored his writing task that way because he needed to upgrade his grade point average (GPA, or Indeks Prestasi Kumulatif, IPK, in Indonesian). He argued that high GPA is needed in finding job. However, this has justified the teacher's assessment which gave him score lower than 80 (A), i.e. 66 (C+). There has not been any more writing essays in English he produced. The complete comparison of scores given by the students and the teacher can be seen table 4. (Appendix F)

Discussion

As discussed earlier that there are two questions that this study wanted to answer. They were: 1) Do the students assess their writing tasks the same as the teacher does?, 2) If they assess their writing tasks differently from what the teacher does, why do they score their writing tasks differently?

The results of study revealed that out of 24 students, 22 students (91.67%) gave the same scores as what the teacher did to their writing tasks. This implied that both the students and the teacher had the same understanding about the scoring guide and interpretation on students writing tasks. What Noonan and Duncan (2005) discovered about the usefulness and the potential for greater classroom applicability of peer and self-assessment was reflected in present study. What Zheng, et al. (2012) found that students could perform self-assessment in writing reasonably well, the instruction of scoring rubric contributed to the improvement of self-assessment in writing and the overall improvement was significant, and students' overall composition performance was enhanced were also reflected in present study. The report written by Price, et al. (2011) on the results of some studies on self-assessment may also support the results of the present study. The results of study conducted by H. Andrade & Valtcheva (2009); by Klenowski (1995) and by McMillan & Hearn (2008) as quoted by Price, et. Al., (2011) which found that self-assessment can have positive effect on achievement, motivation, self-perception, communication, and behavior also strengthened the result of present study. The results of other study conducted by McDonald & Bound (2003) as quoted by Price, et al. (2011) which found that high school students who were trained in self-assessment not only felt better prepared for their external examinations, outperformed their peers who had not received the training may also show the benefit of self-assessment. Also, the study conducted by Ross (2006) which found that students across grade levels and subject areas including narrative writing, mathematics and geography outperformed their peers in the control group who had not received self-assessment training also supported the current study (reported by Price, et al., 2011). The results of present

study may represent what McMillan & Hearn (2008) claimed that if it is correctly implemented, student self-assessment can promote intrinsic motivation, internally controlled effort, a mastery goal orientation, and more meaningful learning". The last results of study that supported the present study was the one carried out by Azorín (1991) which argues that self-assessment has a number of additional advantages related both to the effective implication of students in introspecting about their learning processes and to students' participation in class management.

Conclusion

The findings and the theory which support the findings brings us to a conclusion: (1) in general, the students assessed their writing tasks relatively the same as what their teacher did, i.e. 73.92 compared to teacher assessment, i.e. 73.25 (2) there were two students who assessed their writing tasks differently, one student scored lower than the teacher's score and the other one scored his writing task higher than the score given by the teacher. The student who scored her writing tasks lower than the score given by teacher is actually an example of student who values knowledge and skill of writing are more important than the score. On the contrary, the student who scored his writing tasks higher than the score given by the teacher is also an instance of student who values knowledge and skill of writing is less important than score.

Recommendations

Based on the findings it is recommended for the teacher to give responsibility for the students to assess their own learning tasks. The results of this study has proven that students assessment can be as valid and reliable as teacher assessment with one condition that students get proper and appropriate trainings done by teacher. For future researcher it is recommended to find out whether writing tasks assessed by other kinds of assessment, such as peer assessment improve student writing tasks.

Biography of the Author

Dr. Abdul Muth'im got his Doctor's degree in English Education from State University of Malang, Indonesia. His main interest of teaching and research is TEFL especially writing. Until recently he has written three books: two books on writing and one book on TEFL.

Reference

- Al Makhzoomi, K. & Freihat, S. (2011). Analytic or Impressionistic Evaluation of EFL Jordanian Students' Composition Performance? *AWEJ* Vol. 2, 3, 141-167.
- Amo, E. & Jareño, F. (2011). Self, Peer and Teacher Assessment as Active Learning Methods. *Research Journal of International Studies*. Issue 18.
- Azorín, María José Martínez. (1991). Self-Assessment in Second Language Teaching: Journals. *Revistá Alicantina de Estudios Englises*. 4, 91-101.
- Bowker, Natile (Ed). (2007). *Academic Writing A Guide to Tertiary Level Writing*. Massey: Massey University.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (2004). *Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices*. White Plain, NY: Pearson Education. Inc.
- Byrne, Donn. (1984). *Teaching Writing Skills*. England: Longman Group Limited.
- Earl, K. & Giles, D. (2011). An-other Look at Assessment: Assessment in Learning. *New Zealand Journal of Teachers' Work*. Volume 8, 1, 11-20.
- Ferris, D. R. & Hedgcock, J. S. (2005). *Teaching ESL Composition*. Mahwah, New

- Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Gronlund, N. E. & Waugh, C. K. (2009). *Assessment of Student Achievement*. New Jersey Columbus, Ohio: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Hammond, Eugene R. (1989). *Critical Thinking, Thoughtful Writing*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Hyland, Ken. (2007). *Genre and Second Language Writing*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Jacobs, H. L., Zinkgraf, S. A., Wormuth, D. R., Hartfiel, V. F. & Hughey, J. B. (1981). *Testing ESL Composition: A Practical Approach*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.
- Joyce, C., Spiller, L., & Twist, J. (2009). *Self-assessment: What Teachers Think*. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.
- Kayler, M. & Weller, K. (2007). Pedagogy, Self-Assessment, and Online Discussion Group. *Educational Technology & Society*. 10, 1, 136-147.
- Kellough, R. D., Kellough, N. G., & Hough, D. L. (1993). *Middle School Teaching Methods and Resources*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- McMillan, J. H. & Hearn, J. (2008). Student Self-Assessment: The Key to Stronger Student Motivation and Higher Achievement. *Educational HORIZON*. 40-47.
- Noonan, B. & Duncan, C. R. (2005). Peer and Self-Assessment in High Schools. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*. 10, 17, 1-8.
- O'Malley, J. M. & Pierce, L. V. (1996). *Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners*. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Oshima, A. & Hogue, A. (2006). *Introduction to Academic Writing*. Fourth Edition. White Plain, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Price, J. K., Pierson, E. & Light, D. (2011). *Using Classroom Assessment to Promote 21st Century Learning in Emerging Market*. Paper presented at Global Learn Asia Pacific 2011, Melbourne Australia.
- Spiller, Dorothy. (2012). *Assessment Matters: Self-Assessment and Peer Assessment*. Waikato: The University of Waikato.
- Weigle, Sara Crushing. (2002). *Assessing Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- William, Dylan. (2013). Assessment: The Bridge between Teaching and Learning. *Voices from the Middle*. 21, 2, 40-45.
- Zheng, H., Huang, J. & Chen, Y. (2012). Effects of Self-assessment on Chinese Students' Performance on College English Writing Tests. *Polyglossia*, Volume 23.

Appendix A

Assessment Students' Writing Problems

How do you rate the problem(s) of writing you have for each component?

No.	Component of writing	Rate				
		5	4	3	2	1
1.	Content					
2.	Organization					
3.	Language use					
4.	Vocabulary					
5.	Mechanics					

Meaning rating value:

1. Always
4. Most of the time
3. Rare/seldom
2. Almost never
1. Never

Appendix B

Scoring Guide

Com- ponents	Score	Weight	Mark/ Grade	Criteria	Indicator
Content	5	5		Excellent	▪ The essay is related to the topic chosen and is thoroughly developed.
	4			Good	▪ The essay is related to the topic chosen but it is not thoroughly developed.
	3			Average	▪ The essay is closely related to the topic chosen and is thoroughly developed.
	2			Fair	▪ The essay is closely related to the topic chosen but is poorly developed.
	1			Poor	▪ The essay is not related to the topic chosen and there is no development.

Organization	5	5		Excellent	There are introductory, content, and concluding paragraphs; introductory paragraph contains general statement and thesis statement; content paragraph discusses what is stated in the thesis statement; and the shift from one paragraph to other paragraph moves smoothly
	4			Good	There are introductory, content, and concluding paragraphs; introductory has only thesis statement; content paragraph discusses what is stated in the thesis statement; the shift from one paragraph to other paragraph moves smoothly.
	3			Average	There are introductory, content and concluding paragraphs, introductory paragraph has general statement as background without thesis statement; discussion in content paragraph does not have focus; the shift from one paragraph to other paragraph moves smoothly.
	2			Fair	There are introductory, content paragraph, and concluding paragraph; introductory neither has appropriate background and nor specific thesis statement; discussion in content paragraph does not focus; the shift from one paragraph to other paragraph does not move smoothly.
	1			Poor	There is no paragraphing and organization is poor.
Language use	5	7		Excellent	No deviation in using grammar (e.g., tenses, plural-singular form, concord and agreement, word order, etc.)
	4			Good	There is a slight deviation in using grammar, e.g. tenses, plural-singular form, concord and agreement, word order, etc.
	3			Average	There are many deviations in using grammar, e.g. tenses, plural-singular form, concord and agreement, word order, etc.
	2			Fair	There are lots of deviation in using grammar, e.g. tenses, plural-singular form, concord and agreement, word order, etc.
	1			Poor	There are too many deviations in using grammar, e.g. tenses, plural-singular form, concord and agreement, word order, etc.

Vocabulary	5	2		Excellent	- Using word appropriately, always using other word to refer the same thing - Using word quite appropriately, often other word to refer the same thing - Using word quite appropriately, other word is sometimes used to refer the same thing - Using other word inappropriately, other word is rarely used to refer to the same thing - Using word inappropriately, other word is never used to refer to the same thing
	4			Good	
	3			Average	
	2			Fair	
	1			Poor	
Mechanics	5	1		Excellent	- There is no error in spelling, punctuation or capitalization - There is one or two errors either in spelling, punctuation or capitalization - There are three to four errors either in spelling, punctuation or capitalization - There are five to six errors either in spelling, punctuation, or capitalization - There are more than seven errors either in spelling, punctuation, or capitalization
	4			Good	
	3			Average	
	2			Fair	
	1			Poor	

Appendix C

EVALUATION SHEET
FOR THE QUALITY OF STUDENTS' WRITING

Name :

Reg. Std. Num. :

No.	Component	Score		Obtained x Weight	Maximum Score
		Obtained	Weight		
1.	Content (1 – 5)		5		25
2.	Organization (1 – 5)		5		25
3.	Language Use (1 – 5)		7		35
4.	Vocabulary (1 – 5)		2		10
5.	Mechanics (1 – 5)		1		5
TOTAL SCORE				$\sum X =$	100

Banjarmasin, ..., 2014
Scorer,

NIM.* (filled in with student's registration number)

Note:

$$\text{Final score} = \frac{\text{Obtained score}}{\text{Maximum score}} \times 100$$

Appendix D

Table 2. *How the students scored their writing tasks*

No.	Name (Code)	Score					Final Score	
		Cont.	Organ.	Lang. use	Voc.	Mech.	Score	Grade
1.	ASP	20	20	21	6	4	71	B
2.	APA	20	20	21	6	4	71	B
3.	AMU	20	20	28	6	4	78	B+
4.	CBN	20	20	28	8	5	81	A
5.	DRA	20	20	21	6	5	72	B
6.	EDM	20	20	28	8	4	80	A
7.	FRA	20	20	21	6	5	72	B
8.	FAU	20	20	21	6	4	71	B
9.	FNA	20	20	21	8	5	73	B
10.	IHA	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
11.	IPK	20	20	21	8	5	74	B
12.	JAN	20	20	28	8	5	81	A
13.	MFA	20	20	28	8	4	80	A
14.	MLA	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
15.	MAR	20	20	21	8	5	74	B
16.	MAD	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
17.	MEL	20	20	28	6	4	78	B+
18.	MSA	20	20	28	8	4	80	A
19.	NIF	20	20	28	6	4	78	B+
20.	NOR	20	20	28	6	4	78	B+
21.	RDP	20	20	28	8	5	81	A
22.	RAH	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
23.	RAM	20	20	21	6	4	71	B
24.	SHK	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
Mean							73.92	

Appendix E

Table 3. *How the teacher scored students' writing tasks*

No.	Name (Code)	Score					Final Score	
		Cont.	Organ.	Lang. use	Voc.	Mech.	Score	Grade
1.	ASP	20	20	2	6	4	71	B
2.	APA	20	20	21	6	4	71	B
3.	AMU	20	20	28	6	4	78	B+
4.	CBN	20	20	28	8	5	81	A
5.	DRA	20	20	21	6	5	72	B
6.	EDM	20	20	28	8	4	80	A
7.	FRA	20	20	21	6	5	72	B
8.	FAU	20	20	28	8	5	81	A
9.	FNA	20	20	21	8	5	73	B
10.	IHA	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
11.	IPK	20	20	21	8	5	74	B

12.	JAN	20	20	28	8	5	81	A
13.	MFA	20	20	28	8	4	80	A
14.	MLA	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
15.	MAR	20	20	21	8	5	74	B
16.	MAD	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
17.	MEL	20	20	28	6	4	78	B+
18.	MSA	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
19.	NIF	20	20	28	6	4	78	B+
20.	NOR	20	20	28	6	4	78	B+
21.	RDP	20	20	28	8	5	81	A
22.	RAH	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
23.	RAM	20	20	21	6	4	71	B
24.	SHK	20	15	21	6	4	66	C+
Mean							73.75	

Appendix F

Table 4. Comparison between scores given by students and teacher

No.	Name	Students assessment		Teacher assessment		Differ	
		Score	Grade	Score	Grade	Yes	No
1.	ASP	71	B	71	B	-	v
2.	APA	71	B	71	B	-	v
3.	AMU	78	B+	78	B+	-	v
4.	CBN	81	A	81	A	-	v
5.	DRA	72	B	72	B	-	v
6.	EDM	80	A	80	A	-	v
7.	FRA	72	B	72	B	-	v
8.	FAU	71	B	81	A	v	-
9.	FNA	73	B	73	B	-	v
10.	IHA	66	C+	66	C+	-	v
11.	IPK	74	B	74	B	-	v
12.	JAN	81	A	81	A	-	v
13.	MFA	80	A	80	A	-	v
14.	MLA	66	C+	66	C+	-	v
15.	MAR	74	B	74	B	-	v
16.	MAD	66	C+	66	C+	-	v
17.	MEL	78	B+	78	B+	-	v
18.	MSA	80	A	66	C+	v	-

19.	NIF	78	B+	78	B+	-	v
20.	NOR	78	B+	78	B+	-	v
21.	RDP	81	A	81	A	-	v
22.	RAH	66	C+	66	C+	-	v
23.	RAM	71	B	71	B	-	v
24.	SHK	66	C+	66	C+	-	v
Mean		73.92	Mean	73.75			

Autonomy in Vocabulary Learning: Vocabulary Learning Strategies Teaching Programme for EFL Libyan Learners

Salma H M Khalifa

School of Education and Modern Languages
Universiti Utara Malaysia
006010 UUM Sintok, Kedah Darul Aman, Malaysia

Ahmad Affendi Shabdin

School of Education and Modern Languages
Universiti Utara Malaysia
006010 UUM Sintok, Kedah Darul Aman, Malaysia

Abstract

Can learner autonomy be promoted through programmed teaching? To answer this question, a model of teaching vocabulary learning strategies programme, designed to help English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners acquire autonomy in vocabulary learning, was developed and tested through an experimental study conducted at a secondary school in Libya. The present paper discusses the results obtained from the study. The data was collected through pre-test/post-test, logbooks. The participating students were divided into two groups: experimental group and control group. The experimental group students were taught new English vocabulary items along with teaching them the methods to enrich them further on their own, while the control group students were taught only new vocabulary items. Comparison of pre-test and post-test results showed that experimental group participants made considerable progress in achieving autonomy in vocabulary learning. The results obtained are highly significant in Libyan contexts where English is taught as a foreign language and students largely depend on classroom teaching and teachers' support, which create problems for them in university level education. The findings of the study indicate that (i) learner autonomy can be induced; and (ii) autonomous learners acquire new vocabulary faster. The study was conducted at a small scale. The researcher suggests that if the same study is conducted at a larger scale, the results will hold better validity.

Key words: learner autonomy, programmed learning, self-directed learning, vocabulary teaching

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Self-directed Learning

Learner autonomy as a concept grew with the ideas put forward by Henri Holec in 1981, although related thoughts have existed from the beginning of 1970s (Moore, 1972; 1973; Rogers, 1969). The shift from teacher-centered learning towards learner-centered learning may be conceived as a shift from modernism to postmodernism as well. Scholars working in language teaching field expressed the views that if learners, being always dependent on teachers instead taking charge of their own learning, the results would be encouraging. Learner autonomy is closely connected to self-direction in learning, and according to Holec (1981) there are varying degrees of self-direction leading to varying degrees of learner autonomy. Little (2003) speaks of learner autonomy in terms of a psychological process. The learner establishes a close relationship with the process and content of learning, and that leads to his/her autonomy in learning (Little, 2003). In his opinion, "autonomy is a capacity or behaviour; whether it is characterised by learner responsibility or learner control; whether it is a psychological phenomenon with political implications or a political right with psychological implications." (Little, 2003: p.1)

1.2 Learner Autonomy

The concept of learner autonomy has been popular in language teaching/learning theory and practice since 1981 when the term was coined by Henri Holec, the so-called the "father" of learner autonomy. Holec (1981) defines it as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (1981: p.3) He further explains the concept the learners' ability in taking the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of learning. According to him, it is a potential, not the actual act in a given situation (1981: p.3). Holec (1981) outlines the following components as an entirely self-directed process of learning: fixing the objectives, defining the content and progressions, selecting the methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the acquisition procedure and evaluating what has been acquired.

1.1 The Problem

In Libyan schools the teaching of English starts from the fifth grade. Since the curriculum is based on communicative approach, English syllabus is usually varied to serve all the needs of student. But still teachers use grammar-translation method in terms of teaching vocabulary. Vocabulary teaching in class is less focused upon compared to teaching English grammar rules as part of the school syllabus. The grammar-translation method clearly played a prominent role in the English classroom in the past and still continues to do so (Altaieb, 2013, p.4&5). Libyan learners inevitably struggle to memorise English grammar rules and the main focus with regards to lexical items is on the requirement to repeat a long list of irregular verbs (e.g. write, wrote, written etc.). Apart from that, vocabulary teaching in the classroom is simply restricted to giving learners a long list of English words together with Arabic translation. Therefore, the learners basically learn two things: English word forms and their Arabic translation. Extra information about new words (e.g. English definitions, synonyms, antonyms, etc.) is optional, depending on whether or not each individual teacher provides the extra information.

During my middle and high school experiences learning English, I had to memorize the lists of new words and grammatical rules given to me by my teachers on a daily basis..... I always wondered if there were other ways for me to learn English than by the traditional memorization process that most teachers at that time adopted. I liked to use English communicatively rather than just memorizing new vocabulary and grammatical rules, which was the dominant approach followed by my teachers (Altaieb, 2013, p.1&2)

In my own experience as a learner, the students are asked to memorise the words in order to increase their vocabulary without vocabulary learning strategies being suggested and introduced. Hence, the learners struggle with memorising large number of new words throughout the entire course. The learners are required to look up more explanation/detail in dictionaries. It is clear that without realizing the significance of autonomy in learning and without realizing that the proper use of the best-suited learning strategies in the given contexts leads to learner-autonomy, the learners cannot make the best use of the available resources too. So, since the learners are not taught to become autonomous learners, the common strategy of repetition is likely to be used as an aid to remembering the words (i.e. repeating the English word forms aloud, saying/writing the Arabic translation many times, reading the words silently many times, etc.).

1.1 The Objective

The primary objective of the present study is to examine the efficacy of a model of teaching vocabulary learning strategies programme to help the learners to become autonomous vocabulary learners.

1.2 Research Question

1. To what extent does Vocabulary Learning Strategies Teaching Programme help Libyan secondary school students to become Autonomous Vocabulary Learners?

1.3 The Scope and Limitations

There are certain assumptions made in the present study, as given below. I shall discuss the limitations of the present study that are inevitably linked to these assumptions:

Assumptions: It has been assumed that the experimental group participants have been receiving the guidance exclusively from the teaching programme, without any other influence from other sources of learning. Similarly, it is assumed that there is no exchange of information between control group participants and the experimental group participants.

But, it is possible that the experimental group participants learnt something from other sources too during experimental teaching sessions which may enhance their performance. Similarly, there is a possibility of exchange of information between the participants of the two groups. There is no way of minimizing both the occurrences, and thus this is a limitation to the present study.

Therefore, the conclusions drawn from the present study will be primarily related only to the students used as subjects for the present study, though on a wider experimentation the conclusions may be found sound for other second/foreign language learners as well. The scope of the present study is limited to English language taught as a foreign language in Libya, and not to any other foreign language. Still, on further experimentation and research the results and the associated measures may be applicable to other foreign languages as well.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The researcher, collecting through research studies, realized that there is very little work in this area. The significance of the study lies in its being a pioneering research in this neglected area of research in Libya and in other Arab countries like Jordan. Several complaints have been made about the weakness of English vocabulary of university students who enrolled in different disciplines at the Jordanian universities (Bataineh& Jaradat, (2005). Rabab'ah (2003) also argues that EFL learners have difficulties in English especially in using English for communication due to the limited vocabulary they have in order to communicate effectively in authentic communicative situations . Thus, if the results of the present study are found to hold good on wider experimentation, the developed programme may be implemented to bring in a significant change in the ways vocabulary in English is learnt, enhancing the confidence and autonomy of the FL learners.

2.0 Literature Review

Learner autonomy, as defined by Holec (1981), is “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (P. 3). A learner should take full responsibility of all the aspects of his/her learning (Holec, 1981). Dickinson (1993) also holds almost similar views when he says that autonomy is a situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all the decisions concerned with his [or her] learning and the implementation of those decisions (P. 330). Moreover, it is not only the learner’s choice to take full responsibility for his/her learning, but also the learning environment and the system should be geared towards recognizing the rights of learners within educational system (Benson, 2013: p.10). Therefore, the role of the teacher providing the necessary support to learners and creating proper space for the development of autonomy is very crucial. This means enough freedom to learners in the classroom, but with essential restrictions.

Holec’s research studies in education, especially in 'English as a Foreign Language' (EFL) contexts, have provided greater significance to learner autonomy in language learning process. Researchers realized that students who think and work strategically possess higher levels of motivation towards learning and having higher levels of confidence in their capabilities, consequently they are self-dependent in learning vocabulary and are academically more successful compared to those who are devoid of effective strategies in learning by themselves (Omaggio, 1978; Holec, 1981; Little, 2003; Dickinson, 1993; Dam, 1995; Boud, 1995; Benson, 2013). Learners’ autonomy is basically viewed as a self-directed process of learning. Holec (1981) has outlined the following elements of the process:

- a. fixing the objective;
- b. defining the content and progressions;
- c. selecting the techniques and methods to be used;
- d. monitoring the acquisition procedure; and
- e. evaluating what has been acquired.

Keeping the above elements in view, to become an autonomous learner the student should be able to set up goals for himself/herself, make programs of work, develop his/her strategies to cope with the new or unforeseen learning situations, assess his/her weakness and strengths at work and learn from his/her success and failures to be more efficient learner in the

future (Boud, 1995). Researchers (Omaggio, 1978; Boud, 1995; Warschauer, 1996) have identified some attributes of successful autonomous learners, like they,

- follow an active approach to the learning task at hand;
- are willing to take risks, i.e., communicate in the target language at all costs;
- have insights into their learning styles and strategies;
- attend to the form as well as content;
- are good at guessing;
- have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language; and,
- are willing to revise and reject hypotheses and rules that do not apply to particular situations.

As regards to achieving autonomy in vocabulary learning, there is almost a consensus among language researchers that extensive reading is the best way (Carrell & Carson, 1997; Krashen, 2004; Herrel & Jordan, 2004). Extensive reading is characterized by reading large number of texts in the target language and focusing on meaning rather than on the language (Carrell & Carson, 1997). Extensive reading is helpful in building general vocabulary and also it strengthens sight vocabulary. Krashen (2004) places more importance on extensive reading compared to direct instruction in terms of acquisition of reading skill, vocabulary and even grammar and writing. Herrel & Jordan (2004) also support Krashen's idea, and the idea has been tested and implemented by various educationists.

4.0 Materials and Methods

4.1 Materials: Copies of a good dictionary for every student, copies of thesaurus for all the students, notebooks, pen/pencils. For the teaching session the researcher compiled a selection of essays over a range of subjects, like, literature, science, medicine and engineering.

4.2 VLSs Teaching Programme

VLSs Teaching Programme was based on teaching vocabulary learning strategies to secondary school students. It was divided into eleven training sessions and each session covered only one of vocabulary learning strategies. VLSs Teaching Programme focused only on teaching *Memory Strategies* and *Determination Strategies*. The researchers used the course book in this programme in order to provide students a familiar material. Thus the main techniques consisted of the VLS training examples and the reinforcement tasks. The goal of utilizing these techniques was basically introducing vocabulary learning strategies to students, checking understanding of students and providing for them an opportunity to employ using each technique correctly. So we taught every single vocabulary learning strategies in each class by using the course book.

Table 1 Vocabulary Learning Strategies Teaching Programme.

Session number	Time	Selected VLSs
	1hr	Introducing the whole programme and the time table to the students
Session One	1hr	(MEM) Teaching parts of speech of words
Session Two	1hr	(MEM) Teaching synonyms and antonyms

Session Three	1hr	(MEM) Teaching paraphrasing of new words
Session Four	1hr	(MEM) Teaching morphology rules
Session Five	1hr	(MEM) Teaching word maps
Session Six	1hr	(MEM) Teaching using the new word in a sentence to clarify its meaning
Seven Session	1hr	(MEM) Studying the sounds of the words
Session Eight	1hr	(MEM) Teaching Grouping words
Session Nine	1hr	(MEM) Teaching Keyword Method
Session Ten	1hr	(DET) Teaching how to use dictionary
Session Eleven	1hr	(DET) Teaching using imagery

4.3 Methodology: The methodology followed in the present study is a quasi-experimental which is a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis. Quantitative data were collected through - two tests – pre-test and post-test, and qualitative data were collected from logbooks. Logbooks were generated by gathering information on the VLSs that students use at home to learn new words.

4.4 Procedure

The present study was conducted using the following steps:

- The total number of students selected as participants for the study were divided into two groups, labeled as control group and experimental group.
- All the participants were given a vocabulary test (called pre-test). The test served two purposes: (a) the results of the test were used to ensure equal number of high/medium/low level learners in both the groups; (b) the results of the test were also used as data for further analysis.
- The experimental group participants were taught by the researcher, using the techniques established in the VLSs teaching programme, whereas, the control group participants were taught by their teacher, as usual, without imparting to them the techniques.
- At the end of teaching sessions all the participants were given a vocabulary achievement test called the post-test. The results obtained from the test were used for data analysis.

4.5 Data Collection

4.5.1 Sampling

Sampling was involved in the research at two levels: sampling of the school for study and sampling of participating students. To select the school a simple random selection method was followed since in Libya a uniform system of education is followed in secondary education. For the selection of participating students, systematic sampling method was adopted choosing two secondary school classes with 40 students each making the total number 80 students. Both the

classes were mixed groups of high, medium and low achieving students. Thus, enough care was taken to eliminate any bias in sampling.

4.5.2 Research Setting and the Participants

The present research was conducted at selected Libyan schools. In Libya, English is taught as a foreign language. The participants selected for the study were secondary school students whose next step in education is university, so, they have learnt English language for six years, sufficient to understand the requirements of the present research. Also, the rationale behind the selection is that these students have gained knowledge of English language and are ready to make use of a wider range of vocabulary items, either for further studies or for their own business. In any case they need to be autonomous vocabulary learners. The selected students are suitable for data collection through tests and logbooks.

4.5.3 The Instruments for Data Collection

To test the efficacy of the vocabulary learning strategies teaching programme to induce autonomy in learning new vocabulary items among Libyan learners of English, and the researchers collected data to measure the resultant learner autonomy. The data were collected through the following instruments:

(a) Pre-test

The pre-test was used to evaluate participants' knowledge of vocabulary which they are expected to have at that level.

(b) Post-test

The post-test was used to test participants' achievement after teaching. The same test was used for both pretest and posttest. (See appendix A)

(d) Logbooks Report

Logbooks report has been compiled to collect information on the number of participants seeking help from teachers or fellow participants to find the answers to the questions. This was meant to evaluate the level of autonomy attained by participants.

4.5.4 Measurement Technique

Measurement of learner autonomy is a difficult and controversial subject. Some scholars believe that learner autonomy cannot be measured since there is no standard of judgment as to what learner autonomy exactly comprises of, and therefore, what is there to measure at the end of the day. Another aspect of the concept of learner autonomy is its multidimensional nature that hinders quantitative measurement (Benson, 2003:13). Whereas, there are researchers who believe learner autonomy can be measured using certain psychometric tools. (Mynard, 2006; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000; Macaskill, Ann & Taylor, Elissa, 2010). However, the researcher believes that learner autonomy can be measured using a combination of methods, as does Mynard (2006) who proposes to use 'observation' and 'first person narratives' to measure learner autonomy. The research used logbooks to measure the depth of autonomy in learning attained by participants at the end of my experimental teaching.

4.5.5 Data Collection Procedures

(a) The learners are put on an experimental training using a model of vocabulary learning strategies teaching programme to test whether learner autonomy can be inculcated in their vocabulary learning behavior. So, the independent variable set for the research is the model of

vocabulary learning strategies teaching programme with all its components – teaching word formation rules, fun with words, good use of dictionary and putting Internet resources to the best use to learn new vocabulary items, etc. The variable is used in a graded manner, presenting higher level of difficulty in English vocabulary according to the level of the learners each day of teaching. Similarly, the other measures are also introduced to the learners gradually.

(b) As the outcome of this teaching experiment is expected to be self-directed learning leading to learner autonomy, the dependent variable is obviously ‘learner autonomy.’ This variable is measured in two ways: (i) achievement tests, conducted for both control group and the experimental group learners, and (ii) logbooks diaries.

(c) Treatment: The control group students were taught English in the usual manner being followed by their teacher of English. But the researcher took enough care to make them believe that they were taught the same kind of course as was being administered to the experimental group students. This was done through following steps:

(i) Conducting pre-test for them along with the experimental group students;

(ii) Conducting post-test for them along with the experimental group students;

(iii) Continuing their teaching sessions along with experimental group students, under the supervision of researcher.

5.0 Data Analysis

5.1 Results Obtained from the Pre-test and Post-test

During the post-test the researcher noted down some significant points, firstly none of the participants from the experimental group asked the researcher about the meaning of new words in the post-test exam. Secondly a few participants from the control group did ask the meanings, or said they didn't know the meaning of some words. All the participants relied on themselves to know the meanings of new words rather than on the teacher or classroom.

To test whether the participants (experimental as well as control groups) have made any progress in learning new vocabulary or not, concerning autonomous learning behavior, results of the two tests, i.e., pre-test and post-test were compared. The comparison reveals that the progress made by experimental group participants in learning new vocabulary items on their own is very significant as compared to the progress made by control group participants. Some of the participants show more than 300 percent progress.

Table 2 Pre-test/Post-test Marks obtained by Experimental Group Participants

Marks Obtained/100					
Pre-Test		Post-Test		Difference in Marks	% increase in marks
Marks obtained	Number of students	Marks obtained	Number of students		
44	5	79	1	38	92
34	9	77	3	43	126
27	3	74	2	47	174
20	2	70	6	50	250
18	12	69	2	51	283
09	4	68	4	59	655
05	3	65	4	60	1200

00	2	62	1	62	6200
-	-	60	1	-	-
-	-	58	5	-	-
-	-	55	4	-	-
-	-	51	3	-	-
-	-	48	4	-	-

Table 3 *Pre-test/Post-test Marks obtained by Control Group Participants*

Marks Obtained/100					
Pre-Test		Post-Test		Difference in Marks	% increase in marks
Marks obtained	Number of students	Marks obtained	Number of students		
47	2	57	5	10	21
29	6	50	6	21	72
25	4	49	7	24	96
20	9	48	11	28	140
16	3	46	1	30	187
11	2	44	2	33	300
10	7	40	4	30	300
08	2	39	2	31	387
00	5	37	2	37	3700

Another significant aspect of the results is that the participants who achieved low in pre-test have achieved quite satisfactory marks in the post-test. The highest scored marks by experimental group (five participants) in pre-test was 44, whereas in post-test one participant has scored 79 marks; the lowest marks scored by two participants in pre-test was 0, while the lowest marks scored by four participants in post-test were 55.

The highest marks scored in pre-test (by two participants) in the control group were 47, whereas in post-test 5 participants scored 57 marks. The lowest marks (scored by two participants) in pre-test was 0 while in post-test the lowest scored marks was 37.

The results showed that although control participants had also made progress in learning new English words on their own, but the progress shown in this behavior by experimental group participants after receiving training was highly significant.

5.2 Results from the Data Collected through Logbooks

The participants' daily report on their perceived progress in becoming autonomous learners of English vocabulary was collected through their using of logbooks. The students were given two lists of words: one list consists the words of pre-test and the second one consists the words of syllabus. They were given the lists on the third day of teaching session. The researcher did not reveal that these strategies use for these specific words, in order to let students select and use on their own the best strategy according to their needs. The number of words that six students learnt by training session is shown in Table 3.

Table 4 The Number of Learnt Words

	Student 1	Student 2	Student 3	Student 4	Student 5	Student 6
Total of Words	45	42	56	38	60	56

The data collected from logbooks showed that students used different strategies as they displayed in Table 4. As shown in the same table *memory strategies* were most used by secondary school students followed by *determination strategies*. Among *memory strategies*, the students mostly used: study spelling of words, using word-formation rules, using word in a sentence and connecting new word to personal experience. While dictionary strategy and identifying part of speech were *determination strategies* common used. While *metacognitive strategies* and *social strategies* were the least strategies that applied by secondary school students. Two students used only two *metacognitive strategies* (using Social media and watching movies) while three students applied only three *social strategies* (asking brother, ask teacher for translation of the new word into Arabic, and ask a teacher for a paraphrase of the new word). As a result that students used both *memory strategies* and *determination strategies* because they were trained on using these vocabulary learning strategies.

Table 5 The VLSs Used by Students at Home When Learning New Words

Vocabulary learning strategies	Memory Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Determination Strategies	Metacognitive Strategies	Social Strategies
Student 1	3	1	1	-	-
Student 2	2	-	2	-	1
Student 3	3	1	2	1	-
Student 4	2	1	1	-	1
Student 5	4	-	1	-	1
Student 6	2	2	2	1	-

The most important information gathered from logbooks showed that from six students, four students learnt words from others sources. Because they were given two lists of words, one covers the used words in tests and the second covers the syllabus words. Thus students depend not only on these two lists but they go further to seek and learn other words. As shown in table5 below:

Table 6 Number of Words Learnt by Using other Sources.

	Student 1	Student 2	Student 3	Student 4	Student 5	Student 6
Total	-	-	5	2	8	6

5.0 Conclusion

The present study was taken up to seek an answer to the following question: Can vocabulary learning strategies teaching programme help secondary school Libyan students to become

autonomous vocabulary learners? The analysis of the data collected for the study clearly supports the view that learner autonomy can be induced through programmed learning. There are two very strong reasons to believe this, and they as follows:

1. After experimental teaching programme most of the participating students solved post-test to find meanings of new words on their own. All the experimental group participants performed better in this test. Control group participants too, to a large extent, tried to solve the test on their own, but did not perform as well as the experimental group participants did. Thus, the progress shown by experimental group students may be ascribed to their training in the methods of achieving autonomy
2. Some participants used several out-of-class resources, like, word-formation rules, word maps, Internet resources and dictionary, etc. to find the meanings of new words on their own. This indicates their interest in self-directed learning and thus, to enhanced learner autonomy. Experimental group participants achieved autonomy with higher success rates at learning new words, compared with control group, but control group lower success rate indicates that they haven't yet achieved autonomy in learning new English vocabulary

7.0 Suggestions for Further Research

Learner autonomy is an interesting area of study, both in theory as well as in practice, Keeping in view the individual pace, style, context and manner of learning, learner autonomy is highly advisable to be induced in the classroom. Modern teaching/learning gadgets are highly supportive of learner autonomy at every step. The present research has been a small step in testing whether a teaching programme can be developed to help learner of English become autonomous learners of vocabulary. The results of the study are very encouraging. But, as mentioned above, the experiment was conducted in 2014 a very small scale, with only 40 participating students. It would be more encouraging if the success in the present experiment is repeated with a larger number of subjects in a different setting, and may be with a language other than English. Another aspect of the present research which wished to explore is the relationship between learner autonomy and rate of success in learning a new language. I observed that success in learning new English vocabulary is somewhat linked to learner autonomy, thus it needs further exploration through larger experiment/study.

About the Authors:

Dr Ahmad Affendi Shabdin is a senior lecturer at University Utara Malaysia. His current research interest is in Second Language Acquisition and Vocabulary Testing. He conducts lectures to post graduate students on language assessment and supervises PhD research on vocabulary. He received his doctoral degree from Nottingham University

Salma H. M Khalifa is a PhD candidate in applied linguistics at School of Education & Modern Language, Universiti Utara Malaysia. Her research interest focuses on Second Language Acquisition and Vocabulary Learning.

References

- Altaieb, S. (2013). Teachers' Perception of the English language Curriculum in Libyan Public Schools: An investigation and assessment of implementation process of English curriculum in Libyan public high schools. *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*.
- Bataineh, R. F., and Jaradat M. S. (2005). Jordanian English Teachers' Utilization of and Attitudes towards Instructional Games. *Jordan Journal of Educational Sciences* 1 (1), 115-122.
- Benson, P. (2003). "Learner autonomy in the classroom." In D. Nunan (Ed.) *Practical English language teaching* (pp. 289 - 308). PRC: Higher education press/McGraw Hill.
- Benson, P. (2013, 2nd edition). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. New York: Routledge.
- Boud, D. (1995) 'Moving towards autonomy' in *Developing student autonomy in learning*, New York: Nichols Publishing.
- Carrell, P., & Carson, J.G. (1997). "Extensive and intensive reading in an EAP setting." *English for Specific Purpose*, 16, 47-60.
- Dam, L. (1995). *Learner autonomy 3: From theory to classroom practice*. Dublin: Authentik.
- Dickinson, L. (1993) Talking Shop: aspects of autonomous learning. *ELT Journal* 47/4: 330-336.
- Herrell, A. & Jordan, M. (2004). *50 strategies for teaching English language learners*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (2004). *The power of reading: Insights from the research*. Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.
- Little, D. (2003). Learner autonomy and second/foreign language learning. *Subject Center for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies, Guide to good practice*. Retrieved July 28, 2015.
- Macaskill, A. & TAYLOR, E. (2010). The development of a brief measure of learner autonomy in university students. *Studies in Higher Education*, 35 (3), 351- 359.
- Moore, M. G. (1972). Learner autonomy: The second dimension of independent learning. *Convergence*, 5(2), 76-88.
- Moore, M. G. (1973). Toward a theory of independent learning and teaching. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 661-679.
- Mynard, Jo (2006). "Measuring Learner Autonomy: Can It Be Done?" lasig.iatefl.org accessed on 28 April 2015.
- Omaggio, A. (1978). "Successful language learners: What do we know about them?" *ERIC/CLL News Bulletin*, May, 2-3.
- Pavlenko, A., & Lantolf, J. (2000). Second language learning as participation and the (re)construction of selves. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *sociocultural theory and second language learning*. New York: Oxford University Press, 155-177.
- Rababah, G. (2003). Communication Problems facing Arab learners of English: A personal perspective. *TEFL Web Journal* 2(1), 15-30.
- Rogers, Carl (1969). *Freedom to Learn*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill. P. 104.
- Warschauer, M. (1996). "Comparing face-to-face and electronic communication in the second language classroom." *CALICO Journal*, 13, 7-26.

Appendix (A): Pre-test and Post-test

Note: please answer the following question.

Q1- Choose the right word to the right space to go with each meaning.

Ex.

- business
 - clock
 - horse
 - shoe
 - Wall
- _____ wall _____ part of a house
_____ horse _____ animal with four legs

1.

- dust
 - operation
 - row
 - sport
 - victory
- _____ game
_____ winning

(2

marks)

2.

- choice
 - crop
 - flesh
 - salary
 - job
 - secret
- _____ meat
_____ money paid regularly for doing a

(2

marks)

3.

- cap
 - journey
 - parent
 - scale
 - trick
- _____ numbers to measure with
_____ going to a far place

(2

marks)

4.

- attack
 - charm
 - lack
 - pen
 - shadow
- _____ pleasing quality
_____ not having something

(2

marks)

5.

- cream
 - factory
 - nail
- _____ part of milk
_____ person who is studying

- pupil
- sacrifice

(2

marks)

6.

- adopt
- climb
- examine
- pour
- satisfy

_____ go up
_____ look at closely

(2 marks)

7.

- bake
- inquire
- limit
- recognize
- wander

_____ walk without purpose
_____ keep within a certain size

(2

marks)

8.

- burst
- concern
- deliver
- fold
- urge

_____ break open
_____ take something to someone

(2marks)

9.

- original
- private
- royal
- slow
- sorry

_____ first
_____ not public

(2

marks)

10.

- brave
- electric
- firm
- hungry
- local

_____ wanting food
_____ having no fear

(2

marks)

11.

- climate
- executive
- notion
- palm

_____ idea
_____ inner surface of your hand

➤ victim

(2

marks)

12.

➤ acid

➤ bishop

➤ chill

➤ ox

➤ ridge

_____ cold feeling

_____ farm animal

(2

marks)

13.

➤ bench

➤ jar

➤ mate

➤ mirror

➤ province

_____ long seat

_____ part of a country

(2

marks)

14.

➤ boot

➤ device

➤ lieutenant

➤ marble

➤ phrase

_____ army officer

_____ a kind of stone

(2

marks)

15.

➤ apartment

➤ candle

➤ timber

➤ horror

➤ prospect

_____ a place to live

_____ chance of something happening

(2 marks)

16.

➤ betray

➤ dispose

➤ embrace

➤ injure

➤ proclaim

_____ say publicly

_____ hurt seriously

(2 marks)

17.

➤ encounter

➤ illustrate

➤ inspire

➤ plead

_____ meet

_____ beg or help

➤ seal

(2 marks)

18.

- assist
- bother
- condemn
- erect
- trim

_____ help
_____ cut neatly

(2

marks)

19.

- concealed
- definite
- mental
- previous
- savage

_____ wild
_____ clear and certain

(2

marks)

20.

- dim
- junior
- magnificent
- maternal
- weary

_____ wonderful
_____ not clearly lit

(2

marks)

21.

- benefit
- percent
- principle
- actions
- source
- survey

_____ part of 100
_____ general idea used to guide one's

(2 marks)

22.

- element
- layer
- philosophy
- proportion
- technique

_____ skilled way of doing something
_____ study of the meaning of life

(2

marks)

23.

- consent
- enforcement
- investigation
- parameter
- something
- trend

_____ agreement or permission
_____ trying to find information about

(3

marks)

24.

- anticipate _____ control something skilfully
 - compile _____ expect something will happen
 - convince
 - denote
 - manipulate
- (2 marks)**

25.

- Vein _____ produce books and newspapers
 - Draft _____ tube through which blood flows
 - Odd
 - Publish
 - Whirl
- (2 marks)**

26.

- conformity _____ delayed beyond the expected time
 - infallible _____ identity with standards or rules
 - pervert
 - tardy
 - procure
- (2 marks)**

27.

- fundamental _____ a paper that provides information
 - principle _____ essential
 - labour
 - benefit
 - document
- (2 marks)**

28.

- summit _____ circular shape
 - conclusion _____ top of a mountain
 - fibre
 - loop
 - plank
- (2 marks)**

29.

- consistent _____ constant or stable
 - concrete _____ a long period of time
 - proportion
 - era
 - technique
- (2 marks)**

30.

- reject _____ plan or invent
 - hug _____ hold tightly in your arms
 - lease
 - plague
 - devise
- (2 marks)**

31.

- predict

- offing _____ mix together
- condescend _____ guess about the future
- blend
- convictions

(2 marks)

32.

- precede
- tease _____ come before
- reject _____ move with quick steps and jumps
- bleed
- skip

(2 marks)

33.

- causal
- desolate _____ sweet-smelling
- fragrant _____ only one of its kind
- radical
- unique

(2marks)

34.

- oblivious
- implication _____ rarely to find
- deploring _____ forgetful
- cluster
- seldom

(2 marks)

35.

- feather
- Archaeology. _____ weakness
- shortcomings _____ sensitive
- Plume
- impressionable

(2 marks)

36.

- boot
- device _____ fated
- bench _____ force (someone) to do something.
- inevitable
- compels

(2 marks)

37.

- conformity
- infallible _____ delayed beyond the expected time
- pervert _____ identity with standards or rules
- tardy
- procure

(2 marks)

38.

- ascetic
- cruising _____ make like new again
- restore _____ hover by flapping the wings quickly
- exquisite

➤ flutter

(2 marks)

39.

➤ scrub

➤ queer

_____ rubbing it hard to clean it

➤ meet

_____ odd or strange

➤ inspire

➤ plead

(2 marks)

40.

➤ allege

➤ plush

_____ claim without proof

➤ shake-up

_____ to say what you really think

➤ candid

➤ face

(2 marks)

41.

➤ miniature

➤ cube

_____ went down a lot in value

➤ consequence

_____ a very small thing of its kind

➤ correspond to

➤ deficit

(2 marks)

42.

➤ perform

_____ small piece

➤ fracture

_____ power or strength

➤ squeeze

➤ navigation

➤ intensity

(2 marks)

43.

➤ mess

➤ game

_____ state of untidiness or dirtiness

➤ dust

_____ expression of admiration

➤ operation

➤ compliment

(2 marks)

44.

➤ shadow

➤ alcohol

_____ stage of development

➤ hip

_____ cloth worn in front to protect your clothes

➤ phase

➤ apron

(2 marks)

45.

➤ apparatus

➤ ledge

_____ set of instruments or machinery

➤ tile

_____ money raised from a bank

➤ scrap

➤ mortgage

(2 marks)

46.

- decisive
- treasurer
- scale
- disclosure
- pleasing

_____ declaration about something
_____ to be crucial

(2 marks)

47.

- bulb
- legion
- province
- mare
- pulse

_____ female horse
_____ a large group of soldiers or people

(2 marks)

48.

- fundamental
- principle
- labour
- benefit
- document

_____ a paper that provides information
_____ essential

(2 marks)

49.

- summit
- conclusion
- fibre
- loop
- plank

_____ circular shape
_____ top of a mountain

(2 marks)

50.

- causal
- desolate
- fragrant
- radical
- wholesome

_____ sweet-smelling
_____ good for your health

(2 marks)

(Total = 2 x 50 = 100 marks)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Exploring the Interactions and Perceptions of EFL Instructors in the Saudi Online Learning Environment

Ali Hussein Alamir

Faculty of Languages and Translation
King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

With the proliferation of online teaching and learning in Saudi tertiary education, the role of the instructor during students' second language (L2) interaction has been seen as crucial in the online environment. However, it is yet to conclude how to promote L2 interaction between EFL instructors and their students when they interact in instructor-student online exchanges. The aim of the current study is to examine and understand the interactions and perceptions of EFL instructors to help enhance their interactions with their L2 students in the Saudi online environment. Three EFL instructors interacted online with their Saudi EFL students for a whole semester to discuss argumentative topics in the discussion forum. Data were collected through the transcripts of online interactions and one-to-one structured interviews. A content analysis approach was employed and a template for analysing online interactions was developed during the study. Qualitative and quantitative methods were employed for data analysis. The findings show that the three instructors played different interactional roles when they interacted with their students in the online discussion forums. Instructors observed that their students paid attention to linguistic errors and improve their L2 output when they interacted in instructor-student online exchanges. Instructor online presence and language corrective feedback given by instructors appeared to influence Saudi students to pay attention to the linguistic accuracy of their interactions and improve their language in the online environment. Some implications for EFL instructors have been pointed out by the researcher to help foster online L2 interaction between EFL teachers and Saudi students. More research is needed to help understand how to promote L2 interaction between EFL teachers and L2 students in the online environment.

Keywords: content analysis, discussion forums, EFL instructors, instructor-student interaction, online learning, perceptions, Saudi students

Instructor-Student L2 Interaction

Several L2 studies have investigated teacher-student interaction in the L2 context (e.g., McNeil, 2012; Mercer, 1995; Swain et al., 2011; Zhao & Bitchener, 2007). For instance, it has been pointed out that scaffolding occurs in 'teacher-student L2 interaction' and is seen as useful for second language acquisition (Swain et al., 2011). The assistance provided by the teacher as 'the expert' is evident in L2 contexts and has been found essential for language learning (e.g., McNeil, 2012; Mercer, 1995; Zhao & Bitchener, 2007). Zhao and Bitchener (2007) found that there were more reactive form-focused episodes (FFE) in teacher-learner interactions than in learner-learner interactions and they attributed this to the fact teachers were observed to be more active than learners in responding to learners' linguistic errors. Zhao and Bitchener (2007) stress that "[i]t is more often the teacher than other learners who realizes that learners are making systematic errors on a given form and who responds accordingly, either in the form of explicit or implicit feedback" (p. 433). This shows that the role of the instructor during students' L2 interaction is seen as central for L2 development. Conversely, students in Zhao and Bitchener's study were found to engage more frequently in pre-emptive FFEs in learner-learner interactions than in teacher-learner interactions. Zhao and Bitchener (2007) explain that "learners were more likely to ask questions of each other than of their teacher" (p. 444). This indicates that L2 students may feel reluctant to interact with the teacher frequently and this may be because of the status of the instructor as the knowledge authority. Based on their results, Zhao and Bitchener (2007) suggest that L2 teachers should try to provide L2 learners with more opportunities for attempting incidental FFEs but they "are not advocating that teachers regularly focus on form if there is a risk of it inhibiting language fluency" (p. 445).

The Role of Instructor in the Online Environment

The role of the instructor during students' L2 interactions has been seen as crucial in computer-mediated communication (CMC) environments (e.g., AbuSeileek, 2007; Alwi et al., 2012; L. Lee, 2008; Loewen & Reissner, 2009; Nor et al., 2012; Paiva & Rodrigues-Junior, 2009; Salaberry, 2000; Sotillo, 2000; Stockwell, 2010; Yang, 2011; T. Zhang et al., 2007) and thus this role is also examined in the present study. For instance, instructors play a major role in facilitating students' L2 interactions in CMC (Sotillo, 2000). They engage with L2 students by reframing questions, scaffolding, and providing implicit corrective feedback through modelling. Sotillo (2000) found that the role of the instructor was essential for promoting the efficacy of students' L2 learning in CMC. She argues that the role of the instructor can "affect the learning outcomes and effectiveness of the students' language learning experiences" in CMC environments (p. 106). Paiva and Rodrigues-Junior (2009) lend support to this argument by observing how instructor supports students' online interactions and they point out that learning in the discussion forums originated from the interaction and collaboration between instructors and their students. In the L2 literature, the instructor has been seen to play a central role in promoting students' L2 learning in instructor-student CMC interactions (e.g., Alwi et al., 2012; L. Lee, 2008; Loewen & Reissner, 2009; Nor et al., 2012; Salaberry, 2000; Sotillo, 2000; Stockwell, 2010; Yang, 2011). However, how EFL instructors interact with their students in instructor-student online interactions has not been fully explored. The present study sought to answer the following questions to examine and understand how EFL instructors interact with Saudi students in the online environment.

- 1) Do EFL instructors show different quantities and qualities of their interactions when they interact with Saudi students in the online environment?
- 2) How EFL instructors perceived and viewed the interactions of Saudi students in the online environment?

Method

Three non-Saudi EFL instructors interacted with their Saudi EFL undergraduate students (N=130) in the university Blackboard. The participants were sourced from the Department of English in a prestigious university in the Southern region of Saudi Arabia. The instructors were Arab EFL speakers of PhD holders in linguistics and applied linguistics. Their age is ranged from 37 to 50 years old and their EFL teaching experience is ranged from 10 to 20 years. The mean of their online teaching experience is 2.5 years. Instructors usually use online discussion forums when they teach their students in the university Blackboard.

All courses were taught in a blended way (face-to-face and online classes). The online interaction was regarded as a part of the students' total course assessment (30% of total course assessment). Instructors interacted online with their students by discussing some argumentative topics on the discussion forums of the Blackboard and the online interactions between instructors and students lasted for about five weeks. The online interaction was open during the period of study for both instructors and students and there were no restrictions of time, numbers of posts and turns, or length of contributions.

The present study was qualitative in nature and data were collected through transcripts of online interactions and one-to-one structured interviews. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to analyse the participants' online interactions and interviews.

An Approach for Investigating Instructors' Online Interactions

The present study investigated the interactions of the instructors and their roles by applying a template for analysing the transcripts of their online exchanges (see Table 1) and conducting one-to-one interviews.

Table 1. A Template for Analyzing Instructors' Online Interactions

Analysis Level		Explanatory Level	Observations	Data Method	Analysis Method
Content Analysis	Linguistic	Interaction Discourse Function	Negotiations Feedback Opinions Questions Agreements Emotions Compliments Suggestions Greetings	Online interactions transcripts	Qualitative analysis

	Participatory	Interaction Rate	Number of posts Number of words	Online interactions transcripts	Qualitative analysis

As can be seen in Table 1, this analytical template has two analysis levels (i.e., linguistic and participatory) and looks at discourse type and interaction direction and rate. It is hoped that by applying this analytical template the role of the instructor and his or her interaction can be more deeply understood. Individual interviews were also conducted to examine the perceptions and experiences of the instructors to add to this knowledge.

Analyzing the Transcripts of Instructors' Online Interactions

The transcripts of the three instructors' interactions were analysed to investigate how they displayed their role when they interacted in instructor-student online exchanges. It was deemed useful to examine how the instructors interacted because they were observed to differ from one another in terms of the manner of online interaction and participation rate. The online interactions of instructors were coded according to the analytical template (see Table 1 above) and they were analysed qualitatively using descriptive and narrative methods. Table 2 presents some examples of coding the discourse functions of the instructors in the current study.

Table 2. Instructors' Interaction Discourse Functions—Coding Examples

Explanatory levels	Discourse Functions	Coding Examples
Interaction discourse function	Negotiation	If you are looking for published material, you have to pay for that to access it on the internet, but you can get it for free from a traditional library. What do you think?
	Feedback	Panda and Al-Goneim are not malls. A mall is a shopping center where you can find a lot of stores and areas where you can find restaurants and coffee shops like Aseer Mall.
	Opinion	I think one should go shopping once a week. In order not to waste your time, it is a very good idea to prepare a shopping list.
	Question	Is it time consuming? Do you think traditional ways of learning are better?
	Agreement	I agree with you. Al Andalus is a very good shopping center.

Emotion	I hope you will get the chance to go abroad.
Compliment	Good Mohammad. I appreciate your opinion.
Suggestion	It is better to drink fresh fruit juice.

Instructors' Interviews

Before conducting the study, instructors were given a questionnaire of 11 questions that sought to gather their EFL background information (see Appendix A), to obtain their EFL online teaching background and ensure that they have good experiences about using discussion forums in their EFL context. At the end of the study, the three instructors who participated in the present study were individually interviewed by the researcher in a conference room at the faculty to investigate their perceptions and experiences of instructor-student online interactions. Each interview lasted about 60 minutes and was voice recorded by the researcher using a small digital voice recorder. The interviews consisted of structured open-ended questions (see Appendix B). Instructors had the choice of being interviewed in Arabic or English to give them the opportunity to clearly explain their feelings about their online interactions and the roles they played when they interacted with their students in the discussion forums. Instructors in the present study primarily used Arabic language but they sometimes switched to English language when they described the performance of their students.

Results of Instructors' Online Interactions

Table 3. Instructors' Discourse Functions in the Forums—Frequency Scores

Analysis Level	Discourse Functions in the Forum	Instructor Ibrahim	Instructor Adel	Instructor Omar
Linguistic	Negotiations	1	23	5
	Feedback	1	10	14
	Opinions	4	3	3
	Questions	5	36	5
	Agreements	2	1	3
	Emotions	1	2	2
	Compliments	0	2	24
	Suggestions	4	0	3
	Greetings	0	0	0
	Total	18	77	59

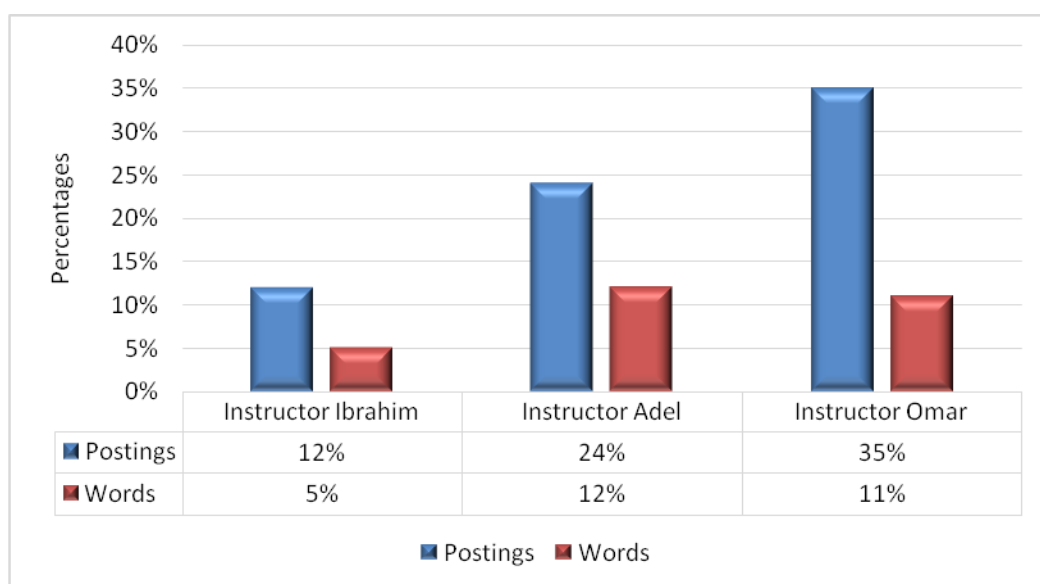
According to Tables 3 and 4, from the linguistic and participatory results, it was found that there were differences in the frequency scores of instructors' online interactions in terms of discourse functions and rates of participation. This indicates that the three instructors interacted differently from one another and they played different roles when they interacted with their students. It can be argued that because of the individual differences of the instructors in the present study, it is possible that they showed different roles.

Table 4. Instructors' Participation in the Forums—Frequency Scores

Analysis Level	Online Interaction	Instructor Ibrahim	Instructor Adel	Instructor Omar
Participatory	Number of posts in the forum	10	54	24
	Number of words in the forum	120	840	382

For instance, instructor Ibrahim held a high administrative position in the faculty and this may have affected his interactions as he participated with his students less frequently than other instructors during the experiment of the current study.

A cross-comparison analysis between the three instructors was conducted and the rates of their discourse functions and participation, in comparison with their students' rates in the forums, were contrasted by graphs.

**Figure 1. Instructors' Participation in the Forums**

In terms of participation rates, instructors were found to produce different rates of postings and words when they interacted with their students. As can be seen in Figure 1, instructor Omar was found to have the highest participation rate of postings among other instructors. This indicates that he interacted with his students more frequently than other instructors. Instructor Ibrahim, on the other hand, was found to have the lowest participation rates in terms of postings and words among instructors. This shows that he interacted with his students less frequently than other instructors. By looking at instructor Adel's participation rates, it can be observed that he seemed to have a higher rate of postings than instructor Ibrahim but a lower rate of postings than instructor Omar. Given that the three instructors produced different rates of participation, the present study further explored their online interactions in terms of

discourse functions to help understand their interactions and the roles they displayed when they interacted with their students as instructor-student online exchanges.

As can be seen in Figure 2, instructor Adel was observed to have the highest ratio scores of discourse functions among other instructors. This shows that he engaged in online interaction with his students more than other instructors. Instructor Ibrahim, on the other hand, was observed to have the lowest ratio scores of discourse functions among other instructors in the study. He interacted with his students less frequently than other instructors. Lastly, instructor Omar was found to have higher ratio scores of discourse functions than instructor Ibrahim but he had lower ratio scores than instructor Adel.

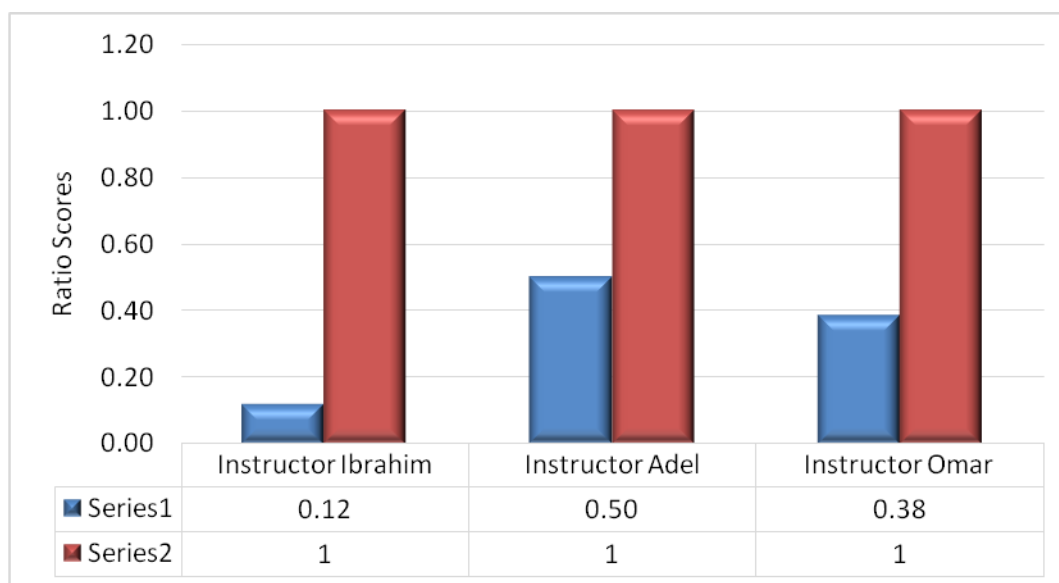


Figure 2. Discourse Functions among Instructors

To better understand how instructors differed from one another in the present study, their online interaction discourse functions were investigated individually in the following sections.

Results of Instructor Ibrahim's Online Interactions

By looking at the discourse functions of instructor Ibrahim's online interactions in Figure 3, it can be found that he mostly used to engage in directing questions, giving opinions, and providing suggestions when he interacted in instructor-student online exchanges. These functions show that he engaged in interactive online exchanges with his students although he displayed a small rate of participation (12%). Instructor Ibrahim seemed to express a moderate rate of agreements and this indicates that he was projecting his online social presence by showing his recognition to his students' contributions in the online forums. Engaging in negotiations, giving feedback, and expressing emotions were found to be the least frequent discourse functions displayed by instructor Ibrahim. Importantly, instructor Ibrahim was not found to exchange greetings or compliments with his students in the forum. This can explain why he had smaller rates of participation than other instructors.

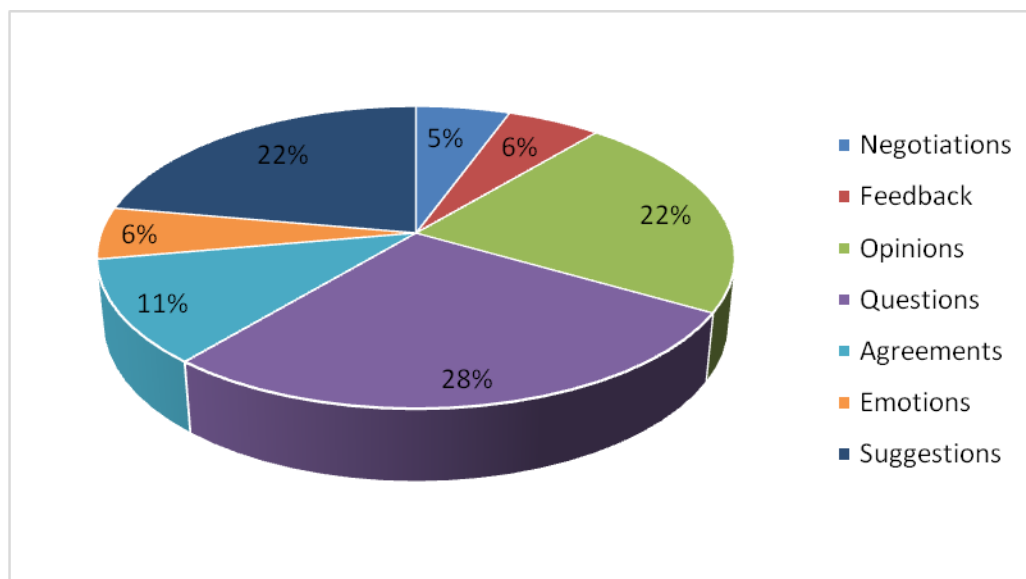


Figure 3. Instructor Ibrahim's Discourse Functions

Therefore, instructor Ibrahim, had the smallest rate of participation and the lowest rate of discourse functions as compared with other instructors. Because instructor Ibrahim's students were studying in the final year of their B.A. program, he might have avoided interaction with them frequently, so that they could benefit more from participation and interaction in their online discussion forum. The fact that instructor Ibrahim had a high administrative position in the faculty might have also affected the way he participated and interacted online with his students.

Results of Instructor Adel's Online Interactions

By looking at the discourse functions of instructor Adel's online interactions in Figure 4, his interactions were dominated by directing questions and engaging in negotiations when he interacted with his students. Directing questions amounted to about 50 percent of his online interactions. Exchanging questions and negotiations frequently can indicate that instructor Adel had online interactive participation with his students in the discussion forum. Instructor Adel had the largest rates of questions and negotiations among instructors. It can be noted that there is a relationship between the amount of instructor Adel's questions and his negotiations. That is, instructor Adel had a large number of negotiations because he directed a large number of questions to his students in the forum.

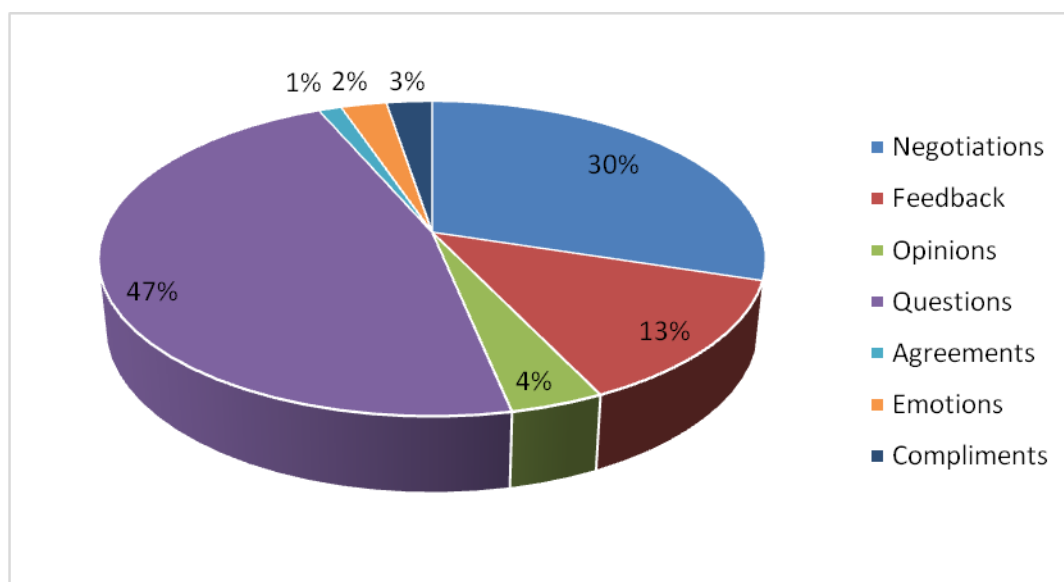


Figure 4. Instructor Adel's Discourse Functions

Although instructor Adel had the largest numbers of questions and negotiations among instructors, his participation rate with his students (24%) was lower than instructor Omar's (35%) but higher than instructor Ibrahim's (12%). This can indicate that he did not engage in other discourse functions as frequently as questions and negotiations. In terms of other discourse functions, instructor Adel's online interactions had a moderate rate of providing feedback and small rates of sharing opinions and projecting online social presence like expressing emotions, agreements, or compliments. Instructor Adel was rarely found to express agreements with his students. He avoided expressing his agreements or disagreements may be because of the large number of students' different opinions posted on the discussion forum. Another likely reason is that showing agreements with some students and not showing agreements with other students can discourage students from participation or interaction in the discussion forum. Because showing agreement is regarded as one of the social presence behaviours in online forums, it can be argued that because instructor Adel hardly expressed agreement with his students this contributed to the lower proportion of his social presence density.

As can be seen in Figure 4, instructor Adel rarely displayed his online social presence when he interacted with his students because expressing agreements, emotions, and compliments were found to be the least frequent discourse functions in his online interactions. Greetings and suggestions can be seen as social presence indicators (c.f. Garrison et al., 2000) but instructor Adel did not exchange them with his students in the forums. This may have contributed to his low degree of social presence. It can be argued that the perception of social interaction between the instructor and the student might have influenced instructor Adel to avoid projecting his online social presence frequently when he interacted with his students. In terms of avoiding using greetings with students in instructor-student online exchanges, from an Arabic cultural perspective, instructor Adel might have believed that students should greet him first because it is a cultural norm that the student (the younger) has to start greeting his instructor (the older) in social interactions from the Islamic tradition in Arab world.

Because instructor Adel had the largest number of discourse functions among instructors it can be argued that his online interactions (particularly questions and negotiations) seem to be helpful for students' L2 learning because they can trigger students to engage in L2 interaction

and promote their language output in the discussion forum from the perspectives of SLA interactionists.

Results of Instructor Omar's Online Interactions

By looking at Figure 5, it can be observed that instructor Omar produced several types of discourse functions when he interacted with his students in the online discussion forum. Instructor Omar had the highest rate of participation (35%) with his students as compared to the other instructors. This rate of participation is reflected in using various discourse functions. As can be seen in Figure 5, the online interactions of instructor Omar were dominated by expressing compliments. This indicates that he displayed a large degree of social presence by complimenting his students and showing recognition of their contributions in the forum (c.f. Garrison et al., 2000). This may be because instructor Omar wanted his students to have confidence and use their language when they interacted with their instructor in the online forum.

As compared with other instructors, instructor Omar had the highest degree of social presence as he expressed the largest frequency of compliments when he interacted with his students in the online forum. This may be attributed to the fact that he was the youngest instructor in the present study.

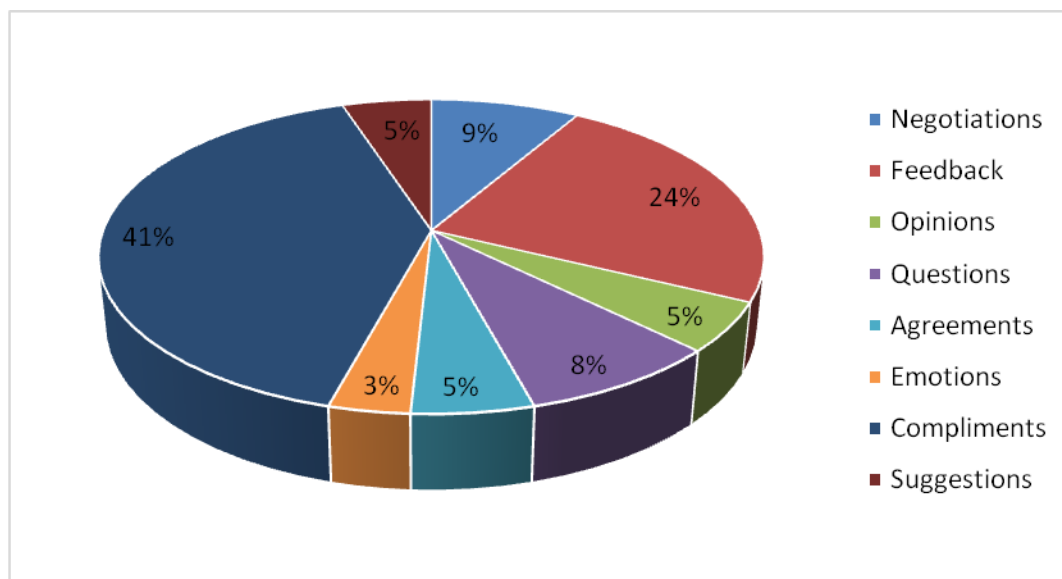


Figure 5. Instructor Omar's Discourse Functions

The second predominant discourse function in instructor Omar's online interactions was providing feedback. Instructor Omar had a larger rate of feedback (24%) with his students than instructors Ibrahim (6%) and Adel (13%). Instructor Omar might have found it important to provide his students with feedback, so that they could have support from their instructor in the forum. In terms of other discourse functions, as can be seen in Figure 5, instructor Omar had similar small percentages of using questions and negotiations as well as opinions, agreements, and suggestions when he interacted online with his students. Instructor Omar did not engage frequently in these discourse functions because he was busy with his teaching load during the course of the current study and he had many courses and large numbers of students as found in his interview.

The only thing that I was not happy with is that I could not argue with my students a lot because I did not have enough time. I had several courses and large numbers of students in each course and this made it difficult for me to interact frequently with my students in instructor-student online exchanges.

Instructor Omar gave compliments and feedback more frequently than other discourse functions because he may have been concerned with providing his students with confidence and the language support during their online exchanges.

On the basis of the findings above, it can be argued that instructor Omar's online interactions and feedback seem to be helpful because they can influence students to learn incidentally and improve their language from the perspectives of SLA interactionists and sociocultural theory. Because instructors produced different rates of discourse functions, participation, and social presence, it was deemed important to examine their perceptions and experiences when they interacted in instructor-student online interactions.

Results of Instructor Ibrahim's Interview

To start with, it was found that instructor Ibrahim positively perceived participation and interaction in instructor-student online exchanges.

I felt happy when I saw my students participated in the online discussion forum and interacted with me. My students appeared to feel comfortable to interact with me to the extent that they used to personally communicate with me via emails during the course of online interactions.

The instructor indicated that his online participation in the discussion forum helped students to interact with him online. This shows that the online presence of instructor might have influenced students' interactions in the online environment as to help them to interact online frequently.

Instructor Ibrahim noted his students putting more effort into their linguistic accuracy when their instructor than with their peers. The online presence of instructor might have affected students positively as to maintain a high degree of linguistic accuracy during their online exchanges with their instructor.

I noted that my students' language output improved when they interacted with me than with their peers. They produced correct grammatical sentences and sometimes post complex grammatical sentences.

However, some students were found to make some language errors and instructor Ibrahim described how he reacted when he saw their language mistakes in instructor-student online exchanges.

When I saw the grammatical errors of my students I used to give them language feedback by sending them emails or talking to them personally during the sessions of their FtF class.

It can be observed that instructor Ibrahim provided his students corrective feedback when he saw their grammatical errors and he used email and FtF class to communicate the language errors with his students. Providing corrective feedback via email and during FtF class shows that instructor Ibrahim did not want to embarrass his students by explicitly drawing their attention to their language mistakes in front of other interlocutors in their online discussion forum.

Given that students were found to receive corrective feedback from their instructors during instructor-student online exchanges, it can be indicated that this feedback was seen as helpful because it influenced students to take care of their language accuracy. This feedback accordingly contributed to the increase of students' level of linguistic accuracy in instructor-student online exchanges. For example, Ibrahim reported that he used to give his students corrective feedback in their FtF class.

I used to say please pay attention to the mistakes you make! These are some grammatical errors that you have to be aware of because you are going to graduate soon and be English teachers!

This indicates that the instructor discussed with his students their grammatical errors in the FtF class. Therefore, students' linguistic accuracy improved during instructor-student online exchanges. Not only did instructor Ibrahim provide his students with language corrective feedback, but he also encouraged them to visit online resources and develop their language grammar.

I also encouraged my students to visit YouTube and benefit from available lessons and materials such as how to develop English grammar and use English tenses correctly.

These recommendations or suggestions which were given by the instructor might have influenced students to refer to English internet resources and benefit from English grammar lessons to improve their language accuracy.

Concerning email communications, it was found that instructor Ibrahim communicated personally with his students during the course of online interactions. This shows that students felt comfortable to exchange private emails with their instructor and the online presence of instructor might have encouraged them to feel happy to exchange personal emails with their instructor.

Sometimes some students used to email me to discuss their own personal problems. For example, one student sent me an email to explain his English language learning problems and he asked me for some help.

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that instructor-student online interactions benefited students' linguistic accuracy and solving their language problems.

Results of Instructor Adel's Interview

It was found that instructor Adel positively perceived the online interactions with his students in the discussion forum. He noted that his students showed a large range of interactions when they interacted in instructor-student online exchanges. This indicates that students might have been influenced positively by the online presence of their instructor in the forum.

I felt comfortable and happy when I interacted with my students in the discussion forum. The students' online interactions were good and I saw my students' were very excited to the extent that they generated a large number of online posts. Some students' online interactions were more than expected especially from more competent students.

Instructor Adel observed that students paid more attention to the linguistic accuracy of their online interactions when they interacted with their instructors than with their peers. This observation supports the observations of instructor Ibrahim above as students were found to be

concerned with the linguistic accuracy of their online interactions in instructor-student online exchanges.

I noted that my students were more cautious about their grammatical errors when they interacted with me than with their peers.

Because of the presence of the instructor as the knowledge expert, students put more effort into writing accurate online exchanges. In terms of providing language corrective feedback, instructor Adel did not provide his students with any feedback.

I did not correct the errors of my students or provide corrective feedback to them when I saw their grammatical errors because I was more concerned with the content of their interaction than with their language errors. I neither provided them with language corrections in the FtF class nor sent them emails to draw their attention to their language errors.

Although students did not receive any language corrective feedback from their instructor this does not mean that they did not pay more attention to their language accuracy in instructor-student online exchanges. Importantly, the online presence of the instructor was seen as a major factor which influenced students to put more effort into maintaining linguistic accuracy. However, it can be argued that when the online presence of the instructor is coupled with the provision of language corrective feedback linguistic accuracy can be promoted more than when there is no language corrective feedback.

Results of Instructor Omar's Interview

It can be observed that instructor Omar positively perceived the online interactions of instructor-student online exchanges and observed that his students benefited linguistically from the interactions in the online forum.

My online interaction experience in the discussion forum was good. I benefited from it and so did my students because of the language input and output. Students benefited from their output to develop their input when in the online discussion forum.

Instructor Omar noted that his students paid more attention to their linguistic accuracy when they interacted with their instructor than with their peers.

I noted that my students were more careful about their linguistic accuracy when they interacted with their instructor than with their peers and I think this may be because that they were aware of the online presence of their instructor in the online discussion forum.

What instructor Omar reported indicates that the online presence of the instructor might have influenced students to be more cautious about making language errors. This underscores that the presence of the instructor can be seen as useful for the improvement of students' linguistic accuracy during their interactions in their online discussion forums.

In terms of language corrective feedback, instructor Omar was found to provide his students with overt corrective feedback when making spelling errors. This in fact was seen evident in the transcripts of online interactions in the present study. It can be argued that explicit feedback provided by instructor Omar might have influenced his students to be more cautious about making language errors. This indicates that instructor Omar influenced his students by drawing

their attention to their linguistic errors which they made when they interacted in instructor-student online exchanges.

Concerning using email communication, instructor Omar reported that he used email to communicate with his students during the course of the present study in this way.

I used email communications and so did my students. 40% of emails were sent as personal communications and 60% of them were sent as course communications. I sometimes used to send emails as a group communication when addressing or discussing the course content and I used to send email as a private communication if the issue was personal.

From the ways which instructor Omar used when using email communication with his students it can be deduced that he used to send his students corrective feedback. Therefore, it can be argued that language corrective feedback which students received on the forum, during the FtF class, and via email were seen as helpful because it might have influenced students to improve their linguistic accuracy in instructor-student online exchanges.

Discussion

The present study found that the instructors produced different rates of discourse functions and participation. This clearly shows that the three different EFL instructors differed from one another when they interacted with Saudi students in the online environment. This can possibly be attributed to the individual differences between the instructors in the present study. Instructor Adel produced a higher rate of discourse functions than instructors Ibrahim and Omar. On the other hand, instructor Ibrahim produced the smallest rates of discourse functions and participation among instructors in this study. He did not interact with his students frequently, maybe because he was busy with the commitments of his high administrative position in the faculty.

The three different EFL instructors exhibited different qualities in their interactions when they interacted with Saudi students in instructor-student online exchanges. This observation has been widely documented in previous studies (e.g., AbuSeileek, 2007; L. Lee, 2008; Loewen & Reissner, 2009; Yang, 2011). First, instructor Ibrahim produced the lowest rates of online interactions. He interacted less frequently with his students. His online interactions consisted mainly of the observations of sharing opinions, directing questions, and providing suggestions. However, instructor Ibrahim rarely negotiated with his students, provided feedback, or expressed his emotions. Instructor Ibrahim was not found to compliment or greet his students. Secondly, instructor Adel produced the highest rate of discourse functions and his online interactions were dominated by directing questions and negotiations. He directed questions and negotiated with his students more frequently than other instructors. This type of interaction has been seen as useful for L2 students and supports what have been found in L2 research (e.g., McNeil, 2012). It has been pointed out that referential questions which are directed by the teacher can “elicit students’ thoughts, reasons, experiences, and opinions” and they can also “prompt students to comprehend and produce target language that reflects their own thinking” (McNeil, 2012, p. 396). Instructor Adel engaged predominantly in posting questions and negotiating with students in the discussion forums and this supports previous L2 studies as well (e.g., Nor et al., 2012). It can be argued that directing questions appeared to contribute to the increase of the number of negotiations in the discussion forum which promote L2 interaction.

Furthermore, instructor Omar gave the highest rates of participation and his interactions were dominated by providing feedback and expressing compliments more frequently than the other instructors. It has been evident that complimenting EFL students and appreciating their contributions appeared to encourage them to post and exchange more in the discussion forum (e.g., T. Zhang et al., 2007).

With respect to the quality and quantity of instructors' online interactions, as in Sotillo (2000), it was found that EFL instructors in the present study rarely expressed emotions, humour, greetings, and agreements when they interacted with their students and this might have influenced the quality and quantity of Saudi students' online interaction (e.g., the degree of their online social presence in the forum). Another likely reason for this finding is that instructors reported that they could not argue and interact very frequently with their Saudi students because they did not have enough time.

Implications for EFL Instructors

On the basis of the findings of the present study, it is possible to make some suggestions for EFL instructors. The role of the instructor is seen as an essential one for promoting students' L2 learning in the online environment (e.g., Loewen & Reissner, 2009; Sotillo, 2000; Yang, 2011). It is important that the instructor should facilitate Saudi students' participation and L2 learning during their online interactions. The instructor should read students' online interactions, respond to their contributions, provide them with feedback, argue with them, and compliment them for their contributions (c.f., Nor et al., 2012; Yang, 2011). In particular, this role should be utilized whenever learning problems arise. To foster Saudi students' L2 interaction and learning in the online environment, EFL instructors should share their ideas, greet their students, express their emotions, use humour with them, compliment them and express appreciation of their contributions during their online interactions. They also should utilize their roles in a supportive way by considering why, when, and how to engage with students, provide them feedback, negotiate with them, scaffold them, and support their social presence.

Conclusion

To sum up, it can be observed that the three instructors in the present study produced different rates of discourse functions, participation, and social presence when they interacted online with their students in the discussion forums. This indicates that they displayed different interaction roles with their students in the online environment. This can be attributed to several reasons which include instructors' individual differences, their administrative and teaching commitments in the faculty, and the perception of social interaction between students and the instructor. Therefore, these factors might have influenced the ways the instructors interacted online with their students in the present study.

On the basis of the L2 interactions of instructors in the present study, it can be concluded that exchanging questions and negotiations with students can be seen as helpful for students' L2 learning because they can trigger them to engage in L2 interaction and promote their language output in the online environment as believed by SLA interactionists (e.g., Ellis, 1999; Long, 1996; Mackey, 1999). Furthermore, exchanging agreements and compliments with students and providing them with feedback (i.e., scaffolding) can be seen as useful for students' language as they help them to acquire language incidentally and promote their engagement in the online environment.

Importantly, instructor-student online interaction can help students to pay more attention to their language errors and improve their linguistic accuracy because they interact with the expert as claimed by SLA sociocultural researchers (e.g., Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Swain et al., 2011). More importantly, the instructors' online presence and language corrective feedback are seen as essential for students' L2 learning and acquisition in the online environment.

About the Author:

Dr. Ali Hussein Alamir is an assistant professor in applied linguistics at the Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia. His research interests include computer-assisted language learning (CALL), computer-mediated communication (CMC), and second language acquisition (SLA).

References

- AbuSeileek, A. F. (2007). Cooperative vs. individual learning of oral skills in a CALL environment. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 20(5), 493-514.
- Alwi, N. A. N. M., Adams, R., & Newton, J. (2012). Writing to learn via text chat: Task implementation and focus on form. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(1), 23-39. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.12.001>
- Ellis, R. (1999). Learning a second language through interaction. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., & Archer, W. (2000). Critical inquiry in a textbased environment: Computer conferencing in higher education. *Internet and Higher Education*, 2(2-3), 87-105.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lee, L. (2008). Focus-on-form through collaborative scaffolding in expert-to-novice *online interaction*. *Language Learning & Technology*, 12(3), 53-72.
- Loewen, S., & Reissner, S. (2009). A comparison of incidental focus on form in the second language classroom and chatroom. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 22(2), 101-114. doi: 10.1080/09588220902778211
- Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of Second language acquisition*. (pp. 413-468). San Diego CA: Academic Press.
- Mackey, A. (1999). Stepping up the pace: An empirical study of input, interaction, and second language development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 557-588.
- McNeil, L. (2012). Using talk to scaffold referential questions for English language learners. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(3), 396-404. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.11.005>
- Mercer, N. (1995). The guided construction of knowledge: Talk amongst teachers and learners. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Nor, N. F. M., Hamat, A., & Embi, M. A. (2012). Patterns of discourse in online interaction: Seeking evidence of the collaborative learning process. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 25(3), 237-256. doi: 10.1080/09588221.2012.655748
- Paiva, V. L. M. d. O. e., & Rodrigues-Junior, A. S. (2009). Investigating Interaction in an EFL Online Environment Handbook of Research on E-Learning Methodologies for Language Acquisition (pp. 53-68). Hershey, P. : IGI Global.

- Salaberry, M. R. (2000). L2 morphosyntactic development in text-based computer-mediated communication. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 13(1), 5-27.
- Stockwell, G. (2010). Effects of multimodality in computer-mediated communication tasks. In M. Thomas, H. Reinders & C. Ebooks (Eds.), *Task-based language learning and teaching with technology* (Chapter 5). New York : Continuum.
- Sotillo, S. M. (2000). Discourse functions and syntactic complexity in synchronous and asynchronous communication. *Language Learning & Technology*, 4(1), 82-119.
- Swain, M., Kinnear, P., & Steinman, L. (2011). *Sociocultural theory in second language education: An introduction through narratives*. Bristol; Buffalo: Multilingual Matters.
- Yang, Y.-F. (2011). Engaging students in an online situated language learning environment. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 24(2), 181-198. doi: 10.1080/09588221.2010.538700
- Zhang, T., Gao, T., Ring, G., & Zhang, W. (2007). Using online discussion forums to assist a traditional english class. *International Journal on ELearning*, 6(4), 623-643.
- Zhao, S. Y., & Bitchener, J. (2007). Incidental focus on form in teacher–learner and learner–learner interactions. *System*, 35(4), 431-447. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2007.04.004>

Appendices

Appendix A

Instructors' Pre-Interview Questionnaire

Instructors' Background Information

Code.....Interview#.....

We really do appreciate your participation in this study. Please kindly answer the following questions!

- 1) How old are you?
.....
- 2) What is your nationality?
.....
- 3) What are your qualifications?
.....
- 4) How many years have you been teaching English language in general?
.....
- 5) Have you ever taught English Language to students in Europe? If yes, please specify.
.....
- 6) How many years have you been teaching English language in the Faculty?
.....
- 7) How many years have you been teaching English language courses using the mode of blended learning?
Before joining the Faculty:
After joining the Faculty:
- 8) Have you ever used email lists or online discussion forums in language teaching with your students? If so, where and when did you use it/them, and what was the name of the course?

-
- 9) How many English courses do you currently teach using the mode of blended learning?
-
- 10) Do you use any technology other than the Blackboard educational system when you interact and communicate with your students? If so, what are they and for what purposes do you use them?
-
- 11) If you would like to say anything about the study, the interactions in instructor-student online exchanges, or the blended teaching/learning mode please feel free to write it down?
-

Thank You Very Much for Your Participation! ☺

Appendix B

Instructor Interviews

A) Interactions in Instructor-Student Online Exchanges.

- 1) What was your experience like when you interacted with your students in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 2) What was the most interesting thing you found when you interacted with your students in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 3) Did you feel socially engaged when you interacted with your students in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? In what way? Give some examples please?
- 4) Did you feel a sense of being a part of one online social learning community when you interacted with your students in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? In what way?
- 5) Describe your reactions when you read your students' messages and posts in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 6) How did you feel about the interactions of your students in terms of language performance and the degree of their social presence when you interacted in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 7) Please describe the grammatical complexity and linguistic accuracy of your students' interactions when they interacted in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 8) Did you find that your students paid more attention to the linguistic accuracy of their interactions when they interacted in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? How?
- 9) Did they tend to write sophisticated sentences when they interacted in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? How?
- 10) Did the discussion topics stimulate you and your students to interact in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? How? Give some examples please?
- 11) Did you have any difficulties during interactions in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 12) Would you like to say anything more about your interactions in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?

Thank You Very Much for Your Participation! ☺

Peer Feedback, Self-correction, and Writing Proficiency of Indonesian EFL Students

Bambang Yudi Cahyono

Universitas Negeri Malang, East Java, Indonesia

Rosyi Amrina

Graduate Program in English Language Teaching,
Universitas Negeri Malang, East Java, Indonesia

Abstract

This study investigated the effectiveness of peer feedback and self-correction based on guideline sheets on the writing ability of the Indonesian EFL students. It involved 71 Indonesian EFL students taking the Essay Writing course at Universitas Negeri Malang, an Indonesian university. The students were from three intact classes and they were given different types of treatment: The students from Class A were given peer feedback based on a guideline sheet, those from Class B were assigned to do self-correction based on a guideline sheet, and those from Class C were involved in a conventional editing process of writing. The results of the study showed that the students given peer feedback based on a guideline sheet (Class A) have better ability in writing essays than those who were not given peer feedback (Class C); the students conducting self-correction based on a guideline sheet (Class B) have better ability in writing essays than those who did not conduct self-correction (Class C); and both peer feedback based on a guideline sheet (given to Class A) and self-correction based on a guideline sheet (given to Class B) significantly improved the ability in writing essays of the students in the two experimental classes. Given that the two types of treatment were effective in increasing the students' scores in essay writing, peer feedback and self-correction based on guidelines sheets are recommended for practical use in EFL classrooms as well as for further research studies.

Keywords: Indonesian EFL students, peer feedback, self-correction, writing proficiency

Introduction

One of the language skills that need to be learned by students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) is writing. However, writing is not an easy task for many EFL students, including those from Indonesia. This is because writing demands adequate knowledge of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics (Jacobs, Zinkraf, Wormuth et al., 1981). It also requires a responsibility in self-monitoring in the process of planning, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing (Cresswell, 2000). Given the fact that it is hard for EFL students to be independent in controlling the quality of their writing, the help of other people or an activity to raise their awareness for self-monitoring is needed. The help of other people that is given to someone in the process of writing is called *feedback*. Meanwhile, the activity in raising students' awareness to monitor their own writing can be conducted through self-revision (Srichanyachon, 2014), self-feedback (Wakabayashi, 2013), self-correction (Hajimohammadi & Mukundan, 2011), or guided-self correction (Yukio, 1998).

Literature Review

A number of research studies show that feedback on writing helps EFL students modify their essays to a better quality (e.g. Liu, 2008; Boughey, 1997; Dheram, 1995). Dheram (1995), for example, investigated how students responded to feedback on both language use and content. The first draft and the second draft of the students' essays were compared. The results showed that the students attempted to revise their first drafts. The revisions included syntactic, semantic, and stylistic modifications. They also added arguments with fresh details different from the ones used in their earlier drafts. In line with Dheram, Boughey (1997) examined the effect of feedback given to students working in groups to finish an academic essay. Examination of the first draft indicated that the essay contained claims that were not supported. In the second draft, the students tried to make links between propositions. The results of Liu's (2008) study strengthened the findings that feedback enabled EFL students to reduce errors and improve accuracy in the new piece of writing. From the research studies, it was evident that students used feedback as reference for adding, deleting, and rearranging ideas in their essays.

Teacher or students in the same classroom are frequently referred to as the ones who could give feedback to students' writing. Feedback given by the teacher is called *teacher feedback*. Research shows that teacher feedback can improve the quality of the students' writing. Hyland (1998), for example, conducted a study on six ESL writers' responses to feedback and the uses of teacher written feedback for revision in an English proficiency program course. The findings of Hyland's study revealed that the students tried to use most of the usable feedback for the revision since they valued the feedback. Moreover, students responded to the feedback in three different ways, namely by following the corrections based on the feedback, extending the revision beyond the suggestions addressed by the feedback, and deleting the problematic features to avoid the issues given in the feedback. Thus, based on the teacher feedback, the students have made some revisions for the better quality of their writing.

Feedback given by fellow students is called *peer feedback*. A number of studies showed that the students modified their essays on the basis of feedback given by their peers. Villamil and Guerrero (1998) investigated the impact of individual peer feedback on ESL students' final draft. The results showed that some points of revision during the interaction were incorporated into final versions of the students' writing. In contrast, Porto (2001) examined feedback given by

cooperative writing response groups. The students were assigned a topic to be written at home and required to bring their first draft for peer feedback. The members of the group gave the feedback in the group session. The results showed that cooperative writing response groups raised students' awareness about writing process and helped them focus their own strengths in writing. Furthermore, students not only get the benefit of peer feedback, they even prefer peer feedback to teacher feedback. This is evident from a research report conducted by Jacobs, Curtis, Braine and Huang (1998). Jacobs et al. (1998) discovered that the majority of the learners preferred peer feedback for they thought that peers could provide more ideas and locate problems they had missed.

In the case that peer feedback cannot be given in the classroom due to time constraint and students' personality factors, students might be asked to have self-correction (Hajimohammadi & Mukundan, 2011) which is also called self-revision (Srichanyachon, 2014) or self-feedback (Wakabayashi, 2013). Srichanyachon (2014) identified the methods used by EFL learners to improve their own writing. One of the methods was self-revision. She found out that in conducting self-revision, the students most frequently referred to a dictionary and checked whether their final draft covered all topics in their outline. She also revealed that students with high English background knowledge used more self-revision method than those with low English background knowledge. Wakabayashi (2013) carried out a study focusing on self-feedback involving advanced EFL learners. She found that students who reviewed their own drafts improved their final products with significant gain compared to the earlier drafts. Similarly, as reported in Hajimohammadi and Mukundan's (2011) study, students who conducted self-correction also improved their final writing products significantly.

One of the factors that need to be considered in giving feedback is the components of writing to be emphasized. As far as the components of writing are concerned, feedback can be given for all components of writing (Jacobs et al., 1981; Weigle, 2002), i.e. content, organization, and language use (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics), or on a particular component of writing, for example grammatical errors, diction, or content. However, according to Porto (2001) for peer feedback in particular, emphasis should be given on content and meaning, not grammar or style. Zaman and Azad (2012) reported that students preferred feedback on the forms rather than content and they also liked to be given direct feedback rather than indirect feedback. However, it is important to note that the students in Zaman and Azad's study were EFL students with unsatisfactory language proficiency. In short, regardless of the different components of writing to be emphasized, the ultimate goal of providing corrective feedback is to help students develop their writing (Zaman & Azad, 2012; Liu, 2008; Porto, 2001).

It is clear that either the teacher or peers could give effective feedback for the improvement of the students' writing. The teacher and peer feedback may be used alternately or in combination in the process of writing. The teacher feedback will be of better values for it can cover all components of writing. However, peer feedback will be an important issue if the class is so big that it is just impossible for the teacher to provide feedback. It might be argued whether peers are capable enough in giving feedback. In this case, it is important that the teacher has to make sure that the peers know clearly what to do. Training the students in practice session (Cresswell, 2000) or giving a guideline sheet (Yukio, 1998) would overcome this shortage.

Another thing to be taken in mind is that feedback remains an alternative, and the student writer has his or her own authorial decision on what to take from the teacher or peer feedback.

There has been a debate on which types of feedback – teacher feedback, peer feedback, and self-correction – best contribute to the development of the students' ability in EFL writing. This debate has stimulated comparative studies on the effect of the types of feedback. Within this area of research, the present study is situated on the basis of the Indonesian context of EFL writing, following other research studies in the same area. One of the research studies that is worth mentioning is Ganji's (2009). In his research comparing the impacts of teacher-correction, peer-correction, and self-correction on Iranian students' ability in IELTS essay writing, Ganji (2009) found that there were significant differences in the results of the comparison of each of the three types of treatment. Among the three types of treatment, peer-correction was found to be the most influential, whereas teacher feedback was the least influential. Because the research was a comparison of types of feedback provision, without comparing the results from a control group, we are not sure if the differences in the results of the treatment reflect significant gain indicating the improvement of the students' IELTS writing competence. Meanwhile, earlier research on self-revision, for example the one conducted by Srichanyachon (2014), did not reveal the effect of self-revision on students' writing achievement as her focus of study was on the need of the students to do self-revision. Both Wakabayashi's (2013) study on self-feedback as well as Hajimohammadi and Mukundan's (2011) study on self-correction showed that the students who were involved in the research studies improved their writing significantly.

In Indonesia, writing is taught as one of the language skill courses in the English department of universities or teacher training colleges. At the Universitas Negeri Malang, one of the prominent universities located in the Province of East Java, writing is offered as a series of three courses: *Paragraph Writing*, *Essay Writing*, and *Argumentative Writing*. This study deals with the provision of feedback in the Essay Writing course in particular. The provision of teacher feedback into the students' writing might help the students improve the quality of their writing. However, due to the big classes of students attending writing courses, provision of teacher feedback is hard to do. Therefore, this study focuses on the provision of peer feedback. In addition, it examines the use of self-correction conducted by individual students. In order to help students to be aware of the areas of feedback that should be given to their classmates and to enable students to carry out the self-correction, the students were provided with a guideline sheet, a method of providing feedback which was also conducted by Yukio (1998). The guideline sheet covers the aspects of writing as shown by Jacobs et al. (1981) and Weigle (2002), which include content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics.

Research Questions

This study aims to investigate the effectiveness of peer feedback and self-correction each of which is based on a guideline sheet on the writing ability of the Indonesian EFL students. However, because of the hurdle regarding the big class, the present study focuses on peer feedback and self-correction. The term 'feedback' is used to cover feedback in the form of correction and remarks beyond correction. More specifically, the research questions are stated as follows:

- (1) Do the students given peer feedback based on a guideline sheet have better ability in writing essays than those who are not given peer feedback?

- (2) Do the students conducting self-correction based on a guideline sheet have better ability in writing essays than those who do not conduct self-correction?
- (3) Which among the two strategies (peer feedback based on a guideline sheet and self-correction based on a guideline sheet) shows a better result?

Method

The present study aims to investigate how peer feedback and self-correction, both are based on guideline sheet, affect Indonesian EFL students' ability in writing essays. This study involved 71 sophomore students who took Essay Writing course offered in the English Department of Universitas Negeri Malang. These students were taken from three intact classes of the Essay Writing course. The first class (Class A) consisted of 25 students. The second class (Class B) consisted of 25 students, while the third class (Class C) consisted of 21 students. These three classes of students used the same essay writing materials which were based on a textbook entitled *Refining Composition Skills* written by Smalley, Ruetten and Kozyrev (2001:103-211). In particular, the student had practiced in writing essays based on three types of development: exemplification, comparison and contrast, and classification. All the three classes were involved in the stages of process writing, commencing from planning, drafting, revising, to editing.

Prior to the treatment given to the students, the students in the three classes were given a pretest. The pretest was based on the exemplification essay and the students were asked to write an essay with a topic of their choice. In the treatment given to the students, the students underwent essay writing of two different types of development, namely comparison and contrast essay and classification essay. In the planning stage, the students were asked to find out a topic they were interested in. In the drafting stage, they wrote the introductory paragraph, the developmental paragraphs, and the concluding paragraph. Process of revision was conducted in an on-going way in the process of essay development. In the editing process in particular, the three classes have had different treatment. Students from Class A were given peer feedback based on a guideline sheet. Students from Class B were those conducting self-correction based on a guideline sheet. Unlike the students from the two classes, students in Class C were involved in a conventional way of editing without any guideline sheet. The conventional revision was conducted by reading the draft and checking for possible errors.

The guideline sheet used in this study was based on the debate of the important components that should be given in providing feedback as discussed earlier some authors emphasized one of a few components of writing (e.g. Porto, 2001; Zaman & Azad, 2012). We believe that the more complete the components of writing are included in guideline sheet, the better the students will be helped in developing their writing. In developing the guideline sheet, we were inspired by the editing and proofreading checklist developed by Sebranek, Kemper and Meyer (1999) and Fellag (2010). From Sebranek et al.'s (1999) checklist and Fellag's (2010) writing checklist, we learned that the items in the checklist can be responded by using "Yes/No" answer. However, we also added the option 'not sure' with an open-ended space to provide students with an option different from merely agreement or disagreement. With this third option, the students can write down their remarks or suggestions in case they have something to inform their peers (in peer feedback) or to remind themselves (in self-correction). From Fellag's (2010) writing checklist in particular, we learned that in terms of essay content and organization, the guideline sheet in this study should be designed by inserting the element of topic, thesis

statement and supporting sentences based on three main parts of an essay (i.e. introductory paragraph, developmental paragraphs, and concluding paragraph) in the items of the guideline sheet. With these formats, we then included the five components of writing as suggested by Jacobs et al. (1981) and Weigle (2002).

The guideline sheet consists of five components of writing, namely content, organization, vocabulary, language use (grammar), and mechanics. The content and organization deal with how the topic of the essay is developed in the introductory, body, and concluding parts of the essay. Grammar focuses on the use of tenses, subject and verb agreement, and plural agreement. Vocabulary requires the use of relevant vocabulary and transitional markers. Mechanics includes capitalization, punctuation, and spelling. The contents of the guideline sheet are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. The contents of the guideline sheet for peer-feedback and self-correction

No	Components	Aspects	Number of items
1	Content and organization	Introductory paragraph	3
		Developmental paragraphs	9
		Concluding paragraph	2
2	Grammar	Tenses	1
		Subject and verb agreement	1
		Plural agreement	1
3	Vocabulary	Vocabulary related to the topic	1
		Transitional markers	1
4	Mechanics	Capitalization	1
		Punctuation	1
		Spelling	1
Total			22

The wording of the guideline sheet was made slightly different between the one for students in Class A (peer feedback) and Class B (self-correction). The difference can be seen in the use of expression such as “Does **the writer’s** introductory paragraph ...?” (Class A) and “Does **your** introductory paragraph ...?” (Class B). There are totally 22 items in the guideline sheet. The guideline sheet for peer feedback is shown in Appendix A, while the guideline sheet for self-correction in Appendix B.

In the process of writing all types of essays, the students were assigned to write five-paragraph essay of free topic. In order to provide feedback for their peers, the 25 students from Class A were assigned to work in pairs. There were eleven pairs of 22 students and the last three students were put in a small group. The essays of the students working in pairs and those working in small group were exchanged between the members of the pairs and among the members of the group, respectively. In the process of editing, the students read the guideline sheet and they responded necessarily to the items of the guideline sheet by ticking one of the options “Yes”, “No”, or “Not sure.” In addition, the students were allowed to provide feedback directly by writing on the peer’s essay or indirectly by writing remarks or suggestions for improvement. Students in Class B were given a guideline sheet and they were assigned to

respond to the items in the guideline sheet for self-correction by ticking one of the same options as those in the guideline sheet given to students in Class A. Similar to students in Class A, students in Class B were asked to respond to the items directly or indirectly for self-correction.

In the editing process, the students were given about 40 minutes and after they completed the editing, the students in Class A were asked to return the essays to the writers. The students in Class B were asked to keep the corrected essays. All of the students, both in Class A and Class B, were asked to revise their essays and submit 2 printed essays (the old and the new versions) in the next session. The final drafts of the students' classification essay in particular were considered as the posttest essays to be compared with the results of their exemplification essays which were considered as pretest essays. In order to compare the essays of the two types of development, interrater scoring was applied.

The students' essays were scored by using scoring rubric in the "ESL Composition Profile" proposed by Jacobs et al. (1981). This scoring rubric consists of five components: content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Each of the components has different weightings: 30 (content), 20 (organization), 20 (vocabulary), 25 (language use), and 5 (mechanics). We scored the students' essays. In order to come to the same agreement in scoring, we had practiced in scoring six essays, two from each class. The results of scoring of six essays were compared to find out differences, both total scores and score of each component. Agreement was reached when the scores that each of us gave were not so much different, that is one for each component and five for the whole components. After some practice, we successfully reached agreement for most of the students' essays. In case of the differences, we referred back to the students' essays together. Briefly stated, agreement in scoring has been achieved. The sets of scores resulted from pretest and posttest from each of us as the raters were counted for the average scores for pretest and posttest. The students' scores from pretest and posttest can be seen in Appendix C.

Results

In order to know whether or not the treatment given to the two experimental groups were effective in improving the EFL students' ability in writing essays, differences between the results of the pretest and posttest scores need to be compared. However, to determine the statistical computation that we would use to compare the results of the two tests, homogeneity test was conducted to know whether the results of the pretest of the students in the experimental classes (Classes A and B) and those in the control class (Class C) are homogeneous.

The homogeneity test for the results of pretest from the three classes indicated that the students' pretest scores were homogeneous. This is shown by the mean scores from the three classes which were 72.72 with SD 7.54 (Class A), 72.20 with SD 6.03 (Class B), and 73.48 with SD 7.31 (Class C). The test of homogeneity of variances showed that there are no significant differences between the three mean scores as shown in the probability value ($p = .393$). Because of this level of homogeneity, further analysis can be conducted by comparing the mean scores by using one-way ANOVA. The result shows that the means of the three classes were not significantly different as shown in the probability value ($p = .826$). This value is higher than the accepted probability level 0.05. Based on the results of analysis of the pretest scores which show that the classes were homogeneous and the scores were no significantly different, analysis of posttest scores can be conducted by comparing the mean scores of the three classes. Analysis of

posttest scores shows that the mean scores from the three classes were 80.56 with SD 3.83 (Class A), 80.52 with SD 4.39 (Class B), and 73.19 with SD 6.06 (Class C). The results of the test of homogeneity of variances show that the variances of the three classes were not homogeneous ($p = .047$). Therefore, the three mean scores can be compared by using ANOVA. The descriptive data of posttest scores are shown in Table 2 and the comparison of posttest scores by using ANOVA is shown in Table 3.

Table 2. The descriptive data of posttest scores

	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	95% interval for mean	Confidence	Minimum	Maximum
					Lower bound	Upper bound		
A	25	80.5600	3.83058	.76612	78.9788	82.1412	73.00	88.00
B	25	80.5200	4.38862	.87772	78.7085	82.3315	72.00	89.00
C	21	73.1905	6.06316	1.32309	70.4306	75.9504	62.00	84.00
Total	71	78.3662	5.79221	.68741	76.9952	79.7372	62.00	89.00

Table 3. The comparison of posttest scores by using ANOVA

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	798.841	2	399.420	17.527	.000
Within Groups	1549.638	68	22.789		
Total	2348.479	70			

The results of the comparison of the means scores as shown in Table 3 show that the three mean scores are significantly different ($p = .000$). Because the comparison involves three mean scores, post hoc analysis can be conducted by comparing the mean score of each class as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. The post hoc analysis of the mean scores of posttest

(I) Class	(J) Class	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
A	B	.04000	1.35022	1.000	-3.1953	3,2753
	C	7.36952*	1.41306	.000	3.9837	10,7553
B	A	-.04000	1.35022	1.000	-3.2753	3.1953
	C	7.32952*	1.41306	.000	3.9437	10.7153
C	A	-7.36952*	1.41306	.000	-10.7553	-3.9837
	B	-7.32952*	1.41306	.000	-10.7153	-3.9437

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of post hoc analysis show that the mean score of Class A is significantly different from that of Class C and the mean score of Class B is also significantly different from that of Class C. However, the mean score of Class A and that of Class B are not significantly different. This means that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of classes involved in the experimental groups (Classes A and B) and the mean score of class used as the control group (Class C). The results of this post hoc analysis are used to answer the research questions as stated in the following.

- (1) The students given peer feedback based on a guideline sheet (Class A) have better ability in writing essays than those who were not given peer feedback (Class C).
- (2) The students conducting self-correction based on a guideline sheet (Class B) have better ability in writing essays than those who did not conduct self-correction (Class C)
- (3) The two strategies namely peer feedback based on a guideline sheet (given to Class A) and self-correction based on a guideline sheet (given to Class B) improve the ability in writing essays of the students in the two classes given peer feedback and self-correction, respectively.

Discussion

This study examines the effect of peer feedback and self-correction on the EFL students' ability in writing. From the outset we were informed by the fact that peers may not be able to give feedback due to their arguable proficiency. In addition, students might not be able to self-correct given that they consider that their submitted writing products the final ones. Therefore, in this study, the students were equipped with a guideline sheet in order to be able to provide feedback for their peers or to correct their drafts. The result of this research revealed that the students given peer feedback based on a guideline sheet (Class A) improved their ability in writing essays. This is evident from the improvement of their score from 72.72 in the pretest to 80.56 in the posttest, whereas the students who did not undergo feedback provision activities of any kind (Class C) remained constant in their achievement. This is apparent from the scores of their essays taken from the pretest and posttest which are 73.48 and 73.19, respectively. The improvement of the ability in writing of the students given peer feedback based on a guideline is consistent with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Villamil & Guerrero, 1998; Liu, 2008) indicating that peer feedback was effective in helping the students improve their writing products.

The students conducting self-correction based on a guideline sheet (Class B) have better ability in writing essays than those who did not conduct self-correction (Class C). This is proved by the mean score of students in the posttest from Class B (80.52) which is higher than that of students from Class C (73.19) and the mean difference was statistically significant. The result on self-correction in the present study is in line with the result of research conducted by Wakabayashi (2013) as well as Hajimohammadi and Mukundan (2011) which reveal that students can improve the quality of their writing products by conducting self-correction. This study also confirms that self-correction based on a guideline sheet helps students improve their writing quality since they could monitor their own work using the provided guideline, locate problematic features and revise the features for the betterment of their essays. By using the guideline sheet, students get clear points to self-correct in the area of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. This is also confirmed in Wakabayashi's (2013) study that detailed feedback task sheet, the term for guideline sheet used in her study, is pointed up as a

potential factor affecting the positive result of self-feedback. Furthermore, this study reveals that self-correction based on a guideline sheet is more beneficial for students in writing essays than the conventional way of revising.

Situated within the debate on the dominant role of particular types of feedback, the results of this study conform to the results of research reported by Ganji (2009). In his research, Ganji found that peer feedback and self-correction improve the quality of the EFL learners' IELTS essays. While in the present study, it was found that both peer feedback and self-correction equally improve the students' scores in essay writing. In Ganji's research it was revealed that students who were provided with peer feedback outperformed those given self-correction strategy. However, Ganji's research did not involve a control group; therefore, the results of Ganji's research might be arguable because the effect resulted from the application of peer feedback and self-correction might not be caused by the peer feedback and self-correction activities. The result was likely to be the consequence of a period of exposure in the teaching by using peer feedback and self-correction strategies to boost the students' IELTS writing scores. In contrast, the present study used a control group of students who were involved in the conventional way of revising as part of the process of writing (Murray, 1980; White & Arndt, 1991). The experiences in the classroom activities of the experimental and control groups were similar except the treatment given to them. Thus, we can be sure that the effect of peer feedback and self-correction based on a guideline sheet is empirically well-supported.

Other results of research studies suggest that feedback or correction, be it given directly (Zaman & Azad, 2012) or indirectly (e.g. Hyland, 2001; Liu, 2008), effectively improves the quality of the students' essays. However, the use of guideline sheet has not been much reported in the literature. In the present study, the guideline sheet was developed by considering components of writing suggested in the literature on writing assessment. It includes content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics as suggested by Jacobs et al. (1981) and Weigle (2002). By including the components of overall writing proficiency, it might be argued that the guideline sheet in the present study has sound theoretical basis. If that is true, then the guideline sheet used in this study both for peer feedback (see Appendix A) and self-correction (see Appendix B) can be recommended as guideline sheet for further research studies.

Conclusion

This study suggests that peer feedback and self-correction based on guideline sheets affect the process of writing in a positive way. The guideline sheets with a number of items based on the five components of writing (content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics) were able to guide the students in providing feedback for their peers or to help themselves check aspects of their essays that need revising. The comparison of the achievements of the three groups of students indicated that the two experimental groups (the groups conducting peer feedback and self-correction based on guideline sheets) outperformed the group which was involved in the conventional way of revising. Thus, we are confident that regardless of the types, feedback conducted in EFL essay writing course is likely to improve the students' ability in writing essays. Moreover, peer feedback and self-correction are confirmed as strategies which are more beneficial than the conventional way of revising. It is then important that the application of peer feedback as well as self-correction be considered in EFL writing classrooms, especially when the students are still at the lower stage of proficiency in writing. In addition,

when using guideline sheet for both peer feedback and self-correction, it should be ensured that the guideline sheet is designed in such a way that it contains concise, understandable and applicable items.

About the Author:

Bambang Yudi Cahyono is a Professor in Applied Linguistics at Universitas Negeri Malang, East Java, Indonesia. He earned his MA degree from Concordia University, Montreal, Canada and PhD from the University of Melbourne, Australia. E-mail: yudic2000@yahoo.com

Rosyi Amrina is a student in Graduate Program in English Language Teaching at Universitas Negeri Malang, East Java, Indonesia. She obtained her Bachelor degree in English Language Teaching from Universitas Lambung Mangkurat, South Kalimantan, Indonesia. E-mail: rosyi_amrina@yahoo.com

References

- Boughey, C. (1997). Learning to Write by Writing to Learn: A Group Work Approach. *ELT Journal*, 51(2), 126-134.
- Cresswell, A. (2000). Self-Monitoring in Student Writing: Developing Learner Responsibility. *ELT Journal*, 54(3), 235-244.
- Dheram, P.K. (1995). Feedback as a Two-bullock Cart: A Case Study of Teaching Writing. *ELT Journal*, 49(2), 160-168.
- DiGiovanni, E., & Nagaswami, G. (2001). Online Peer Review: An Alternative to Face to Face? *ELT Journal*, 55(3), 263-272.
- Fellag, L.R. (2010). *From Reading to Writing*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Longman.
- Ganji, M. (2009). Teacher-correction, Peer-correction and Self-correction: Their Impacts on Iranian Students' ILTS Essay Writing Performance. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 6(1), 117-139. Retrieved September 21, 2015 from <http://www.academia.edu/8910226/>.
- Hajimohammadi, R. & Mukundan, J. (2011). Impact of Self-correction on Extrovert and Introvert Student in EFL Writing Progress. *English Language Teaching*, 4(2), 161-168.
- Hyland, F. (1998). The Impact of Teacher Written Feedback on Individual Writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7(3), 255-286.
- Hyland, F. (2001). Dealing with Plagiarism when Giving Feedback. *ELT Journal*, 55(4), 375-381.
- Jacobs, G.M., Curtis, A., Braine, G. & Huang, S. (1998). Feedback on Student Writing: Taking the Middle Path. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7(3), 307-317.
- Jacobs, H.L., Zinkraf, S.A., Wormuth, D.R., Hartfiel, V.F., & Hughey, J.B. (1981). *Testing ESL Composition: A Practical Approach*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Liu, Y. (2008). The Effects of Error Feedback in Second Language Writing. *Arizona Working Papers in SLA & Teaching*, 15(1), 65-79. Retrieved December 8, 2015 from <http://www.w3.coh.arizona.edu/awp/>.
- Murray, D.M. (1980). Writing as Process: How Writing Finds Its Own Meaning. In T. R. Donovan & B. W. McClelland (eds.), *Eight Approaches to Teaching Composition* (pp. 1-13). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

- Porto, M. (2001). Cooperative Writing Response Groups and Self-evaluation. *ELT Journal*, 55(1), 38-46.
- Sebranek, P., Kemper, D., & Meyer, V. (1999). *Write Source 2000: A Guide to Writing, Thinking, and Learning*. Wilmington, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Smalley, R.L., Ruetten, M.K., & Kozyrev, J.R. (2001). *Refining Composition Skills: Rhetoric and Grammar*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Srichanyachon, N. (2014). Self-revision Method of EFL Writers. *International Proceeding of Economics Development Research*, 77(13), 58-62. Retrieved December 5, 2015 from http://ipedr.com/vol77/013-ICLMC2014_N10018.pdf.
- Villamil, O.S., & Guerrero, M.C.M.de. (1998). Assessing the Impact of Peer Revision on L2 Writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(4), 491-514.
- Wakabayashi, R. (2013). The Effects of the Peer Feedback Process on Reviewers' Own Writing. *English Language Teaching*, 6(9), 117-192. Retrieved December 5, 2015 from <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n9p177>.
- Weigle, S.C. (2002). *Assessing Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- White, R., & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process Writing*. London: Longman.
- Yukio, H. (1998, December). Writing to Improve Analytical and Organizational Skills. *The Language Teacher Online*, 22, 12. Retrieved January 5, 2016 from http://www.jalt-publications.org/old_tlt/files/98/dec/hirayanagi.html
- Zaman, M.M., & Azad, M.A.K. (2012). Feedback in EFL Writing at Tertiary Level: Teachers' and Learners' Perceptions. *ASA University Review*, 6(1), 139-156. Retrieved December 12, 2015 from <http://www.asaub.edu.bd/data/asaubreview/v6n1sl11.pdf>.

Appendix A. Guideline Sheet for Peer-feedback

Name of the writer: _____

Name of the feedback provider: _____

Instruction: Please tick the relevant response. If you answer "No," please provide correction in the student's work.

No	Questions	Responses		
		Yes	No	Not Sure
	Content and Organization			
	Introductory Paragraph			
	<i>Does the writer's introductory paragraph ...</i>			
1	introduce a topic?	_____	_____	_____
2	have a thesis statement?	_____	_____	_____

- 3 indicate a certain method of essay development?
(e.g. by examples, by comparison and contrast, or
by classification)

Developmental Paragraphs*Does the writer's **first** developmental paragraph*

...

- 4 develop an aspect of the thesis statement?
5 have supporting sentences relevant to the topic?
6 indicate a particular method of paragraph
development you have chosen?

*Does the writer's **second** developmental
paragraph ...*

- 7 develop another aspect of the thesis statement?
8 have supporting sentences relevant to the topic?
9 indicate a particular method of paragraph
development you have chosen?

*Does the writer's **third** developmental paragraph*

...

- 10 develop another aspect of the thesis statement?
11 have supporting sentences relevant to the topic?
12 indicate a particular method of paragraph
development you have chosen?

Concluding Paragraph*Does the writer's concluding paragraph ...*

- 13 have a thesis restated by using different words?
OR
summarize the topics of the essays?
14 have a personal comment?

Responses**No****Questions****Yes****No****Not
Sure****Grammar***Is the writer's essay free from error in:*

- 1 tenses?
2 subject and verb agreement?
3 plural agreement?

	Vocabulary			
	<i>Does the writer's essay have a variety of:</i>			
4	vocabulary related to the topic?			
5	transitional markers?			
	Mechanics			
	<i>Is the writer's essay free from error in:</i>			
7	capitalization?			
8	punctuation?			
9	spelling?			

Appendix B. Guideline Sheet for Self-correction

Name: _____

Instruction: Please tick the relevant response. If you answer "No," you have to revise your work.

No	Questions	Responses		
		Yes	No	Not Sure
	Content and Organization			
	Introductory Paragraph			
	<i>Does your introductory paragraph ...</i>			
1	introduce a topic?			
2	have a thesis statement?			
3	Indicate a certain method of essay development? (e.g. by examples, by comparison and contrast, or by classification)			
	Developmental Paragraphs			
	<i>Does your first developmental paragraph ...</i>			
4	develop an aspect of the thesis statement?			
5	have supporting sentences relevant to the topic?			
6	indicate a particular method of paragraph development you have chosen?			
	<i>Does your second developmental paragraph ...</i>			
7	develop another aspect of the thesis statement?			

8	have supporting sentences relevant to the topic?	_____	_____	_____
9	indicate a particular method of paragraph development you have chosen?	_____	_____	_____
<i>Does your third developmental paragraph ...</i>				
10	develop another aspect of the thesis statement?	_____	_____	_____
11	have supporting sentences relevant to the topic?	_____	_____	_____
12	indicate a particular method of paragraph development you have chosen?	_____	_____	_____
Concluding Paragraph				
<i>Does your concluding paragraph ...</i>				
13	have a thesis restated by using different words? OR summarize the topics of the essays?	_____	_____	_____
14	have a personal comment?	_____	_____	_____

No	Questions	Responses		
		Yes	No	Not Sure
	Grammar			
	<i>Is your essay free from error in:</i>			
1	tenses?			
2	subject and verb agreement?			
3	plural agreement?			
	Vocabulary			
	<i>Does your essay have a variety of:</i>			
4	vocabulary related to the topic?			
5	transitional markers?			
	Mechanics			
	<i>Is your essay free from error in:</i>			
7	capitalization?			
8	punctuation?			
9	spelling?			

Appendix C. The Results of the Pretest and Posttest of the Students from Three Classes

No.	Class A			Class B			Class C		
	Name code	Pretest	Posttest	Name code	Pretest	Posttest	Name code	Pretest	Posttest
1	APP	75	83	ARF	65	82	AH	78	71
2	AF	67	82	ATP	60	78	A	68	68
3	AB	70	78	APP	66	76	FH	71	66
4	AL	81	88	AN	73	89	FF	75	68
5	AS	76	85	DAF	65	80	FiF	74	70
6	ANR	62	78	DZ	67	79	GW	80	79
7	BD	82	74	DK	73	81	IGN	71	72
8	EFR	71	73	DDW	77	87	JM	66	70
9	HCS	66	78	EJDP	72	80	JT	52	62
10	HAI	67	80	FKI	79	74	MF	79	83
11	HS	88	84	FRR	63	72	NU	69	74
12	IIR	69	80	HAAV	78	78	NY	72	65
13	JH	65	74	IS	78	83	NR	77	84
14	LRH	78	83	IR	81	88	PNA	71	79
15	MAA	89	83	LSBS	71	74	PN	69	70
16	NN	76	80	MRA	67	79	PU	79	80
17	NS	82	81	MGFE	81	84	RK	70	80
18	NG	69	81	RT	72	79	SSN	86	78
19	NS	67	83	RAD	73	78	SB	78	74
20	PK	71	79	RFH	81	88	VPM	85	72
21	RRA	69	75	RGSN	75	79	WK	73	72
22	RAR	68	82	SA	67	80	-	-	-
23	RSA	66	80	TIY	71	82	-	-	-
24	TA	80	85	UVW	72	80	-	-	-
25	TrA	64	85	ZK	78	83	-	-	-
Total		1818	2014	Total	1805	2013	Total	1543	1537
Mean		72.72	80.56	Mean	72.20	80.52	Mean	73.48	73,19

Magical Realism for Revolutionary Didactic Purposes in Ngugi's *Matigari*

Malika BOUHADIBA

Oran University, Algeria

Abstract :

This paper attempts to explore the magical realist dimension of Ngugi's novel *Matigari* . The major contention held in this paper is that Ngugi has used Magical Realism for a twofold purpose: to drive home his revolutionary message to the *grassroots*, and to serve his cultural revival mission. Magical realism has often been used to call for revolutionary *praxis* by Latin American writers. Again, since this literary mode relies on the use of myths, folklore, fantasy, and other traditional lore, it appealed to Ngugi who attempts to work for the retrieval of Gikuyu oral culture. In *Matigari*, Ngugi draws from both African and biblical mythology. From the former he borrowed the fable on which the story of the novel is patterned, and from the latter he has borrowed the savior motif, a motif that serves the revolutionary didacticism of the novel. In the main, in this novel, Ngugi fuses two literary genres: African oral and Western written. He, however, contends that his novel belongs to African oral Literature.

Key Words: Biblical mythology, cultural revival, magical realism, revolutionary didacticism

Magical Realism for Revolutionary Didactic Purposes in Ngugi's *Matigari*

In *Matigari* (1987), Ngugi takes up the thread of his narrative where he left off in *Devil on the Cross* (1982). The prophesied return of the Mau Mau rebels, or “patriots” as he prefers to call them, takes place in *Matigari*. Stylistically this novel is a synthesis of both the socialist realism of *Petals of Blood* (1977) and the allegorical realism of *Devil on the Cross*, it, however, incorporates a new stylistic device: that of magical realism. The blending of these diverse literary genres is an attempt on Ngugi's part to give more attention to the aesthetic components of the novel, since he has often been indicted for privileging content at the expense of form, in his earlier novels.

Since Ngugi's prime concern is to incite the masses to revolutionary action, as it is the case in his two preceding novels, *Petals of Blood* and *Devil on the Cross*, he has had recourse to magical realism, a Western literary mode that often depicts the ordeals of the populace and that is often used for subversive purposes. As Zanora and Faris (1995) rightly observe: “Magical realist texts are subversive: their in-betweenness, their all-at-onceness encourages resistance to monologic political and cultural structures, a feature that has made the mode particularly useful to writers in postcolonial cultures” (Zamora & Faris, 1995, p.6).

The phrase “Magical Realism” was first coined by Franz Roh, a German art critic in the mid-1920s. It was used to describe the new experimentations with forms in visual art that signalled post-expressionism. Its adaptation to literary art started in the 1930s, and it gained fame in the 1940s and 50s in Latin American fiction. Gabriel Garcia Marquez's novel, *One Hundred Years of Solitude* (1967), is considered as the magical realist “par excellence”. It has been a major source of inspiration not only for Western writers, but for African ones as well. As regards African literature, despite the fact that some aspects of magical realism appeared in the works of Amos Tutuola, e.g., *The Palm-Wine Drunkard* (1952) and *My Life in the Bush of Ghosts* (1954), it is rather associated with the works of the young Nigerian writer Ben Okri, more particularly, his novel *The Famished Road* (1991).

Magical realism is a literary mode that has often appealed to Third World writers who have attempted to describe the realities of their countries through the use of the fantastic, the burlesque, or the comic. As Homi Bhabha (1990) remarks: “ ‘Magical realism’ after the Latin American ‘Boom’, becomes the literary language of the emergent post-colonial world. Amidst these exorbitant images of the nation-space in its transnational dimension there are those who have not yet found their nation: amongst them the Palestinians and the Black South Africans” (Bhabha, 1990, p. 7). It is, hence, a genre that is used to dramatize oppression and homelessness, and to make a plea for the building of a nation.

Consequently, it is while in search for a truly democratic Kenyan nation that Ngugi has come to adopt it in his later novels, notably in *Matigari* and *Wizard of a Crow* (2006). Yet, Ngugi does not seem to like his novels to be classified as magical realists. He deems that his novels lie within the traditional African oral literature, or “orature”. His resistance to the label “magical realism” is expressed in his book *Globalectics: Theory and the Politics of Knowing* (2012), where he states: “He does not call it orature, but Kamau Brathwaite's description of the properties of what he terms the magical realism within folktext captures the same web of interconnections: ‘enjambement of time/ place/ consciousness w/in continuums of these; the capacity of all created things to ‘become’ (bom-bam) one another –humanification of birds,

plants, animals, minerals & vice versa.....' (Ngugi, 2012, p.75). Ngugi prefers to assign the use of fantasy and the supernatural in African novels to orature. He remarks: "The dynamic inter-linkage of art forms in orature is thus seen as reflecting a *Weltanschauung* that assumes the normality of the connection between nature, nurture, supernatural a, and supernurtural". (Ngugi, 2012, p. 75). Similarly, Toni Morrison, whose novel *Beloved* (1987) is often labeled a magical realist novel, objects to this label and considers that her use of magic and the supernatural is due to her African-American cultural heritage. When asked by Christina Davis why she disliked her works to be described as magical realist, she replied:

I was once under the impression that that label 'magical realism' was another of those words that covered up what was going on [...] It was a way of no talking about the politics [...] My own use of enchantment simply comes because that's the way the world was for me and for the black people I knew [...] So I have become indifferent, I suppose, to the phrase 'magical realism' but I was very alert at the beginning when I heard it because when I would read the articles about it, it always seemed to me that it was just another evasive label. (Guthrie, 1994, p. 225-226).

Still, though Ngugi maintains that *Matigari* was his most personal attempt at experimenting with oral narrative techniques, it is, however, less in line with the oral tradition than is *Devil on the Cross* (1982), despite the fact that it takes at times the *Gicandi Player's* narrative style. The use of magical realism and of modernist techniques, e.g., the stream of consciousness technique, make the definition of the literary genre of the novel quite complex. Lovesey contends that *Matigari* is "not a post-neo-colonial allegory" (Lovesey, 2002, p. 156). But, by embodying myth as a major aesthetic component, *Matigari* can certainly be classified within the Jamesian category of "National Allegory", for as Jameson argues "All third world texts are necessarily [...] allegorical, and in a very specific way: they are to be read as what [he] will call *national allegories*" (Jameson, 1986, p. 69). Lewis Nkosi considers it as "an oral narrative performance" (See Back cover of the American edition of *Matigari*). In fact, due to Ngugi's blending of so many narrative genres, oral/written, Gikuyu Gicandi Player/ Western magical realist, *Matigari* has been classified by different critics in different narrative registers. Steven Tobias classifies it among postcolonial fiction. He remarks: "Matigari can be considered a definitive postcolonial novel, as it sets a traditional Gikuyu folktale in the context of an unnamed contemporary African country". Odun Balogun, on the other hand, considers *Matigari* as a "multigenre performance" (Balogun, 1997). Among the genres he identifies are: traditional oral mythology, hagiography, post-modernism and realism. He, however, gives precedence to the realist dimension of the novel. He, thus, considers *Matigari* as a landmark in African literature, on account of its "new realism". He notes: "*Matigari* is one important novel of the late twentieth century which emphatically denies the verities of the old realism at the same time that it establishes unambiguously new norms for the new realism" (Balogun, 1995, p. 350). Yet, the phantasmal dimension of the novel and its mythopoeia bring it closer to romance than to realism. At best, the novel could be classified in the magical realist tradition.

The blending of two narrative styles: Magic and realism, the former from indigenous orature and the latter from Western written tradition, results into a culturally hybridized genre that reflects the postmodernist dimension of Ngugi's novel, a dimension that is in line with Ngugi's ideological concern for post-colonialism. The two aesthetic theories share much in common, though motivated by different preoccupations as demonstrated by Tiffin who remarks:

A number of strategies, such as the move away from realist representation, the refusal of closure, the exposure of the politics of metaphor, the interrogation of forms, the rehabilitation of allegory and the attach on binary structuration of concept and language, are characteristics of both the generally postcolonial and the European postmodern, but they are energised by different theoretical assumptions and by vastly different political motivations. (Tiffin, 1993, p. 172).

Magical realism is often considered as a post-colonial discourse. As Slemon notes: "Read as a post-colonial discourse, then magic realism can be seen as a positive and liberating response to the codes of imperial history and its legacy of fragmentation and discontinuity" (Slemon, 1988, p. 21). As all post-colonial discourses, the magical realist text focuses on binary oppositions. These oppositions are highlighted by Brenda Cooper who maintains: "Magical realism strives, with greater or lesser success, to capture the paradox of the unity of opposites; it contests polarities such as history versus magic, the pre-colonial past versus the post-industrial present and life versus death" (Cooper, 1998, p. 1).

Magical realism often reflects the "collective unconscious", to use Jungian phraseology, of the people depicted in the novel. In other words, it mirrors the dreams, day dreams, or fantasies that are entertained by the common people. Henceforth, it makes an extensive use of folklore. It, consequently, becomes the genre that is most fit for the representation of the populace's world view. This is, particularly, why it has appealed to Ngugi, who has endeavoured to present Kenyan reality from the standpoint of the peasants and workers and who has set himself the task of writing according to the paradigm of African orature, as a means to uphold it. In fact, Ngugi's dedication of the novel is an indication of his concern for the advocacy of orature. The use of Gikuyu oral culture reflects Ngugi's attempt at cultural revival. This is done with the purpose of rehabilitating his native culture in his people's eyes and in those of the Westerners who denigrated it. It is also meant as an attempt at "decolonizing the mind" of his fellow countrymen. Ngugi's major concern for the rehabilitation of African orature in this novel is first evidenced in his dedication "to all those who research and write on orature".

The major components of orature that the novel encompasses are: the Gikuyu fairy-tale, the recurrence of oral story-telling style and that of the songs that cut the narrative flow and which give the story a rhythmic dimension. African orature also shows in the Gikuyu and Kiswahili terminology that is purposefully embedded into the English version of the novel. Another major component of African oral culture that often recurs in the novel is the use of the Gikuyu proverbs and the repetition of certain stock phrases. As regards story-telling, besides the fact that the story of the novel is told by a narrator who adopts the stance of a *Gicaandi Player*, directly addressing the readers (p. IX), there are other stories told by the protagonists in similar fashion. This story-within-story technique has already been used by Ngugi in *A Grain of Wheat* and *Devil on the Cross*. This technique reflects the traditional speech pattern of the Kenyans. Thus, when one is relating his story; another one may interrupt him, at any moment, to relate her own story on the same subject.

The story of the novel has been mostly inspired by a Gikuyu fable. In his note to the English edition, Ngugi point out that the story has been "based partly on an oral story about a man looking for a cure for an illness [...] who undertakes a journey of search" (p. VII). Again in his book,

Penpoints, Gunpoints, and Dreams: Towards a Critical Theory of the Arts and the State in Africa (1998), he points out that his sister used to tell his children such a story (Ngugi, 1998, p. 124). Yet, though Ngugi maintains that the story of the novel was inspired by Gikuyu folklore, it has some features that are reminiscent of Western films. This is the case of the story of Rip Van Winkle. Ngugi himself makes a direct reference to this story and draws the parallel between this protagonist's predicament and Matigari's (p.118).

The story of the novel has a quest motif. It revolves around the plight of Matigari, an ex-Mau Mau fighter, whose name means 'the patriot who was spared by the bullets'. He comes out of the forest some years after Kenya's independence, with the resolve to recover his house and family, symbolising respectively his nation and his people, through peaceful means. He, thus, buries his arms; an AK 47 rifle, a sword and a gun, under the *Mugumo* tree, a sacred tree in Kikuyu mythology, and wears a "belt of peace". He then starts his journey asking different people where to find peace and justice in his country. To his amazement, he gradually realizes that the situation has not changed much since he left and that the ideals he fought for were betrayed, since the offspring of the Loyalists were enjoying "the fruits of independence" with their ex-Masters. This is the case of John Boy Junior and the son of settler Williams.

The first people who attempt to help him in his search for his home are Muriuki, a destitute child, and Guthera, a prostitute. After many ordeals, Matigari reaches his house to find out that it is inhabited by John Boy. The latter beats him when he attempts to enter the house and summons the police. Matigari is taken to prison, from which he escapes with the help of Muriuki and Guthera. Matigari, then resumes his quest and goes to people from different walks of life, asking the same repetitive question about where to find truth and justice. He first goes to a rural area, where a woman suggests to him to go the learned ones. He, then, goes to a student, a teacher, and a priest, who each in turn send him to the other. All fail to provide him with an appropriate answer and betraying a fear of repression. Finally, following the advice of the priest, he goes to the Minister of Truth and Justice. After challenging the latter in public with embarrassing questions about the socio-economic oppression of the masses, Matigari is tried and sent to a mental hospital. Once again, he escapes with the help of the child and the prostitute. He then gets rid of his "peace belt", thus renouncing his passive resistance, and vows to recover his arms to undertake a violent insurrection against the people's exploiters. He steals the Mercedes of the Minister's wife and heads towards John Boy's house, which he sets on fire.

The masses who come to witness the event engage in a riot, burning down the properties of the well-off people in the area. Matigari, miraculously escapes the fire and goes with Muriuki and Guthera to get the buried arms. Both Guthera and Matigari are wounded by the soldiers who chase them. Matigari carries the woman till they reach the river, where they both probably drown. The novel closes on an enigmatic note as regards the fate of Matigari. Even the soldiers who chase him wonder whether if he is dead or alive, since darkness and heavy rain prevents them from chasing him any further. Muriuki reaches the *Mugumo* tree, takes the buried arms and puts them around his waist and shoulders. This last picture in the novel is clearly meant to suggest that another "Mau Mau" struggle against the new rulers and their neo-colonialist partners will be instigated by the new generation of the downtrodden.

Among the features of magical realist literature that the novel embodies is the magic that surrounds the characters of Matigari. He seems to be protected by some supernatural powers. This is the case, for instance, when the children of Trampville start stoning him, for they fear for their safety and small property. He miraculously remains unharmed. As the narrator remarks: "he seemed to be protected by a powerful charm, because not a single stone touched him" (p. 17). Ngugi provides his protagonist with a magical invisible shield to suggest that revolutionaries should be fearless of danger and should advance towards their goal, i.e., revolutionary change. Here, Ngugi seems to suggest that willpower helps revolutionaries overcome the harshest ordeals.

Magical protection is again at work when Matigari is arrested and sent to prison. There, the warders fail to search him and this has been interpreted by his inmates as a manifestation of magic or a sign of his magical powers. One of them asks Matigari: "Who are you? Because I have never heard of anyone ever being allowed to carry food or beer into the cell. I have been to prison countless times, and I swear that there's never been a time when they don't give us a thorough search ..." (p. 57). Then he interprets the magic that surrounds Matigari as a clue about his identity, that of Christ, for he remarks: "Tell us the word! Give us the good tidings!" (p. 57). Here, Ngugi uses magical realism for revolutionary didactic purposes. It is quite unrealistic that an old man, such as Matigari, could have the strength to defeat his opponents, notably the corrupt ruling class. The magical powers that surround him extend their protection to those who accompany him, as it is the case for the people who are arrested at the same time as he is, since they, as well, are not searched by the warders and they keep their knives and other properties (p. 64). It is as if Matigari has hypnotized the prison warders. Magic is also at work when the soldiers are chasing Matigari and Guthera. Whereas she gets shot, he remains unharmed despite the fact that gun fire is coming from all around them. Here again, the narrator remarks: "Matigari seemed to be protected by some magical power, for the bullets did not hit him ... It was as if on reaching him they turned into water" (p. 173). The fact that he was spared by the bullets suggests that he had, like Christ, some supernatural powers. It, however, also justifies his name which means: "the patriot who survived the bullets". Here, the implication is clear: as he was spared by the bullets during the liberation war, he is likewise spared by the bullets during the new war against neo-colonialism, socio-economic injustice and political repression.

Another element of magical realism that is apparent in the novel is that of the physical transformation of Matigari. He is a middle-aged man but at times his facial features turn into those of a young one. Once, Ngaruro and Miriuki witness this transformation while Matigari was talking to them: "[they] looked at each other, wordlessly asking the same question. What had happened to the man's wrinkles?" (p. 20). This also occurs when Miriuki and Guthera are with him: "All the creases on his face had gone and youth had once again returned to him" (p. 43). Another trait of his personality that has a magical dimension is his ability to appear in places at times when people are talking about him. This telepathic propensity is at work, for instance, when Matigari suddenly appears when a person is telling another about her wish to see him there and then saying: "I'd be happy if I could see him with my own eyes, this very minute, so that I can shake his hand ..." (p. 73). This again occurs when two women, in a different place, are exchanging information about Matigari's exploit when he saved Guthera and "just then Matigari stopped on the other side of the road and greeted them" (p. 77). Another instance of Matigari's sudden appearance when people are talking about him is that of the man who suddenly turns to find that he is facing him: "Matigari just arrived, only to find a man speaking and pointing a finger in his direction" (p.82). Again, Magic is

at work to help Matigari find his way to the places where dwell the people he is in search of, such as the student's and the teacher's house. Through such examples, Ngugi suggests that Matigari has, like Christ, miraculous powers, as for instance self-transposition. He suddenly finds himself facing the student who has locked himself in his study. When he saw Matigari, "he trembled so much that the book he was holding fell on the floor" (p. 89). This is also the case of the teacher who was at home and "when he saw Matigari, he felt suddenly weak" (p. 91).

There are, however, in the novel some other characteristics of magical realism that do not relate to Matigari's character or personality. There are, for instance, some coincidences of occurrences such as that of the answer provided to one of the workers' questions about their fate if the factory closes, by the juke box song: "That's your problem" (p. 25). This may be considered as pure chance if such coincidences were not to be repeated. Thus, there is the case of one of the prisoners who tells his mates that "Only Gabriel the angel of God can get you out of here. Amen" (p. 65). Just then, Guthera and Muriuki come to release them. These coincidences serve plot development and help Ngugi to bring the threads of the story together. They also serve the archetypal figure of his protagonist, i.e., the Christ figure pattern. This figure reflects the Kenyan people's sensibility and mentality, for they often spread rumours about Christ's Second Coming and other related miracles. Magic and miracles are strongly embedded in their folktales. The archetypal Christ figure is, however, often used in magical realist fiction. Magical realism draws heavily from mythology both native and universal. Ngugi relies on both Kikuyu and biblical mythology.

As in *Devil on the Cross*, in *Matigari*, Ngugi makes an extensive use of biblical mythology. Unlike Maughan Brown who sees the use of this mythology as a rehabilitation of the Christian religion, I consider it as an attempt to appeal to the religious allegiances of the masses. My contention is that, after his onslaughts on the Christian religion in *Petals of Blood* and *Devil on the Cross*, Ngugi has come to realize that his revolutionary didacticism could be impaired by a mental resistance of the masses to whom his message is addressed, and who are considered by Ngugi as the major agents of revolutionary change in Kenya. Being deeply Christian at heart, these people could but resist Ngugi's appeals on account of his onslaughts on the Christian religion. An instance of such a counter-effect, or rather a resistance to Ngugi's discourse against Christianity is best illustrated through the incident of the old man who threatened him with his stick and accused him of blasphemy, during his speech about his renouncing the Christian religion (Ikiddeh, foreword, *Homecoming*). Again since a language is a carrier of a world view and since Ngugi uses Kikuyu to write *Matigari*, he had to take into account the Kenyan grassroots' mentality in all its facets, incorporating both traditional myth and Christian mythology. In his essays, Ngugi often points to the importance of the representation of people's worldview in his fictional works, as when he states: "I believe that if the novel is to be meaningful, it must reflect the totality of the forces affecting the lives of the people" (Ngugi, 1980, p. 23).

As regards Ngugi's use of the Christian religion in the novel, Brown contends that it is "a new departure" (Brown, 1991, p. 174), and that it hints to Ngugi's finding a "possible usefulness of Christ to his project" (Brown, 1991, p. 174). Yet, he does not explain how this is the case. He merely points out the aspects of Christian mythology that the novel embodies. He considers *Matigari* as a novel that has "positive values by reference to its Christian teachings" (Maughan Brown, 1991, p. 176). However, what Brown fails to see is that the Christian principles encompassed in the novel, e.g., the resurrection, sacrifice and redemption, are used as metaphors for

the Mau Mau motif of the novel, a motif used for revolutionary didactic purposes. The Christian principles are grafted onto the Kikuyu legends of sacrifice for a nation's salvation. This is clearly indicated in Matigari's denial that he is Christ resurrected, and his metaphorical reference to Kenyan nationalism as being the 'God within' his people.

The biblical saviour motif has already been used as a metaphor for revolutionary activism in *A Grain of Wheat* (1967). This metaphor is first expressed through the title of the novel. The Christian motif of martyrdom is clearly expressed through Kihika who says: "in Kenya we want a death. Kenya is Christ". (Ngugi, 1967, p. 83). In *Matigari*, martyrdom is symbolized through Guthera's and Matigari's death. They die so that the revolutionary spirit they embodied be transmitted to younger generations, e.g., that of Muriuki, as it is suggested at the close of the novel through the image of the latter carrying arms. Matigari's spirit is hence, resurrected through that of the child. In the river, Matigari and Guthera's blood flows to water other "grain[s] of wheat". Yet, the Mau Mau spirit rather than the Christian one is outstanding in Ngugi's novel. In the *Historical Survey of the Origins and Growth of Mau Mau* (1960), the Secretary of State for the Colonies, maintains that Mau Mau fighters were not devout Christians. (Secretary of State, 1960, p. 2). Unlike Maugham Brown who considers Matigari as strongly indebted to Christian mythology, Simon Gikandi, an "insider", maintains that Matigari "draws heavily upon Kenyan popular culture" (Gikandi, 1991, p. 163), and that it has been inspired by the legend of the return of Mau Mau which it "transforms into a political force" (Gikandi, 1991, p. 163).

To sum up, though the novel has a certain aesthetic appeal, mostly on account of the use of magical realism and the suspense it upholds, it is, like *Petals of Blood* (1977) and *Devil on the Cross*, marred by Ngugi's sermonings. It has, however, served its didactic purpose since it has contributed to the spreading of rumours, in 1987 (Ngugi's note to the English edition, p. VIII)), about the return of Mau Mau fighters to wage a new war to establish peace and justice. As Gikandi remarks: "It is important to note that Matigari (the character and the novel) had acquired political agency in the process of being read. It was through the interpretative strategies they applied to the novel, that readers came to determine its political practice" (Gikandi, 2000, p. 291). Besides, as Ngugi himself remarks in the Note to the English Edition "Matigari the fictional hero of the novel was himself resurrected as a subversive character" (p. VIII). And the Kenyan authorities anecdotic reaction, since they sent the police searching for Matigari, to find out that he was a mere fictional character, is yet another victory of Ngugi over his persecutors, despite the banning of the novel.

About the Author:

Dr. **Malika BOUHADIBA** is a senior Lecturer at ORAN University, Algeria. She published 10 articles in different journals in Algeria. Published an article in *Es Revisita de filologia*, N° 31 (Villaloid Spain) in 2010. She published an article in the *Arab World English Journal* (Special issue on Literature in December 2013). She took part in 12 international conferences in Algiers outside Algeria.

References

- Bhabha, H. K. (1990). *Nation and Narration*, London: Routledge.
 Bhabha, H. K. (2004). *The Location of Culture*. London: Routledge.

- Balogun.O. (1995). "Matigari and the Reconceptualization of Realism in the Novel", in C. Cantapulo (ed.) *Ngugi wa Thiong'o: Texts and Contexts*, (pp.349-366). Trenton: Africa World Press.
- Cooper, B. (1998). *Magical Realism in West African Fiction: Seeing with a Third Eye*. U.K: Routledge.
- Faris, W.B. Zamora, L.P. (eds.). (1995) *Magical Realism: Theory, history, Community*. Duke: Duke University Press.
- Jameson, F. (Autumn 1986). "Third-World Literature in the Era of Multinational Capitalism", *Social Text*, 15, 65-88.
- Gikandi, S. (Winter, 1991). "The Epistemology of translation: Ngugi, *Matigari*, and the Politics of Language", *Research in African Literatures* 22, 4, 161-7.
- Gikandi, S. (2000) *Ngugi wa Thiong'o*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lovesey, O. (Spring 2002). "Ngugi wa Thiong'o's Postnation: The Cultural Geographies of Colonial, Neocolonial, and Postnational Space", *Modern Fiction Studies*, 48, 1, 139-168.
- Maughan Brown, D. (Winter 1991). "*Matigari* and the Rehabilitation of Religion", *Research in African Literatures*, 22, 4, 173-180.
- Morrison, T. (1987). *Beloved*. New York: Knopf.
- Ngugi, W.T. (1967). *A Grain of Wheat*. London: Heinemann.
- Ngugi, W.T. (1972). *Homecoming. Essays on African and Caribbean Literature, Culture and Politics*. London: Heinemann.
- Ngugi, W.T. (1977). *Petals of Blood*. London: Heinemann.
- Ngugi, W.T. (June 1980). "The making of a Rebel", *Index on Censorship*, 9, 3, 20-24.
- Ngugi, W.T. (1982). *Devil on the Cross*. London: Heinemann.
- Ngugi, W.T. (1987). *Matigari*. Translated by Wangui wa Goro, London: Heinemann.
- Ngugi, W.T. (1998). *Penpoints, Gunpoints, and Dreams: Towards a Critical Theory of the Arts and the State in Africa*, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ngugi, W.T. (2006). *Wizard of the Crow*. New York: Pantheon.
- Ngugi, W.T. (2012) *Globalectics: Theory and the Politics of Knowing*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Secretary of State for the Colonies. (1960). *Historical Survey of the Origins and Growth of Mau Mau, Presented to Parliament by the Secretary of State for the Colonies by Command of Her Majesty*. London: Her Majesty Stationary Office.
- Slemon, S. (1988). "Magical Realism as Post-colonial Discourse", *Canadian Literature*, 116, 9-24.
- Taylor Guthrie, D. (1994). *Conversations with Toni Morrison*, University Press of Mississippi.
- Tiffin, Helen, (1988) "Post-Colonialism, postmodernism and the Rehabilitation of Postcolonial History". *Journal of Commonwealth Literature*, 23, 1, 169-181.

Saudi and Jordanian Undergraduates' Complaining Strategies: A Comparative Intralanguage Educational Linguistic Study

Ra'ed Abdulgader Al-Shorman

Department of English Language and Translation
College of Languages and Translation
King Saud University

Abstract

The present study is an attempt to explore, investigate, and compare the complaint strategies among two groups of Arabic native speakers, Saudi and Jordanian undergraduate students. To achieve the goals of the study, a discourse completion test (DCT) was developed and distributed to 150 male participants randomly selected from the governorates of Irbid and Riyadh universities to participate in the study. The findings of the study showed that Saudi and Jordanian university male students do complain to others using a wide range of strategies. Their complaints fell into four categories: Calmness and Rationality, Offensive Act, Opting-out, and Direct Complaint respectively. It was also found that Saudi university students' complaint comes first, while Jordanian university students' complaint comes second. The findings further revealed that there were some statistically significant differences and similarities at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) among the Saudi and Jordanian university male students' complaint strategies to others due to the study variables. Conclusions, implications, and suggestions for further research are reported.

Keywords: comparative intralanguage studies, complaining strategies, complaints, educational linguistic studies, Saudi and Jordanian undergraduates, speech acts

Introduction and Background

Speech acts have received much attention from researchers since their most prominent categorizations introduced by Austin (1962) and developed by Searle (1969,1975,1976). Searle (1969) claims that speaking a language is performing speech acts. By performing a speech act, people produce certain actions such as thanking, requesting, apologizing and complaining. Therefore, speech acts are important elements of communicative competence, and speakers of a language need to know how to carry out speech acts to function in communicatively appropriate ways. This significance of speech acts has generated interest in research in certain aspects of speech acts in both first language and second language learning.

In general, speakers employ a variety of speech acts, to achieve their communicative goals. One of these speech acts is complaining. Complaint, as a speech act, can be used to confront a problem with an intention to improve the situation (Brown & Levinson, 1978); to open and sustain conversations; to allow ourselves to vent/let off steam; to share a specific negative evaluation, obtain agreement, and establish a common bond between the speaker and addressee (Boxer, 1993); to express displeasure, disapproval, annoyance, censure, threats, or reprimand as a reaction to a perceived offense/ violation of social rules; to hold the hearer accountable for the offensive action and possibly suggest/request a repair (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993). Thus, when people interact, the expressions used are mostly satisfactory on behalf of the speaker on the one hand, whereas they are understood and explained in the way the hearer/addressee likes on the other.

According to Tanck (2002), the speech act of complaint occurs when a speaker reacts with displeasure or annoyance to an action that has affected him/her in an unfavorable manner. It is believed that complaint is a face-threatening act to the hearer; therefore, it should be made cautiously by the speaker in order not to hurt the hearer's feelings and hence impair the relationships between them (Moon, 2001). When making complaints, people often use indirect strategies in order not to offend the other party and to avoid being impolite, rude or disrespectful (Wannurk, 2005). Because of the lack of sufficient socio-pragmatic knowledge of the second language, complaining becomes even more difficult for the non-native speakers of a second language. Yamagashira (2001) states that if nonnative speakers do not know how to make complaints in a second language, it is assumed that they will use their own language strategies and, consequently, misunderstandings occur. Moreover, complaining has been an under-represented speech act in the-same-cultural pragmatics. Therefore, the focus of this study is on complaints. In fact, to the best of my knowledge, it is the first attempt to investigate the performance of complaints of two Arabic speaking groups, Saudis and Jordanians. In addition, language teachers can identify their learners' pragmalinguistic or sociolinguistic difficulties and teach them how to avoid miscommunications in real-life encounters when processing complaint strategies.

Statement of the Problem

The present study is an attempt to explore, investigate, and compare the complaint strategies among two groups of Arabic native speakers, Saudi and Jordanian undergraduate students. The researcher notices that young Saudis and Jordanians lack the sociolinguistic competence to use the appropriate words in the appropriate contexts in relation to complaint because they have not been taught to use these expressions appropriately. Moreover, most researchers discuss complaint strategies in general. To the best of my knowledge, previous researchers have not compared these strategies among two groups of Arabic native speakers in a

separate research paper. This has empowered the researcher to try to identify the complaining strategies used in different educational contexts.

Significance of the study

Complaining has been an under-represented speech act in cross-cultural pragmatics. Unlike the well-defined speech acts such as apologizing, requesting, and complimenting, complaining is comparatively more complex in that it has no pre-determined forms and the interpretations are often negotiable (Chen et.al, 2011). The aim of the present study is to investigate the Saudi and Jordanian University students' strategies of complaint. The speech act of complaining has had relatively less interest from researchers compared to the interest shown in the other speech acts such as apologizing, thanking, and refusing. Nevertheless, there have been a few studies carried out on complaining (e.g. Murphy & Neu, 1996; Boxer, 1993; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Boxer, 1996). However, the speech act of complaint of Saudi and Jordanian University students has not been studied, which is the first reason why it has been chosen to investigate in this study. Therefore, it is hoped that:

1. It will help researchers involved in the educational process gain insights into speech act of complaints and seek to improve it over time.
2. It may encourage further research, which in turn, may lead to the enrichment of the field of speech act in general and speech act of complaints in particular.
3. It will help teachers to better understand the issue and integrate speech act of complaints into their classroom routine.
4. It is expected that this study will add a block stone to the effort that aim to construct a reasonable and flexible Speech act, which helps in developing learners' achievement in learning English.
5. It is also expected that this study will familiarize people, especially the young, with complaint strategies used in everyday life of the Saudi and Jordanian societies and how and when they are used.
6. The researcher believes that the significance of this study originates from the fact that it will help Saudis and Jordanians, as well as other Arabic learners, to be aware of the power of language in governing and maintaining the relationships among people.

Objective of the study

It is essential for language learners to master not only grammar and text organization but also pragmatic aspects of the target language in order to be successful in communication (Backman, 1990). In fact, communicative action includes both speech acts as complaining, requesting, apologizing, refusing, inviting, etc., and the ability to use language forms in a wide range of situations, including the relationships between the speakers involved and the social and cultural context of the situation . Through speech acts such as requesting and complaining, speakers shape the utterances and with politeness make use of these utterances in the best way. This study is concerned with one of the aspects of communicative competence: the performance of the speech act of complaint. In particular, it aims at exploring, analyzing, and comparing the complaining strategies Saudi and Jordanian undergraduate male students use when they express their complaints in some educational situations. It also attempts to find out if there are any differences among the strategies which both groups implement when they complain to a fellow student, the person in charge, and the coordinator. In fact, it deals with complaint as a form of

language that affects the social relationships between people in the Jordanian and Saudi societies.

Questions of the Study

This study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do Saudi and Jordanian University Male Students (hereafter SJUMS) complain to others?
2. Are there any statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) among the SJUMS' complaint strategies to others due to the study variable "the person students complain to"?

Limitations of the study

Although the findings of this study may be sound and important to the field of speech acts in general and complaint speech act in particular, it has some limitations. The first limitation is that the study is restricted to two groups of Jordanians and Saudi undergraduate students. Another obvious limitation of the present study is the limited sample size. Therefore, generalizations must remain tentative. A third limitation is that the data of the study were collected from some parts of Jordan and Saudi Arabia, namely, Irbid (in the northern area of Jordan) and Riyadh (in the central area of Saudi Arabia); other areas were not involved in the study. A fourth limitation is female absence. All of the participants were males. If female students participated, the results might be different.

Review of Related Literature

The review of the literature on the speech act of complaints reveals that most of the studies in this field were conducted in the western countries where English is a first or second language, whereas very few studies were conducted in countries where English is a foreign language. The researcher reviewed some of the most related studies to the topic of this study.

Bonikowska (1988) analyzes the 'opting out' complaints strategies of university native-speakers of English; which he defines as the speaker's decision not to perform a speech act when confronted with a situation that has the potential to evoke a face-threatening act of complaint. The analysis of the data gathered led to four categories explaining the reasons for opting out: (a) reasons related to conditions for the act of complaining, (b) reasons related to the relationship of the act to speaker's goals, (c) reasons related to the relationship of the act to the social goal, and (d) reasons related to contextual factors.

DeCapua (1989) compares how native speakers of German and American English would complain in certain service situations and tries to find out whether pragmatic transfer would occur. It was found that Germans are usually more direct than Americans when speaking German and English, which could cause pragmatic failure.

Olshtain and Weinbach (1993) investigate the factors that distinguish native from nonnative speakers' realizations of complaints in Hebrew. They also study how social distance affects the length and the severity of the respondents' utterances. It was found that nonnative speakers produced longer utterances to express the speech act of complaining than native speakers did. The nonnative speakers also used more intensifiers. It was also found that the length of utterance was higher for learners, but both native and nonnative speakers used more words with acquaintances. Moreover, the findings revealed that the social factor was significant for length of utterance and strategy selection on the severity scale for both native and nonnative

speakers. The researchers found that when the speaker was of higher status than the interlocutor was, nonnative speakers used longer sentences.

Du (1995) studies three face-threatening acts (complaining, giving bad news, and disagreeing) as produced by 30 male and female Chinese students from Beijing Normal University. The findings of the study showed that strategy choice varied according to the referential goal and the nature of the interlocutor relationship, but a general pattern could be noted is that face-threatening acts in Chinese tend to be performed "in a cooperative rather than confrontational manner.

Morrow (1995) investigates the pragmatic effects of instruction on ESL learners' production of complaint and refusal speech act. The findings of the study revealed improvements in subjects' levels of clarity and politeness. It was found that the analysis of propositions and modifiers in the complaint data revealed gains in pragmatic competence which were indicated by such changes as increased indirectness, more complete explanations, and fewer explicit statements of dissatisfaction. The findings suggested that speech act instruction helped the subjects to perform complaints and refusals which were clearer, more polite, and, to a limited extent, more native-like. The additional intra-task comparisons indicated that higher levels of pragmatic competence were achieved when the interlocutor's level of social distance was lower (i.e., friends as opposed to acquaintances).

Trenchs (1995) tries to find out how EFL Catalan speakers transfer pragmatic knowledge from their native language into English when performing the speech act of complaint. The study also tries to identify the semantic discourse components used by Catalan speakers and how they resemble and differ from American speakers. The findings of the study revealed that although both groups of native speakers made use of similar semantic formulas, learners still showed instances of pragmatic transfer. It was also found that differences between languages were more noticeable when participants chose to joke, preach, or curse as means of lodging a complaint and when they chose to opt out or use conventional non-verbal sounds.

Trosborg (1995) compares the complaints performed by native speakers of English and Danish. The Findings of the study showed that the strategies used by the two groups had very much in common, with annoyance occurring most often and hints, accusation, and blame less often. It was also found that when speaking to an authority figure, English speakers adjusted their strategies to a greater extent than did Danish speakers. Finally, the findings indicated that when addressing a person of higher standing, Danish learners of English varied their strategies frequently.

Boxer (1996) studies sex-based differences in the form of both complaining and responding to complaints produced by men and women. It was found that (1) more women participated in troubles-talk than men; and (2) women were recipients of more indirect complaints because they were seen as more supportive in general than men. It was also found that when dealing with responses to indirect complaints, men tend to offer advice while women tend to commiserate. In other words, it was found that women participated more in indirect complaining than men.

Murphy and Neu (1996) investigate the complaining strategies of American natives and Korean non-natives of English when expressing disapproval of their grade to a professor. The findings of the study revealed that Korean ESL speakers produced the speech act set of criticism while American native speakers of English produced the complaint speech act set. The findings also showed that American English native speakers perceived the criticism made by Koreans as aggressive, inappropriate and lacking respectfulness.

Nakabachi (1996) examines cross-linguistically the strategies of complaining in English and Japanese by Japanese EFL speakers. Nakabachi looks at whether Japanese EFL learners change their strategies of complaint when they speak in English, and if so, what the factors are affecting change. The findings of the study showed that almost half of the subjects changed their speech strategies in English. It was also found that over a quarter used more severe expressions than natives did. This was interpreted as over-accommodation to the target language norms, and seemed to suggest the risk involved with attempting to adapt to the local sociocultural norms.

Takano (1997) studies how Japanese students learning English and American speakers complain. The findings of the study showed that the Japanese students tended to request an immediate compensation while American speakers tended to expect hearers to suggest ways to improve the offensive situation.

Hartley (1998) explores the complaints made by 120 American university students. Her analysis showed that direct complaints occupied only 20% of the utterances, while 75%–80% of the elicitations were mitigated complaints, indirect complaints, and the choice of opting out.

Akinci (1999) studies complaint in Turkish. The researcher found that severity of the complaint differed depending on the situation, presence or absence of the person being complained about, and the formality degree of the person being interacted. Interestingly, unlike the male subjects, the female respondents of the study turned out not to be using any politeness strategies when they complained. Akinci also made a distinction between young (19-25) and adult (over 25) subjects in the study, and found that neither the young nor the adults complained using direct forms to the father, the director or the professor in the discourse completion task, who were considered to be formal.

Chang (2001) explores 300 elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, and college students' complaints in Taiwan. The findings of the study showed no difference in the use of these strategies across age groups. All the subjects preferred using explicit complaint, followed by threat. Accusation and warning and expression of annoyance or disapproval shared similar frequencies of occurrence, while below the level of reproach was least frequently used.

Moon (2001) studies the speech act of complaint of native speakers and nonnative speakers of English using DCT. The findings of the study revealed that nonnative speakers do not always make complaints following the appropriate ways of native speakers'; their utterances were more direct than native speakers'.

Park (2001) examines the speech act set of complaint of Korean EFL learners. It was found that participants' performance of this speech act reflects their interlanguage pragmatics, which is independent of their L1.

Geluyken and Kraft (2002) investigate complaints in English, French and German as L1, and German-French and German- English as interlanguage. It was found that there was no significant differences with regard to the use of different complaining strategies between the three L1s. However, the findings indicated that L2 complaints tended to be longer, which was caused by use of more than one strategy. The findings also revealed that male speakers had the tendency to employ slightly more confrontational strategies than female speakers.

Rinnert and Iwai (2002) investigate variation in pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic strategies for making a complaint in three different English speaking regions (Japan, Singapore, and the U.S.). The findings of the study revealed some clear patterns of variation in strategy use among the three groups, most notably in terms of the choice of response segments (initiators, complaints, or requests); the length of responses; the use of softeners to mitigate the complaints; and the directness of the complaints produced. The findings of the study also indicated that a

three-way comparison is methodologically superior to a conventional two-way one, particularly from the perspective of teaching English as an international auxiliary language. They also implied the need for teachers to move beyond native speaker norms.

Tanck (2002) compares the pragmatic competence of ESL speakers to that of adult native English speakers when performing the speech act of complaints and refusals using DCT. The findings of the study indicated that while native and nonnative speakers often produce almost identical speech act set components, the quality of the components produced by nonnative speakers differ markedly from those made by the native speakers' sample in that they produced fewer components of the semantic formulae of complaint. The findings also showed that the nonnative speakers' responses, though generally linguistically correct, lack the pragmatic elements that allow these face-threatening acts to be well received by the hearer.

Deveci (2003) investigates the complaint speech act set used by Turkish EFL learners speaking to a commiserating and contradicting teacher. The findings of the study revealed that Turkish EFL learners produced a complaint speech act set when speaking to a commiserating and contradicting teacher. It was also found that the components of the complaint speech act set realized by the learners were 'complaint', 'justification', 'candidate solution: request', 'candidate solution: demand', and 'explanation of purpose'. Moreover, the findings indicated The students speaking to the contradicting teacher made positive transfer in their use of the components 'explanation of purpose', 'complaint' and 'justification'. The component 'demand' was subject to negative transfer.

Shea (2003) examines the complaining act of Japanese speakers of English living in America, Japanese speakers of Japanese living in Japan, and American speakers of English living in America. The findings of the study showed ten categories of complaint strategies: justification, problem, request for repair, request for explanation, disapproval, expression of empathy, warning, request for information, offering repair, and apology. It was also found that while American speakers of English living in America used more justification, disapproval, and expression of empathy, Japanese speakers of English living in America and Japanese speakers of Japanese living in Japan used more apologies to express complaint.

Eslami-Rasekh (2004) evaluates Persian speakers' use of face-keeping strategies in reaction to complaints with American English speakers' performance. It was found that Persian speakers are more sensitive to contextual factors and vary their face-keeping strategies accordingly whereas English speakers mostly use one apology strategy and intensify it based on contextual factors.

Kozlova (2004) examines the structure and cultural styles of indirect complaints in Russian and American English, and the politeness strategies used by native speakers of these languages when complaining. The findings of the study showed that the native speakers of Russian and American English used different styles in expressing indirect complaints: Americans subjects used humorous complaints while Russians used laments. It was also found that Russians preferred positive politeness, while Americans favored negative politeness in realization of indirect complaints.

Umar (2006) compares the pragmatic competence of advanced Sudanese learners of English to that of native speakers when performing the speech act of complaint. The findings of the study indicated that the quality of the components produced by the Sudanese learners of English differ significantly from those made by the native speakers. It was also found that the Sudanese subjects did not demonstrate sufficient linguistic or socio-pragmatic skills that qualify them to produce appropriate complaint in English.

Lin (2007) examines gender differences in 60 Chinese college students' complaints. The findings of the study revealed that females were more likely to respond to a complaint situation and produced longer utterances than males did. The findings indicated that females preferred the strategies of explicit complaint and opting out, while males used threat most often. Lin's findings are in agreement with previous research that women are more polite and considerate conversationalists than men.

Yue (2007) compares American and Chinese university students' choice of complaining strategies when stating their grievances to professors, intimates, friends and strangers. The findings showed that Chinese subjects and American ones are significantly different in the choice of complaining strategies. The Chinese showed greater respect to professors than Americans did. As to interlocutors with equal social status, Americans' complaining degree displayed a gradually descending tendency along social distance continuum, while the Chinese had intimates and strangers at both ends with friends in the middle.

Al Omari (2008) examines the linguistic realization and pragmatic strategies of complaint in Jordanian Arabic and American English. The findings of the study showed that Jordanian subjects used more complaint strategies than the American subjects did as the American subjects used only two strategies : joking and demanding justification. The findings also indicated that there was statistically significance difference in the strategies used by Jordanian and American subjects.

Prykarpatska (2008) studies the culture-specific differences in the way native speakers of American English and Ukrainian make a complaint to their friends. The findings of the study showed that Ukrainian friends apply the whole rank of complaint strategies from the least offensive to the most severe. Native speakers of American English use the most indirect and conventionally indirect strategies. The findings also indicated that Ukrainians are the ones who tend to aggravate their complaints with different kinds of intensifying particles and slang words, and make their complaints in a single move without any supportive reasons.

Ma'ayah (2009) compares and contrasts the responses to indirect complaints in Jordanian Arabic and American English and studies the extent to which the responses are governed by gender or social status. The findings of the study indicated that both Jordanian and American students used similar strategies with variation in the percentages. The findings also showed that the subjects employed a number of strategies to respond to indirect complaint such as proverbs, indifference, blaming, non-verbal response, future action, apologizing, and justifying other's behavior.

Ayu and Sukyadi (2011) investigate the differences in the speech act of complaint between men and women EFL learners. The findings of the study revealed that EFL learners realized speech act of complaining in eight complaint strategies: hints, consequences, indirect accusation, direct accusation, modified blame, explicit blame (behavior), annoyances, and explicit blame (person). Regarding gender, it was found that the use of complaining strategies was influenced by the gender of the complainer and Coordinator. The findings also showed that women tend to be more direct in complaining to men rather than to women.

Chen et al. (2011) study the complaining strategies of 40 American and Taiwanese university students. The findings of the study showed that the participants used six complaint strategies : opting out, interrogation, accusation, request for repair, and threat. Moreover, it was found that there were similarities in both overall and combined strategy use of the American and Chinese participants. For example, when faced with an offensive act, most competent adult members of both groups made complaints rather than opted out of the situation and both groups

preferred less-direct strategies when complaining. The findings finally revealed that there were also differences in the participants' choice of linguistic forms and expressions of semantic content. For instance, the Chinese complaints were found to be more sensitive to social power and they varied their complaints based on the interlocutor status more than the American complaints did.

AL Hammuri (2011) compares and contrasts the strategies used by Jordanian and American undergraduate university students for expressing and responding to indirect complaint and giving, soliciting and responding to advice. Concerning the complaint strategies, the findings of the study showed that American and Jordanian students employed a number of similar strategies when expressing indirect complaint. These strategies include: expressing annoyance, blaming, criticizing, demanding justification, suggesting alternatives, sentencing, threatening, regretting, mentioning the offensive act, future action, asking for advice, warning, proverbs, asking for help, opting out, request for a solution, irony, asking for opinion, and expressing justification. The findings also revealed that the subjects used a number of strategies to respond to indirect complaint. These strategies include: non-verbal response, request for explanation, teasing, contradiction, offering advice, commiseration, blaming, indifference, apology, proverbs, criticizing, threatening, urging, warning, offering help, and suggesting alternatives.

Rhurakvit (2011) explores the characteristics of the interlanguage complaints of Thai learners of English who are in different contexts of studying. The elicited data revealed that the learners of English in Thailand tend to have similar complaint patterns to those of native Thai speakers. On the other hand, the complaint patterns uttered by the learners of English in the UK tend to be close to those of native English speakers. Nevertheless, it seemed that neither the learners of English in Thailand, nor in the UK use downgraders properly. The findings might be interpreted to conclude that the studying abroad context is one of the influential factors in language learners' improvement, although the divergence of learners' complaints still exists in some aspects.

Vásquez (2011) investigates complaints in CMC (computer mediated communication) to determine the extent to which CMC complaints display some of the defining characteristics of complaints as identified by previous research. The findings of the study showed that complaints tended to occur as a speech act set. It was also found that whereas previous studies have found that complaints tended to co-occur with speech acts such as warnings or threats, in this particular context, complaints tended to co-occur more frequently with advice and recommendations. Finally, the findings revealed that while the majority of the complaints can be considered indirect complaints, there were nevertheless some examples that blur the direct/indirect dichotomy.

Zhoumin (2011) compares the complaining strategies of Americans and Chinese university students. The findings of the study showed that Chinese and American university students are significantly different in the choice of complaining strategies produced to professors, intimates, friends, and strangers. It was also found that no significant difference has been revealed in the choice of complaining strategies to parents. Finally, the study showed that in private conversation, the variable of social distance carries more importance than the variable of social status.

Abdolrezaipoor et.al (2012) examine how Iranian EFL learners perceive complaining utterances produced by Americans in 4 asymmetrical situations. The findings of the study showed that more indirect complaints were perceived as more polite by EFL learners. The findings also revealed that the social variables of power and distance made a difference in the degree of politeness perceived; Iranians (irrespective of their genders) were more concerned

about the social power of the Coordinator than the social distance between the interlocutors. Finally, the findings of the study indicated that the subjects' gender did not have significant relationship with how the participants assessed the politeness degree of complaints.

Lee (2012) studies the realization of complaints in an oral-production task by young and teenage Cantonese learners of English in Hong Kong primary and secondary schools from childhood to their teens. It was found that the subjects' complaints were moderate in terms of directness and severity. There was a significant decreasing use of direct strategies but a growing sociopragmatic awareness and flexibility in the use of a direct single strategy towards less direct combined strategies according to age and level of study. It was also found that the learners used a similar range of intensifiers and softeners. The teenage groups are, however, better at increasing or mitigating the force of the act through the use of supportive moves, descriptions and requesting.

Mofidi & Shoushtari (2012) investigate the pragmatic transfer Iranian EFL and ESL learners of English showed when complaining in English. They also aim to find out if there exists any relationship between the amount of contact with English and pragmatic competence of both EFL and ESL groups as well as the relationship between the duration of stay in English-speaking countries and the pragmatic competence of complaining in the ESL group, living and studying abroad for some years. The findings of the study revealed no significant relationship between the amount of contact, the time spent abroad and the pragmatic competence of Iranian EFL and ESL learners.

Jui-chun (2013) investigates the complaint behavior of Hakka-speaking men and women, including average sentence length and frequency of various complaint strategies used by each gender. The findings of the study revealed that (a) female Hakka speakers are more polite than males who are found to be more aggressive; (b) Hakka speakers were more sensitive to the relative social status of the interlocutors than the social distance between them; and (c) female speakers are relatively sensitive and thoughtful communicators because they are more sensitive to the gender of the interlocutors. In general, the study showed several gender-based distinctions and some culture-specific features in Hakka complaint behaviors.

The present study differs from the reviewed studies that tackled the speech act of complaint. First of all, unlike other studies, this study compares the complaint strategies implemented by two groups of undergraduate students using their native language, that is Arabic. Furthermore, it investigates the speech act of complaining alone, unlike other studies which investigated this speech act alongside with one or more other speech acts, viz refusal, apology, request, etc.. Moreover, it uses a discourse completion test (DCT) with twelve educational situations devised by the researcher himself.

Methodology and Procedures

Participants

The population of the study consisted of all Saudi and Jordanian undergraduate students. The sample of the study consisted of two randomly selected groups of a hundred and fifty 18-24-year-old male Saudi and Jordanian undergraduate students from various areas of specialization in the undergraduate programs at the humanities faculties at King Saud University and Imam Mohammad Bin Saud Islamic University (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia); and Yarmouk University and Jordan University of Science and Technology (Jordan) in the first semester of the academic year 2015/2016. The Saudi participants were 75 from Riyadh (a city in the middle area of Saudi Arabia) and the Jordanian participants were 75 from Irbid (a city in the northern area of Jordan)

. The participants were made aware that the involvement in this study is completely voluntary. Moreover, they were assured that their responses will remain confidential.

Instrument of the Study

In order to collect the required data for the study. The researcher prepared a discourse completion test (DCT), written in Arabic. The DCT consisted of three main parts:

1. a short introduction of the study and instructions for answering the questions,
2. a short section aiming at collecting demographic information about the respondents, and
3. twelve scenarios each of which involves a situation which requires a complaint to a fellow student, the person in charge, and the coordinator about the academic advisor, the instructor, the classroom environment, and the exams.

To ensure the validity of the instrument, the DCT was given to a jury of nine professors (four at Yarmouk University and five at King Saud University), to elicit their views as to the accuracy, clarity, and appropriateness of it. Then the instrument was reviewed and modified according to their recommendations. Moreover, 30 participants (15 Saudis and 15 Jordanians) were piloted to establish the reliability of the instrument using Cronbach-Alph which was found to be 0.83.

Data collection and statistical analysis

The researcher personally visited classes and oversaw the data collection process. He distributed the questionnaire, offered explanations and answered questions, and collected the completed questionnaires in the course of one two-hour class session. The participants were asked to fill out the DCT according to their usual and frequent use of complaint expressions in their face-to-face communication during complaining situations. They were asked to fill out the questionnaire individually and independently in order to give them a space to identify their own choices without any influence from other participants. After that, the data were processed and statistically computed and analyzed using the statistical package SPSS, then the outcomes were compared.

Complaint strategies classification

Based on the current DCT corpus, the researcher divided complaints into four major categories, each composed of one to eight different strategies (see Table 1, below); except for "Direct Complaint" which was taken as a category and a strategy at the same time. The classifications of the complaint data into various categories and strategies was decided by the researcher based on the literature and verified by three expert professors of sociolinguistics and pragmatics. The three raters independently verified the researcher's coding of the data in its entirety. On the whole, the coding of the raters coincided with the researcher's original classifications in nearly 97% of the analyzed data. In cases where discrepancies were noted, the researcher discussed each case with each rater till an agreement was attained.

Table 1: Complaint Categories and Strategies

Complaint Category	Complaint Strategies
Direct Complaint	Direct Complaint
Offensive Act	Blaming, Criticism, Obscenity, Accusation, Threat, Sarcasm, Protest, and Challenge

Calmness & Rationality	Inquiry, Request, Justification, Suggestion, Self-blaming, and Warning
Opting-out	Irony, Dissatisfaction, Proverb, Appeal to religion, Regret, and Surrender

Findings and Discussion

The present study aims at investigating Saudi and Jordanian University Male Students' complaints to others. It also attempts to find out if there are any differences among the strategies which both groups implement when they complain to a fellow student, the person in charge, and the coordinator. This section represents the findings as guided by the hypotheses of the study.

The First Question:

The first question investigates the extent to which Saudi and Jordanian university male students (hereafter SJUMS) complain to others.

To answer the first question, the SJUMS complaints were analyzed according to the steps of scientific analysis in qualitative research as a category to analyze content using observation checklist as a unit to the content analysis. Then the frequencies and percentages of the SJUMS' complaint strategies; its expected frequencies and residual; Chi-square for correlation ; and standardized residual were calculated according to the different levels of the study variables (country, complaint strategy, the person students complain to, and the person students complain from) to find out which complaint strategy was used most and which one was used least as a statistical indication to the SJUMS' complaint to others (in other words to what extent SJUMS complain to others) taking into consideration that the SJUMS' complaint strategies included under the levels of the study variables (country, complaint strategy, the person students complain to, and the person students complain from) were ordered descendingly in accordance with the values of their standardized residual. Table 2 shows the findings of Chi-square test for the correlation of the SJUMS complaints to others in a descending order according to the values of standardized residual to each of the study variables.

Table 2: Chi-Square test for the correlation of the SJUMS' complaints to others

IV	IV levels	Observed N	%	Expected N	Residual	Std. Residual	χ^2	df	Sig.
Country	KSA	633	76.3	415.0	218.00	10.70	229.031	1	0.000
	HKJ	197	23.7	415.0	-218.00	-10.70			
	Total	830	100.0	830.0	0.00	0.00			
Category	Calmness & Rationality	522	62.9	207.5	314.50	21.83	710.752	3	0.000
	Offensive Act	202	24.3	207.5	-5.50	-0.38			
	Opting-Out	73	8.8	207.5	-134.50	-9.34			
	Direct Complaint	33	4.0	207.5	-174.50	-12.11			
	Total	830	100.0	830.0	0.00	0.00			
Source	Advisor	244	29.4	207.5	36.50	2.53	26.646	3	0.000
	Instructor	244	29.4	207.5	36.50	2.53			
	Classroom Environment	181	21.8	207.5	-26.50	-1.84			
	Exams	161	19.4	207.5	-46.50	-3.23			
	Total	830	100.0	830.0	0.00	0.00			
To Whom?	A fellow student	296	35.7	276.7	19.33	1.16	2.901	2	0.234
	Person in charge	278	33.5	276.7	1.33	0.08			
	Coordinator	256	30.8	276.7	-20.67	-1.24			
	Total	830	100.0	830.0	0.00	0.00			

Table 2 shows that the SJUMS' complaints to others according to the variables of the study were as the following:

1. With regard to the study variable "country", the findings were as following:

- a. Saudi University students' complaint comes first, constituting (76.3%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is significantly higher than the expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
- b. Jordanian University students' complaint comes second, constituting (23.7%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is significantly lesser than the expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
2. With regard to the study variable "complaint strategy", the findings were as following:
 - a. "Calmness & Rationality" strategy comes first, constituting (62.9%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is significantly higher than the expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
 - b. "Offensive Act" strategy comes second, constituting (24.3%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is equal to its expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
 - c. "Opting-out" strategy comes third, constituting (8.8%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is significantly lesser than the expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
 - d. "Direct Complaint" strategy comes fourth, constituting (4.0%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is significantly lesser than the expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
3. With regard to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", the findings were as following:
 - a. Complaining from the "advisor" and the "instructor" comes first. Each of them constitute (29.4%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is significantly higher than the expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
 - b. Complaining from the "classroom environment" comes second, constituting (21.8%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is equal to its expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
 - c. Complaining from the "exams" comes third, constituting (19.4%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is significantly lesser than the expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
4. With regard to the study variable "the person students complain to", the findings were as following:
 - a. Complaining to a "fellow student" comes first, constituting (35.7%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is equal to its expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
 - b. Complaining to the "person in charge" comes second, constituting (35.5%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is equal to its expected frequency according to the standardized residual.
 - c. Complaining to the "coordinator" comes third, constituting (30.8%) of the overall SJUMS' complaints. This percentage is equal to its expected frequency according to the standardized residual.

The findings of this part show that both Saudi and Jordanian participants complain (but in different percentages) using different complaining strategies. Saudis' complaint comes first and Jordanians' complaint comes second. This could be because Saudi participants are less satisfied with the teaching /learning process than the Jordanian ones are. The findings further reveal that both Saudi and Jordanian participants employ four categories of complaint :

"Calmness & Rationality", "Offensive Act", "Opting-out", and "Direct Complaint" respectively. The fact that the "calmness & rationality" strategy comes first and the "direct complaint" comes last, could be because the Saudis and Jordanians are polite and decent people, so they try to save their own faces as well as others' faces by using less threatening and indirect strategies when complaining to others. Furthermore, no one can deny the obvious impact of religious values, norms, and beliefs on the social life of the Saudis and Jordanians. They feel that religious values must be observed in such situations. Moreover, the findings show that both Saudi and Jordanian participants do complain from "their advisors and instructors", "the classroom environment", and "the exams" respectively. Complaining from "the advisors and instructors" comes first because participants could not always find them to solve their problems on time. This may be because the advisors and instructors are always busy with their teaching load and other administrative duties, which prevent them from being available all the time for their students. "Classroom environment" comes second. This could be due to some inconveniences inside the classrooms such as the bad ventilation, the large number of students, the bad lighting system, and other equipment including chairs, boards, tables, etc. . Complaining from "the exam" comes third. This could be because the exams' timing, content, procedures, environment, arrangements, etc., are almost satisfactory to most of the students; therefore, their complaint about them are less than other variables. Finally, the findings of this part indicate that the participants complain to their "fellow students" most, then "the persons in charge", and finally to "the coordinator". This could be because of the social status of the complainees. They have the same social status as their fellow students, so they complain to them most, but the others, "the person in charge and the coordinator", have higher status; therefore, they resort to them less when they want to complain.

The Second Question

The second question investigates if there are any statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the percentages of the SJUMS' complaint strategies to others due to the study variable "the person students complain to"?

To answer the second question, the observed and expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints were calculated. The Chi-square test of independence was also conducted according to the study variable "the person students complain to" to find out any significant differences between the observed and expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints. Moreover, the adjusted standardized residual was calculated to explain the spread, distribution, and balance of the SJUMS' complaint strategies according to the study variable "the person students complain to". Table 3 shows the findings of Chi-square test of independence of the observed frequencies from the expected frequencies according to the study variable "the person students complain to".

Table 3: Chi-Square test of SJUMS' complaints according to the study variable "the person students complain to"

Source	Statistic	To Whom?			Total
		A fellow student	Person in charge	Coordinator	
Advisor	Count	85	85	74	244
	Expected Count	87.0	81.7	75.3	244.0
	% within Source	34.8	34.8	30.3	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.32	0.53	-0.21	
Instructor	Count	84	75	85	244
	Expected Count	87.0	81.7	75.3	244.0
	% within Source	34.4	30.7	34.8	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.48	-1.09	1.61	

Classroom Environment	Count	69	66	46	181
	Expected Count	64.5	60.6	55.8	181.0
	% within Source	38.1	36.5	25.4	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.78	0.96	-1.79	
Exams	Count	58	52	51	161
	Expected Count	57.4	53.9	49.7	161.0
	% within Source	36.0	32.3	31.7	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.11	-0.36	0.26	
Total	Count	296	278	256	830
	Expected Count	296.0	278.0	256.0	830.0
	% within Source	35.7	33.5	30.8	100.0
χ^2		df		Sig.	
4.742		6		0.577	

$$^1 \chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}} \right)$$

$$^1 \text{Adjusted standardized Residual} = \frac{o_{ij} - e_{ij}}{\sqrt{e_{ij} \times (1 - \frac{r_i}{n}) \times (1 - \frac{c_j}{n})}}$$

Table 3 shows there was no statistically significant difference at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others "the person students complain to" according to the chi-square test of independence due to "the person students complain to" variable. This shows that there is a balance in the distribution of the spread of the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to "the person students complain to" variable.

The observed frequencies of Jordanian university male students' (hereafter JUMS) complaints to others were also collected, then their expected frequencies were calculated. Furthermore, Chi-square test of independence was conducted according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable to find out any significant differences between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of JUMS' complaints to others. Moreover, the adjusted standardized residual was calculated to explain the spread, distribution, and balance of the JUMS' complaint strategies according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from". Table 4 shows the findings of Chi-square test of the independence of the observed frequencies from the expected frequencies according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from".

Table 4: Chi-Square test of JUMS' complaints according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from"

Source/HKJ	Statistic	To Whom?			Total
		A fellow student	Person in charge	Coordinator	
Advisor	Count	27	22	22	71
	Expected Count	32.8	21.3	16.9	71.0
	% within Source	38.0	31.0	31.0	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-1.7	0.2	1.8	
Instructor	Count	28	19	25	72
	Expected Count	33.3	21.6	17.2	72.0
	% within Source	38.9	26.4	34.7	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-1.6	-0.8	2.7	
Classroom Environment	Count	20	12	0	32
	Expected Count	14.8	9.6	7.6	32.0
	% within Source	62.5	37.5	0.0	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	2.0	1.0	-3.5	
Exams	Count	16	6	0	22
	Expected Count	10.2	6.6	5.2	22.0
	% within Source	72.7	27.3	0.0	100.0

	Adjusted Residual	2.6	-0.3	-2.8	
Total	Count	91	59	47	197
	Expected Count	91.0	59.0	47.0	197.0
	% within Source	46.2	29.9	23.9	100.0
χ^2		df		Sig.	
26.001		6		0.000	

Table 4 shows there was a statistically significant difference at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of JUMS' complaints to others "the person/thing students complain from" according to the Chi-square test of independence due to "the person/thing students complain from" variable. This shows that there is no balance in the distribution of the observed frequencies of JUMS' complaints to others according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable; that the JUMS' complaint strategies to others (to whom students complain) played an important role later on in this relationship according to the "the person/thing students complain from" variable and their level of distribution as follows:

- Spread significantly more than expected: when JUMS complain about "instructor" to the "coordinator"; when JUMS complain about "exams" to "a fellow student"; and when JUMS complain about "classroom environment" to "a fellow student" respectively.
- Spread significantly less than expected: when JUMS complain about "classroom environment" to the "coordinator"; and when JUMS complain about "exams" to the "coordinator" respectively.

The other aspects of JUMS' complaint strategies to others did not play any role in this relationship due to the existence of a balance in the distribution of the spread of the observed frequencies of JUMS' complaint to others according to the "the person/thing students complain from" variable.

The observed frequencies of Saudi university male students' (hereafter SUMS) complaints to others were also collected, then their expected frequencies were calculated. Furthermore, Chi-square test of independence was conducted according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable to find out any significant differences between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SUMS' complaints to others. Moreover, the adjusted standardized residual was calculated to explain the spread, distribution, and balance of the SUMS' complaint strategies according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from". Table 5 shows the findings of Chi-square test of the independence of the observed frequencies from the expected frequencies according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from".

Table 5: Chi-Square test of SUMS' complaints according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from"

Source/KSA	Statistic	To Whom?			Total
		A fellow student	Person in charge	Coordinator	
Advisor	Count	58	63	52	173
	Expected Count	56.0	59.9	57.1	173.0
	% within Source	33.5	36.4	30.1	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.4	0.6	-1.0	
Instructor	Count	56	56	60	172
	Expected Count	55.7	59.5	56.8	172.0
	% within Source	32.6	32.6	34.9	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.1	-0.7	0.6	
Classroom Environment	Count	49	54	46	149
	Expected Count	48.3	51.5	49.2	149.0
	% within Source	32.9	36.2	30.9	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.1	0.5	-0.6	

Exams	Count	42	46	51	139
	Expected Count	45.0	48.1	45.9	139.0
	% within Source	30.2	33.1	36.7	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.6	-0.4	1.0	
Total	Count	205	219	209	633
	Expected Count	205.0	219.0	209.0	633.0
	% within Source	32.4	34.6	33.0	100.0
χ^2		df		Sig.	
2.280		6		0.892	

Table 5 shows there was no statistically significant difference at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SUMS' complaints to others "the person/thing students complain from" according to the Chi-square test of independence due to "the person/thing students complain from" variable. This shows that there is a balance in the distribution of the spread of the observed frequencies of SUS' complaints to others according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable.

In addition to what mentioned above, the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others were also collected, then their expected frequencies were calculated. Furthermore, Chi-square test of independence was conducted according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Direct Complaint", to find out any significant differences between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others. Moreover, the adjusted standardized residual was calculated to explain the spread, distribution, and balance of the SJUMS' complaint strategies according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when the complaint strategy used is "Direct Complaint". Table 6 shows the findings of chi-square test of the independence of the observed frequencies from the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when the complaint strategy used is "Direct Complaint".

Table 6: Chi-Square test of SJUMS' complaints according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when using "Direct Complaint" strategy

Source/Direct Complaint	Statistic	To Whom?			Total
		A fellow student	Person in charge	Coordinator	
Advisor	Count	1	13	2	16
	Expected Count	1.5	9.2	5.3	16.0
	% within Source	6.3	81.3	12.5	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.55	2.67	-2.46	
Instructor	Count	1	2	3	6
	Expected Count	0.5	3.5	2.0	6.0
	% within Source	16.7	33.3	50.0	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.71	-1.33	0.96	
Classroom Environment	Count	0	2	5	7
	Expected Count	0.6	4.0	2.3	7.0
	% within Source	0.0	28.6	71.4	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.94	-1.75	2.41	
Exams	Count	1	2	1	4
	Expected Count	0.4	2.3	1.3	4.0
	% within Source	25.0	50.0	25.0	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	1.18	-0.33	-0.38	
Total	Count	3	19	11	33
	Expected Count	3.0	19.0	11.0	33.0
	% within Source	9.1	57.6	33.3	100.0
χ^2		df		Sig.	

11.218

6

0.082

Table 6 shows there was no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to the Chi-square test of independence due to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Direct Complaint". This shows that there is a balance in the distribution of the spread of the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Direct Complaint".

Moreover, the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others were also collected, then their expected frequencies were calculated. Furthermore, chi-square test of independence was conducted according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Offensive Act", to find out any significant differences between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others. Moreover, the adjusted standardized residual was calculated to explain the spread, distribution, and balance of the SJUMS' complaint strategies according to the study variable "the person students complain from", when the complaint strategy used is "Offensive Act". Table 7 shows the findings of Chi-square test of the independence of the observed frequencies from the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when the complaint strategy used is "Offensive Act".

Table 7: Chi-Square test of SJUMS' complaints according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when using "Offensive Act" strategy

Source/Offensive Act	Statistic	To Whom?			Total
		A fellow friend	Person in charge	Coordinator	
Advisor	Count	40	22	21	83
	Expected Count	50.1	17.7	15.2	83.0
	% within Source	48.2	26.5	25.3	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-2.96	1.51	2.14	
Instructor	Count	28	11	9	48
	Expected Count	29.0	10.2	8.8	48.0
	% within Source	58.3	22.9	18.8	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.33	0.32	0.09	
Classroom Environment	Count	32	6	2	40
	Expected Count	24.2	8.5	7.3	40.0
	% within Source	80.0	15.0	5.0	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	2.83	-1.08	-2.43	
Exams	Count	22	4	5	31
	Expected Count	18.7	6.6	5.7	31.0
	% within Source	71.0	12.9	16.1	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	1.31	-1.24	-0.34	
Total	Count	122	43	37	202
	Expected Count	122.0	43.0	37.0	202.0
	% within Source	60.4	21.3	18.3	100.0
χ^2		df			Sig.
14.257		6			0.027

Table 7 shows there was a statistically significant difference at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to the Chi-square test of independence due to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Offensive Act". This shows that there is no balance in the distribution of the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to "the

person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Offensive Act", that the SJUMS' complaint strategies to others (to whom students complain) played an important role later on in this relationship according to the "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Offensive Act", and their level of distribution as follows:

- Spread significantly more than expected: when SJUMS complain about "classroom environment" to a "fellow student"; and when SJUMS complain about the "advisor" to "the coordinator" respectively.
- Spread significantly less than expected: when SJUMS complain about "the advisor" to the a "fellow student"; and when SJUMS complain about "classroom environment" to the "coordinator" respectively.

The other aspects of SJUMS' complaint strategies to others did not play a role in this relationship due to the existence of a balance in the distribution of the spread of the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaint to others (to whom students complain) according to the "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Offensive Act".

Furthermore, The observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others were also collected, then their expected frequencies were calculated. Chi-square test of independence was also conducted according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Calmness & Rationality", to find out any significant differences between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others. Moreover, the adjusted standardized residual was calculated to explain the spread, distribution, and balance of the SJUS' complaint strategies according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when the complaint strategy used is "Calmness & Rationality". Table 8 shows the findings of Chi-square test of the independence of the observed frequencies from the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when the complaint strategy used is "Calmness & Rationality".

Table 8: Chi-Square test of SJUMS' complaints according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when using "Calmness & Rationality" strategy

Source/Calmness & Rationality	Statistic	To Whom?			Total
		A fellow student	Person in charge	Coordinator	
Advisor	Count	32	47	49	128
	Expected Count	31.1	48.6	48.3	128.0
	% within Source	25.0	36.7	38.3	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.20	-0.33	0.15	
Instructor	Count	45	58	68	171
	Expected Count	41.6	64.9	64.5	171.0
	% within Source	26.3	33.9	39.8	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.74	-1.32	0.67	
Classroom Environment	Count	27	54	39	120
	Expected Count	29.2	45.5	45.3	120.0
	% within Source	22.5	45.0	32.5	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.53	1.82	-1.35	
Exams	Count	23	39	41	103
	Expected Count	25.1	39.1	38.9	103.0
	% within Source	22.3	37.9	39.8	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.53	-0.02	0.48	
Total	Count	127	198	197	522

	Expected Count	127.0	198.0	197.0	522.0
	% within Source	24.3	37.9	37.7	100.0
	χ^2	df			Sig.
	4.177	6			0.653

Table 8 shows there was no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to the Chi-square test of independence due to "from whom students complain" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Calmness & Rationality". This shows that there is a balance in the distribution of the spread of the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Calmness & Rationality".

In addition, the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others were also collected, then their expected frequencies were calculated. Furthermore, chi-square test of independence was conducted according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Opting-out", to find out any significant differences between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others. Moreover, the adjusted standardized residual was calculated to explain the spread, distribution, and balance of the SJUMS' complaint strategies according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when the complaint strategy used is "Opting-out". Table 9 shows the findings of Chi-square test of the independence of the observed frequencies from the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when the complaint strategy used is "Opting-out".

Table 9: Chi-Square test of SJUMS' complaints according to the study variable "the person/thing students complain from", when using "Opting-out" strategy

Source/Opting-Out	Statistic	To Whom?			Total
		A fellow student	Person in charge	Coordinator	
Advisor	Count	12	3	2	17
	Expected Count	10.2	4.2	2.6	17.0
	% within Source	70.6	17.6	11.8	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.99	-0.77	-0.43	
Instructor	Count	10	4	5	19
	Expected Count	11.5	4.7	2.9	19.0
	% within Source	52.6	21.1	26.3	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.79	-0.42	1.59	
Classroom Environment	Count	10	4	0	14
	Expected Count	8.4	3.5	2.1	14.0
	% within Source	71.4	28.6	0.0	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	0.95	0.38	-1.75	
Exams	Count	12	7	4	23
	Expected Count	13.9	5.7	3.5	23.0
	% within Source	52.2	30.4	17.4	100.0
	Adjusted Residual	-0.96	0.78	0.38	
Total	Count	44	18	11	73
	Expected Count	44.0	18.0	11.0	73.0
	% within Source	60.3	24.7	15.1	100.0
	χ^2	df			Sig.
	5.771	6			0.449

Table 9 shows there was no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to

the Chi-square test of independence due to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Opting-out". This shows that there is a balance in the distribution of the spread of the observed frequencies of SJUMS' complaints to others according to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, when the complaint strategy used is "Opting-out".

The findings of this part show that there are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the percentages of the SJUMS' complaint strategies to others due to the study variable "the person students complain to". This means that both Saudi and Jordanian participants equally complain to their fellow students, the person in charge, and the coordinator about the advisor, the instructor, the classroom environment, and the exams. This shows that the social status of the complainees does not play an essential role in the SJUMS' complaint strategies. They faced a problem and they wanted someone to complain to regardless of his social status. Moreover, when analyzing the responses of the respondents separately, it was found that unlike the findings of the SUMS' responses which show that there are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the percentages of the complaint strategies to others due to "the person/thing students complain from" variable, the findings of the JUMS' responses show that there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) when JUMS complain about "instructor" to the "coordinator"; "exams" to "a fellow student"; and "classroom environment" to "a fellow student" respectively. Finally, concerning the findings of the complaint categories, it was found that (a) there are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the percentages of the students' complaints to others due to the person/thing students complain from" variable when the complaint categories used are "Direct Complaint", "Calmness & Rationality", and "Opting-out"; and (b) there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the percentages of the students' complaints to others due to the person/thing students complain from" variable when the complaint category used is "Offensive Act"; particularly when they complain about "classroom environment" to "a fellow student", and "the advisor" to "the coordinator" respectively.

The study of speech acts can provide us with a better understanding and new insight into the correlation between linguistic forms and sociocultural context (Olshtain & Cohen, 1983). The research on speech acts is also essential in that it can provide us with the most appropriate sociocultural norms and rules surrounding the utterance of the native speakers (Murphy & Neu, 1996). In fact, this is the most crucial source for the sociopragmatic rules governing the speech acts in a language (Moon, 2001). The researcher believes that this study supports the following arguments: (1) most subjects used more than one complaint strategy in each situation. It is clear that most Saudi and Jordanian speakers used elaborated examples because they wanted to make sure that they get the message across to the hearer without any ambiguity; (2) most subjects decided to complain in the given situation, rather than choosing to remain silent; (3) more complaining strategies were employed by Saudi respondents; (4) both groups employed relatively similar expressions that donate the same semantic content; and (5) differences in complaining strategies may be culture-specific while similarities may reflect the universality of complaining as a speech act. Although the two groups belong to the same culture; yet there are some differences. For example the Saudi society is far more conservative than the Jordanian society.

Conclusion

This study represents a preliminary effort to empirically examine, explore and compare the complaining strategies the Saudi and Jordanian undergraduate male students use when they express their complaints in some educational situations. It also attempts to find out if there are any differences among the strategies which both groups implement when they complain to a fellow student, the person in charge, and the coordinator. The findings of the study show that Saudi and Jordanian university male students do complain to others using a wide range of strategies. These strategies are: direct complaint, blaming, criticism, obscenity, accusation, threat, sarcasm, protest, challenge, inquiry, request, justification, suggestion, self-blaming, warning, irony, dissatisfaction, proverb, appeal to religion, regret, and surrender. These strategies fall into four categories: Calmness & Rationality, Offensive Act, Opting-out, and Direct Complaint. The use of a wide variety of strategies to complain refers to the nature of Arabic language which allows the possibility of using the same expression to express more than one speech act. The findings also show that Saudi university students complain more often than Jordanian university students do. Although both groups of participants belong to the same culture, they differ in the frequency of the complaint strategies they use. In addition, the findings indicate that complaints from the advisor and the instructor comes first, complaints from the classroom environment comes second, and complaints from the exams comes third. Moreover, the findings show that complaints to a fellow student comes first, complaints to the person in charge comes second, and complaints to the coordinator comes third. This highlights and stresses the role that the social status of the complainees plays in the complaining process. It shows that people tend to complain to those who are of the same or equal social status than those who are not. The findings further reveal that when they complain, Saudi and Jordanian university male students similarly use "Calmness & Rationality", "Direct Complaint", and "Opting-out" complaint strategies, while they differ in using "Offensive Act" strategy. Saudi participants tend to use this strategy more than Jordanians do. This may be because of the harsh nature of the region where Saudi participants live, which affects their personality and behavior. From this difference, we can conclude that people of the same culture may vary in their language use. This difference may be due to many factors. The region/place of residence, the financial status, the educational level, and the values and beliefs of the society, are some of them. Our role as researchers is to investigate and highlight these differences in language use among people of the same culture as these areas are not capitalized on by many researchers.

Regarding the implications of this study, it can be mentioned that the most important contribution of this study will be its classroom applications as well as its importance and contribution to second/foreign language teaching and learning process. If learners are exposed to authentic learning situations, their motivation for learning would increase, anxiety and stress would decrease, and their attitudes towards learning a language will be positive. In one study, ESL students showed improvement in their performance of complaints in and refusal in a posttest given six months after the instruction (Morrow, 1995). The findings of this study can be useful for material designers as well. If they consider the significance of speech acts in classrooms, they can provide books with these kinds of materials to create more relaxing process of language learning. In fact, to be able to teach communicative competence, we need materials that would make learners aware of the communication norms of the native culture. The findings also give implications to language educators, particularly in Saudi Arabia and Jordan, in that textbooks and pedagogical models provided for learners should be supplied with real-language in

use and also other supplements regarding the sociopragmatic rules of the target language in order to enhance the learner's pragmatic ability.

Although the results achieved in this study are sound and significant, the researcher found many areas of further inquiry within the framework of this study. Further research is needed for a thorough understanding of the Arabic native speakers' complaining strategies and for the confirmation of its findings. This is especially true when conducting research with more variables than those in the present study. It is also recommended that this study be replicated with a larger number of participants. In addition, it would be interesting to compare results across levels of proficiency as well as social status and age of the interlocutor. Researchers are further recommended to study the complaint strategies of school students. Future researchers should conduct other studies where they adopt procedures to better control the amount of time that the respondents spend completing the DCT. Another possible enhancement maybe to produce an oral version of the DCT, where the respondents respond orally to the given prompts. Moreover, there is a need to investigate whether and what theories of learning with speech acts could teachers adopt. In addition, further studies might describe what teachers should do with speech acts in their own classrooms. Research in this area should identify the needs of both language learners and instructors as well as the role that effective speech act education and integration can play to meet learners' needs. Finally, universities, ministry of education and other educational institutes are recommended to make use and benefit from the findings of this study as well as similar ones when designing their curricula.

Acknowledgement

The researcher would like to thank the Research Center at the College of Languages and Translation - Deanship of Scientific Research - King Saud University for the financial support offered to this research.

About the Author

The author is an English language instructor at the Department of English Language and Translation, College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. He has been teaching English for EFL/ESL undergraduate university students for more than 18 years. His research interests include reading, reading comprehension, reading interests, storytelling, academic writing, interaction between reading and writing, CALL, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics

References

- Abdolrezapour, Parisa , Dabaghi, Azizollah & Kassaian, Zohreh .(2012). Iranian EFL Learners' Realization Of Complaints In American English. *GEMA Online™ Journal of Language Studies*, 12(2),711-725 [Online]. Available At: [file:///C:/Documents%20and%20Settings/Administrator/My%20Documents/Downloads/638-1218-1-SM%20\(1\).pdf](file:///C:/Documents%20and%20Settings/Administrator/My%20Documents/Downloads/638-1218-1-SM%20(1).pdf)
- AL Hammuri, L.O. (2011). *A Pragmatic Study of Complaint and Advice Strategies Used by Jordanian and American Undergraduate University Students: Guidelines for Teaching These Speech Acts*. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan.

- Al Omari, S. (2008). *A pragmatic analysis of complaining strategies in Jordanian Arabic and American English*. Unpublished Master Thesis. Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan.
- Akıncı, S. (1999). *An Analysis of Complaints in Terms of Politeness in Turkish*. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Austin, J.L. (1962). *How to do Things with Words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ayu T., Dyah & Sukyadi, Didi.(2011). Complaining in EFL learners: Differences of realization between men and women (A case study of Indonesian EFL learners at the English Department of the Indonesian University of Education. *Parole*, 2(1), 1-25.
- Backman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bonikowska, M. (1988). The choice of opting out. *Applied Linguistics*, 9 (2), 169-181.
- Boxer, D.(1993). Complaints as positive strategies: What the learner needs to know. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27 (2), 277-299.
- Boxer, D. (1996). Ethnographic interviewing as a research tool in speech act analysis: The case of complaints. In S. M. Gass & J. Neu (Eds.), *Speech acts across cultures: Challenges to communication in a second language* (pp. 217-239). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Boxer, D. & Pickering L. (1995). Problems in the presentation of speech acts in ELT materials: the case of complaints. *ELT Journal*, 49 (1), 44-58.
- Brown, P. & Levinson, S. C. (1978). *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chang, Hueimei. (2001). *Complaints in Chinese: The case of elementary school, junior high school, senior high school and college students*. Unpublished master's thesis. National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu, Taiwan.
- Chen, Y. S., Chen, C. Y. D. & Chang, M. S. (2011). American and Chinese complaints: Strategy use from a cross-cultural perspective. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 8(2), 253-275.
- DeCapua, A. (1989). *An analysis of pragmatic transfer in the speech act of complaints as produced by native speakers of German in English*. Unpublished dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, U.S.A.
- Deveci, Tanju. (2003). *A study on the use of complaints in the interlanguage of Turkish EFL learners*. Unpublished M.A thesis, Middle East Technical University, Turkey.
- Du, J. S. (1995). Performance of face-threatening acts in Chinese: Complaining, giving bad news, and disagreeing. In G. Kasper (Ed.), *Pragmatics of Chinese as a native and target language* (pp. 165-206). Manoa, Hawai'i: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Eslami-Rasekh, Z. (2004). Face-keeping strategies in reaction to complaints: English and Persian. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, 14(1), 181-197.
- Hartley, Laura C.(1998). *A sociolinguistic analysis of face threat and face management in potential complaint situation*. Unpublished Dissertation. Michigan State University, East Lansing, USA.
- Geluyken, R. & Kraft, B. (2002). *Complaining in French L1 and L2: A Cross-Linguistic Investigation*. Retrieved on September, 08, 2002 from <http://www.alexanderkinne-de/eurosla11/c/abstracts/Geluykens.doc>
- Kozlova, Iryna. (2004). Can you complain? Cross-cultural comparison of indirect complaints in Russia and American English. *Prospect*, 19(1), 84-105.
- Jui-chun, Wu. (2013). *Gender-Based Differences in Hakka Complaint Realization* [Online] . Available At:

- http://nhcuer.lib.nhcue.edu.tw/bitstream/392440000Q/5294/1/Gender_based_%E6%BC%A2%E5%AD%B8%E7%A0%94%E7%A9%B6.pdf
- Lee, Cynthia. (2012). "Mum, Sister Hit Me": Interlanguage Complaint Strategies of Cantonese Learners of English from Childhood to Their Teens. *International Review of Pragmatics*, 4(1), 80-109.
- Lin, Yuhhuey. (2007). Making complaints in Mandarin Chinese: Gender differences and the sociolinguistic universal. *Analyzing, studying, and teaching language: Views from Taiwan and the west*, 41-76. Taipei: The Crane.
- Ma'ayah, K. (2009). *Responses to complaints among American and Jordanian university students: A contrastive study*. Unpublished Master Thesis, Jordan University of Sciences and Technology, Irbid, Jordan.
- Mofidi, Marzieh & Shoushtari, Z.G. (2012). A Comparative Study of the Complaint Strategies among Iranian EFL and ESL Students – The Study of the Effect of Length of Residence and the Amount of Contact. *English Language Teaching*, 5 (11), 118-124.
- Moon, K. (2001). Speech act study: Differences between native and nonnative speaker complaint strategies [Online]. Available At: http://www.american.edu/tesol/Kyunghye_Moon.pdf
- Morrow, C. K. (1995). *The pragmatic effects of instruction on ESL learners' production of complaint and refusal speech acts*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of New York at Buffalo, Amherst, NY. UMI Microform, UMI Number: 9603629.
- Murphy, B. & Neu, J. (1996). My grade's too low: The speech act set of complaining. In S. M. Gass & J. Neu (Eds.), *Speech acts across cultures: Challenges to communication in a second language* (pp. 191-216). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Nakabachi, K. (1996). Pragmatic transfer in complaints: Strategies of complaining in English and Japanese by Japanese EFL speakers. *JACET Bulletin*, 27, 127-142.
- Olshtain, E., & Cohen A. W. (1983). Apology: A speech-act set. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition*. (pp. 18-35). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.
- Olshtain, E. & Weinbach, L. (1993). Interlanguage features of the speech act of complaining. In G. Kasper and Sh. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage Pragmatics* (pp. 108-122). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Park, J. (2001). Korean EFL learners' politeness strategies in their complaints. *The Linguistic Association of Korea Journal*, 9(1), 185-209.
- Rhurakvit, Maneenun . (2011). *Complaints in Thai and English: An interlanguage pragmatic study*. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Queen Mary, University of London, London, UK.
- Rinnert, Carol & Iwai, Chiaki. (2002). *Variation in Complaint Strategies in Three Regions* [Online]. Available at: <http://jalt-publications.org/archive/proceedings/2002/372.pdf>
- Prykarpatska, Iryna. (2008). Why are you late? Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Study of Complaints in American English and Ukrainian. *Revista Alicantina de Estudios Ingleses*, 21 , 87-102.
- Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Searle, J. (1975). A Taxonomy of Illocutionary Acts. *Language, Mind, and Knowledge, Minneapolis Studies in the Philosophy of Science*, 7, 344-369.
- Searle, J. R. (1976). A classification of illocutionary acts. *Language in Society*, 5, 1-23 [Online]. Available At: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500006837>
- S Shea, H. (2003). Japanese complaining in English: A study of interlanguage pragmatics. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 64 (05), 1629A. (UMI no. 3091292).

- Takano, Y. (1997). How people complain: A comparison of the speech act of complaining among Japanese and American students. *Sophia linguistics*, 41(1), 21-37.
- Tanck, S. (2002). Speech Act Sets of Refusal and Complaint: A comparison of Native and Non-Native English Speakers' Production. Paper presented for TESL 523 Second Language Acquisition class at American University, Washington, DC [Online] . Available At: www.american.edu/tesol/Working%20Papers/wptanck.pdf
- Trenchs, M. (1995). Pragmatic strategies in Catalan and English complaints: A comparative study of native and EFL speakers. *Language Quarterly*, 33, 160-182.
- Trosborg, Anna. (1995). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints and apologies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Umar, A. Al-Tayib. (2006). The speech act of complaint as realized by advanced Sudanese learners of English. *Umm Al-Qura University Journal of Educational & Sciences & Humanities*, 18(2), 9-40.
- Vásquez, Camilla. (2011). Complaints online: The case of TripAdvisor [Online]. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43 , 1707–1717[Online]. Available At: www.elsevier.com/locate/pragma
- Wannaruk, A. (2005). Pragmatic transfer in Thai EFL refusals. Paper presented at *the13th Annual KOTESOL International Conference, October 15-16, Seoul, Korea*.
- Yamagashira, H. (2001). Pragmatic transfer in Japanese ESL refusals. *Pragmatic Transfer*, 31, 259-275.
- Yue, Y. Z. Z. (2007). A contrastive study of American and Chinese complaining strategies. *Journal of Xi'an International Studies University*, 4-10.
- Zhoumin, Yuan. (2011). A contrastive study of American and Chinese university students' complaining strategies. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics (Quarterly)*, 34(1), 111-124.

Contextual vs. Verbal Consistency in the Translations of the Qur'anic Polysemous Verb *ata*: A corpus-based Study

Sherine Abd El-Gelil Emara

Faculty of Humanities, Al-Azhar University
Nasr City, Cairo, Egypt

Abstract

This corpus-based study investigates how translators of the Qur'an have dealt with the verb *ata* that seems to represent a case of polysemy. It examines nine English translations of all tokens of the verb *ata* in the Glorious Qur'an with the aim of determining which of the two policies referred to by Nida and Taber; "Contextual Consistency" and "Verbal Consistency" translators have adopted. It attempts to investigate whether the translators have been able to recognize when *ata* in the Qur'an is being used in a primary or a secondary sense or they have fallen into the trap of translating it literally. It also attempts to determine whether the syntactic and semantic behavior of the verb *ata* has an implication for the translating process. It is mainly a descriptive study where an attempt is made to descriptively – rather than prescriptively – discuss the translation product. A statistical analysis is conducted to identify the English equivalents of *ata* in the corpus. The selection includes the translations of Rodwell, Palmer, Pickthall, Y. Ali, Arberry, Shakir, Al-Hilali and Khan, Ghali, and Khalifa. Corpus analysis reveals that the polysemous verb *ata* has not been translated by a single word in the English translations under study. On the contrary, it has a large number of translation equivalents. This difference in translation equivalents could be a sign of the possibility of a difference in the semantics of the original verb. It means that *ata* in the Qur'an expresses various meanings and that in translating it most of the translators have adopted the policy of contextual consistency.

Key words: *ata*, corpus analysis, polysemy, translation equivalents, contextual consistency, verbal consistency.

1. Introduction

Finding a perfect lexical translational equivalent is one of the most difficult aspects of translation. This might be attributed to different reasons. As Nida and Taber (1982) point out, one of the problems encountered by translators is that words in different languages do not necessarily mesh together in terms of the semantic areas which they cover.

Baker (1992) argues that in the majority of cases, words have 'blurred edges', in that they have largely negotiable meanings and are only realized in specific contexts. Therefore, defining even the basic propositional meaning of a word with certainty is one of the challenges that translators face. S/he should attempt to perceive the meanings of words and utterances precisely according to a given context in order to render them into another language.

Likewise, Larson (1994) points out that translators are challenged to recognize when words in the source language are being used in a primary or a secondary sense in order not to fall into the trap of translating them literally.

Similarly, Newmark (1996) indicates that there are translation problems associated with the four open word classes arguing that nouns are most likely to have perfect translation equivalents; verbs are less likely than nouns to find perfect equivalents; whereas adjectives and adverbs have the least accurate correspondences.

This being the case, it is emphasized that words cannot be translated without regard of the context in which they occur. Translators should be keen to build in a sufficient context to assure the correct meaning.

The need to contextualize words is greater in the case of polysemous words which, if decontextualized, are likely to give rise to translation problems. Translators have to consider their linguistic context and co-text in order to remove their ambiguity and specify their meanings. Translation problems are likely to rise if translators do not take the context and co-text into consideration and stick to the core meaning of the word.

Nida and Taber (1982), describing the linguistic problems relating to the referential and connotative meaning of words, assert that the 'semotactic environment' or co-text and context help the translator determine the correct sense. For instance, the word *chair* is polysemous (has several meanings): as a noun, it can be 'an item of furniture', 'a university position' as professor or 'the chairperson at a meeting', and, as a verb, can mean 'to preside over a meeting'. The word *spirit* also has a wide range of senses, including 'liquor', 'determination' and 'ghost' as well as 'the holy spirit'. Besides, some meanings are figurative and need to be distinguished from the literal meanings: 'father of a child', 'our Father in heaven', 'Father Murphy', 'father of an invention or a country', and so on; each perhaps requiring a different translation. Nida and Taber (1982) emphasize that the translator as a reader first needs to disambiguate (i.e. differentiate between) the various possible senses of the source language term as a step towards identifying the appropriate target language equivalent.

Nida and Taber (1982), believing that words are instruments by which the message is communicated and not ends in themselves, keep a distinction between "Contextual Consistency" and "Verbal Consistency". The former refers to "the quality which results from translating a source language word by that expression in the receptor language which best fits each context rather than by the same expression in all contexts" (p.199). The latter; to the "quality resulting from the effort to translate a given word from the original consistently by a single word in the receptor language" regardless of the variety of contexts in which it appears (p. 208).

Nida and Taber (1982) set as an example of the application of the principle of Contextual Consistency the translation of the Greek word *soma* in different passages of the Bible, and

observe that in one English-language version it is variously translated as *body*, *herself*, *corpse*, *your very selves* and *lower nature*.

Nida and Taber (1982) are in favour of adopting the policy of contextual consistency believing that it has priority over verbal consistency (or word-for-word concordance). Their reasoning is that the semantic areas covered by corresponding words in different languages are not identical and, therefore, the choice of a translational equivalent depends more on the context, rather than on a fixed system of verbal consistency, i.e. always translating one word in the source language by a corresponding word in the target language.

As Nida and Taber (1982) point out, the priority of contextual consistency rests upon two important linguistic facts:

- (1) Each language covers all of experience with a set of verbal symbols, i.e. words to designate various features of experience, and
- (2) Each language is different from all other languages in the ways in which the sets of verbal symbols classify the various elements of experience (p.19)

They proceed to argue that verbal consistency tends to produce renderings that are both unnatural and misleading and may result in serious distortion of the meaning.

2. Aim of the study

Polysemy is one of the semantic and linguistic features of the Glorious Quran. Translator will encounter obvious difficulty when they try to convey the intended meaning of the polysemous words because they will be confused by the various meanings and senses of these words.

This study is a case- study of the verb *ata* in the Qur'an and its renderings in nine English translations of the Qur'an. It attempts to answer the following questions:

- 1- Has *ata* been translated by a single word in the English translations under study – the policy of verbal consistency? Or, has it varied translation equivalents – the policy of contextual consistency?
- 2- Do the variation of translation equivalents or the lack thereof have to do with the syntactic and semantic behaviors of *ata*? In other words, does *ata* have one translation equivalent as it assumes one syntactic and semantic behavior, or does it have varied translation equivalents because its syntactic and semantic behaviors vary?

It is to be noted that it is not my goal to make judgments on the quality of the translations or on how they should be. My aim is only to describe how translations actually look like. It is mainly a descriptive study where an attempt is made to descriptively – rather than prescriptively – discuss the translation product.

3. Data and methodology

In order to carry out this study, the researcher built a corpus comprising all tokens of the verb *ata* in the Qur'anic text and their translations into English. Nine English translations of the Qur'an are selected here. The rationale for selection is that they represent translations made by Muslims (Y. Ali, Pickthall, Al-Hilali & Khan, Shakir, Khalifa, and Ghali) and Non-Muslims (Rodwell, Arberry, and Palmer), native speakers of Arabic (Shakir, and Ghali) and non-native speakers of Arabic (Palmer, Pickthall, Y. Ali, and Arberry). Moreover, they represent old translations (Rodwell, 1861; Palmer, 1880; Pickthall, 1930; Y. Ali, 1934; Arberry, 1957), and quite recent translations (Shakir, 1983; Al-Hilali & Khan, 1985; Ghali, 1996, and Khalifa, 2003).

Now that the material from which to extract data is established, it is important to note that the root *أ ت ي* *a t a*, according to *The Quranic Arabic Corpus: Word-by-Word Grammar*, occurs 549 times in the Quran in six derived forms:

1. 264 times as the form verb *ata* (أَتَى)
2. 271 times as the form verb *ātā* (آتَى)
3. nine times as the active participle *ātī* (آتِي)
4. once as the passive participle *matīyyun* (مَاتِي)
5. three times as the form verbal noun *itāon* (إِتَاء)
6. once as the form active participle *mu'tūn* (مُؤْتُون)

(Dukes, 2009-2011: <http://corpus.quran.com/wordbyword>)

Due to the fact that *ata* is the root and the most frequent of the six forms, the researcher is going to tackle it only. Other derived forms are not within the scope of this study. Moreover, the verb *ata* occurs in the corpus in different forms: present tense form, infinitive form, past tense form, etc. Its meanings are considered regardless of the form it takes in a given context.

A relatively representative body of illustrative examples is selected from the corpus. In conducting the analysis, the following steps are followed: (1) building a corpus that includes all tokens of the verb *ata* in the Qur'an and their translations (Table 1 in Appendix A), (2) identifying the translation equivalents of the verb *ata*, and their number of occurrence in each of the nine selected translations, (3) making a statistical analysis of these translation equivalents, (4) delineating the syntactic structures involving *ata* and investigating the meanings it expresses, and (5) determining what translation equivalents are selected by the translators in correlation to these syntactic structures and meanings of *ata*.

The computer is used here as a tool for (1) retrieving the translations and transliteration of the verses in which *ata* occurs using the "FREE Noble Quran Search Software" available at <http://www.quransearch.com>; and (2) using the Microsoft Excel and Word programs for processing data, organizing the processed data in tables wherefrom the desired information may be extracted, and determining the frequency of occurrence of the translation equivalents and arranging them in a descending order.

4. Theoretical background

4.1 The concept of polysemy in English

Many definitions have been given to the concept of polysemy (also called polysemia; opposed to monosemy or univocality) in English. For example, according to Kreidler (1998), a polysemous lexeme has several (apparently) related meanings of which the anatomical referent is the basic one and the other meanings are derived from it.

Cruse (2006) defines a polysemous word as one which has more than one distinct, established sense. He refers to a number of relationships which may hold between polysemous senses. They may be related by hyponymy, as in the case of *drink* ('imbibe liquid' and 'imbibe alcoholic beverage') or *dog* ('canine animal' and 'male canine animal'). Several polysemous relations involve a contrast between literal and figurative meanings of a word. This may be metaphorical, as in *position* ('location in space', 'opinion on some controversial issue', and 'professional post within an organisation'), or it may be metonymic, as in *wheels* ('revolving parts of a mechanism in contact with ground' and 'car'), or it may involve hyperbole, as in *fantastic* ('so extreme as to challenge belief' and 'a generalised term of approval').

Yule (2006) defines polysemy as "one form (written or spoken) having multiple meanings that are all related by extension" (p.107). A similar definition is found in Crystal (2008): polysemy is "A term used in semantic analysis to refer to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings" (p. 373).

Similarly, Meyer (2009) uses the term polysemy to refer to words such as *bank* that have more than one meaning (p. 233).

Examples of polysemous words in English include the word *head* which is used to refer to the object on top of your body, on top of a glass of beer, person at the top of a company or department, and many other things; *run* (person does, water does, colors do); and *plain* which means 'clear', 'unadorned', 'obvious'.

Polysemy is always contrasted with homonymy (two lexical items which happen to have the same phonological form). Lexicographers and semanticists sometimes have to decide whether different uses of a single word are examples of homonymy or polysemy.

Several criteria have been suggested. According to Kreidler (1998), Yule (2006), and Cruse (2006), one way of differentiating between polysemy and homonymy is consulting a dictionary: a polysemic word is given a single entry, with a numbered list of the different meanings of that word. Homonyms will typically have two separate entries. Thus *head* is one entry and *bank* is entered twice.

Kreidler (1998) rejects basing the distinction between homonymy and polysemy on etymological grounds as some dictionaries do. He points out that in some dictionaries, meanings which have the same etymological origin are considered polysemous, even if modern speakers can feel no relation between them, while meanings which are usually felt to be related are considered homonyms if they have different etymological origins. He believes that separate entries are necessary in some instances when two lexemes have a common origin. For example, the form *pupil* has two different senses, 'part of the eye' and 'school child.' Historically, these have a common origin but at present they are semantically unrelated.

According to Cruse (2006), multiple senses are considered to belong to the same word if they are felt by native speakers to be related in some way. Unrelated senses associated with the same word-form, such as 'side of river' and 'financial institution' associated with *bank*, exemplify homonymy, and are usually treated as separate words that just happen to be associated with the same form. Yet, there is a continuous scale of relatedness. Besides, different speakers vary in their sensitivity to relationships.

Nevertheless, as Kreidler (1998), Cruse (2006), and Crystal (2008) point out, all such criteria involve analytic problems, and the distinction between polysemy and homonymy is not very well defined.

4.2 Polysemy in Arabic

In Arabic, polysemy is dealt with under the title of *al-Wujuh wal-Naẓa'ir* which refers to the phenomenon of using one word to express different but related meanings: the word *al-Wujuh* refers to the meanings expressed, and *al-Naẓa'ir* refers to the words used. (Muqatil, n.d, p. 7) Galadari (2013) asserts that polysemy, which exists when a word has multiple related meanings, is important in Semitic languages, since these languages are based on root-based morphology. This means that words have three- or four-lettered roots. Morphologies of these roots could have various meanings. For example, the word *ktaba* (to write) is from the root "k t b". Different morphologies of this root would hold various meanings. A writer is called "*kātib*," a book is called "*kitāb*," a letter is called "*maktūb*," which literally means something written, dictating is

called “*istaktaba*,” a library is “*maktabah*,” and an office is “*maktab*.” Galadari (2013) points out that the context is sometimes very crucial in understanding what the term specifically refers to. For example, “*kitāb*” which semantically means “book,” could refer, among other things, to a book or sometimes even a contract, especially a marriage contract, and a “*kātib ‘adl*” would refer to a notary public.

Galadari (2013) adds that etymology is also important in this regard. For example, the term “*katībah*”, which refers to 'an army battalion', shares the same root as writing. He adds that there is a strong relationship between both. The root of the term “*k t b*” actually means 'to join together in a group'. It is because of this root meaning, it has taken the definition of writing, because writing is joining letters and words together in a group. Similarly, an army battalion is also a group of people joined together. Hence, sharing the same root between the terms for writing and army battalion makes perfect sense, once its semantics and etymology are identified (p. 40).

Polysemy is one of the stylistic, linguistic and rhetorical features of the Qur'an that imports to it an effective and sublime style. Galadari (2013) asserts: "An author of a literary piece may intentionally use polysemy as part of its rhetoric style. We can assume that the Qur'an might use polysemy as an intentional portrayal of its rhetoric" (p. 41).

4.3 Translating polysemous words in the Glorious Quran

It is asserted (e.g. Mohammed, 2009) that polysemous words are problematic in translation when they appear in decontextualized sentences, since there is no strongly biasing linguistic context that can remove their ambiguity and specify their meanings. The translator then has to resort to the context and co-text to eliminate the ambiguity.

Ali et al. (2012) examine the translations of some polysemic words concluding that translators sometimes fail to grasp polysemic meanings and translate words literally. Therefore, "the translator must be aware and understand the phenomenon of polysemy in the Quran to translate better the intended meaning of the verses to the target audience" (Ali et al., 2010, p. 590)

Likewise, Al-Qinai (2011) points out that Arabic, unlike English, uses extended recurrences of polysemous words adding that when dealing with non-sensitive texts, some translators may not find it urgent to preserve the subtle differences which exist among such recurrences. Yet, when it comes to sensitive and religious texts, translating polysemous words becomes a big challenge to translators. He refers to many instances where some translators of the Qur'an fail to recognize the referential versatility of Qur'anic lexemes and fall in the trap of rendering a polysem as a monosem. Al-Qinai (2011) argues that mistranslation of polysemous word could be the result of insufficient reference to the Qur'anic exegeses, lack of understanding of Arabic morphology, or inability to decode the nuances of polysemous words.

5. The Verb '*ata*' in the Qur'an

Virtually, every word in every language has multiple senses, which come into use depending on the context. This is also true for the verb *ata* which is said to be used with various meanings.

According to Penrice's *A DICTIONARY AND GLOSSARY OF THE KORAN* (1991), *ata* means *come, come to; o bring to; pass, come to pass, come upon; do, or commit*.

It is categorized, as Shalabi (2010) explains, under the heading of the so-called "أفعال" (motion verbs denoting a forward movement of an object with respect to another reference object). Shalabi (2010) explains:

وهذا الفعل يدل على حركة أمامية قد تكون للأعلى أو للأسفل، لأن الآتي يكون عارفاً لمكان ذهابه، فيسير إلى هدفه بنوع من العلم والإدراك، والإتيان يكون دائماً بإرادة الإنسان، لأن هذا الفعل ليس فيه إكراه أو إجبار، وقد ورد في معظم القرآن الكريم مرتبطاً بالرسول؛ والرسول عليهم السلام لم يكونوا مجبرين على أداء الرسالة، بل كانوا – رغم قسوة ظروفهم – فرحين، مسرورين، لأن حركتهم كانت من أجل الدعوة و تبليغ الرسالة، فإذا (p. 8) لم يرتبط بهم، فقد يكون بغير إرادة الإنسان

This verb denotes a motion up or down, because the comer knows the place he is heading to so that he moves to it knowingly. The act of coming is a free act. No one is forced to do it. In the Quran, it concords with Messengers. They were not forced to reveal the message, but they were - despite severe circumstances - happy and pleased because the movement was for calling for and conveying the message. If it is used in relation to people other than messengers, it is not necessarily a free act. (The researcher's translation)

According to Al-Firuzabadi (n.d.), the verb *ata* occurs in the Glorious Qur'an in sixteen senses:

- (1) Temporal proximity as, for example, in *Ata amru Allahi* (The Command of Allah drew near).
- (2) Something afflicting, coming upon, or befalling something else as, for example, in *in atakum AAathabu Allahi* (if Allah's torment com upon you)
- (3) Uprooting and destruction of buildings as, for example, *faata Allahu bunyanahum mina alqawaAAidi* (Allah uprooted their buildings).
- (4) Torment and punishment as, for example, in *faatahumu Allahu min haythu lam yahtasiboo* (Allah come down on them from whence they do not expect)
- (5) Sustaining as, for example, in *ya/teeha rizquha raghadan min kulli makanin* (Its provision comes to it from everywhere)
- (6) Satisfying lust as, for example, in *Innakum lata/toona alrrijala shahwatan min dooni alnnisa-i* (Verily, you practise your lusts on men instead of women).
- (7) Committing wicked evil deeds as, for example, in *wata/toona fee nadeekumu almunkara* (and you practise every kind of evil wicked deed in your meetings).
- (8) Obedience and compliance as, for example, in *illa atee alrrahmani AAabdan* (except that he comes to The All-Merciful as a slave).
- (9) Creation as, for example, in *waya/ti bikhalqin jadeedin* (and he brings (in your place) a new creation)
- (10) Coming as, for example, in *Faatat bihi qawmaha tahmiluhu* (She come to her people carrying him).
- (11) Appearing and coming out as, for example, in *wamubashshiran birasoolin ya/tee min baAAadee ismuhi ahmadu* (and giving glad tidings of an Apostle to come after me, whose name shall be Ahmad)
- (12) Entering as, for example, in *wa/too albuyoota min abwabiha* (So enter houses by the doors thereof).
- (13) Passing by as, for example, in *Walaqad ataw AAala alqaryati allatee omtirat matara alssaw-i* (And indeed they have passed by the town whereon was rained the fatal rain).
- (14) Sending and revealing Scriptures as, for example, in *bal ataynahum bithikrihim* (Nay, We have sent them their admonition).

(15) Coming out of nowhere (i.e. in a very surprising and unexpected way) as, for example, in *ataha amruna laylan aw naharan* (Our Command comes to it by night or daytime).

(16) Coming about as, for example, in *waya/teehi almawtu min kulli makanin* (and death will come to him from everywhere)

Mohammad (2009) cites *ata* as an example of the phenomenon of polysemy in Arabic on the ground that it has at least six different meanings: a. approach, b. grant, c. commit lewdness, d. come, e. bring, and f. practice lusts.

6. Corpus analysis

For the purposes of this paper, the researcher has built a corpus consisting of all the tokens of verb *ata* in the Glorious Qur'an, their translations into English in the selected nine translations of the Glorious Qur'an (Table 1 in Appendix A). In the next few pages, an analysis of the corpus is presented starting with a statistical analysis of the translation equivalents of *ata* manifested in their frequency of occurrence in the nine translations collectively and in each translation separately. Then, a general overview of the syntactic structures that *ata* exhibits in the Qur'anic corpus is presented. Then, the researcher marks out the meanings of the verb *ata* in the Glorious Qur'an depending on her own understanding of the verses after consulting a number of Qur'anic exegeses (e.g. Al-Qurtubiyy, 671 AH; Al-Mahalliyy and Al-Suyoutiyy, 864 AH; and Abu Al- Su'd, 951 AH). This is due to the fact that studies tackling the meanings of the verb *ata* in each of its tokens in the Qur'an are lacking. Besides, the Qur'anic exegeses do not provide a specific meaning of a given verb in each verse. In addition, they might provide different interpretations of the verb in a given verse. Finally, the researcher gives an account of what choices translators have made in rendering *ata* in its variety of syntactic structures and meanings.

Corpus analysis reveals that the verb *ata* has varied translation equivalents. Table 2 in Appendix B shows these translation equivalents in the nine translations and their total frequency and percentage of occurrence arranged in a descending order. Cases in which translators add an alternative translation equivalent within brackets are excluded from these numbers. As shown in Table 2 in Appendix B, *ata* has 102 translation equivalents in the nine translations under scrutiny. Excluded from this number are cases in which the same verb is used with different prepositions (e.g. *come in*, *come unto*, *come up*, etc.). The frequency of these translation equivalents in each individual translation is shown in Table 3 in appendix C. Here, translation equivalents are arranged alphabetically for ease of reference.

A thorough analysis of the syntactic structures that *ata* exhibits and of its meanings shows that syntactically speaking, *ata* is used as follows:

- 1- as an intransitive verb
- 2- as a transitive verb with one object
- 3- *ata* + *ila* + NP
- 4- *ata* + NP (as an indirect object) + *bi* + NP (as a direct object)
- 5- *ata* + *AAala* + NP
- 6- *ata* + *bi* + NP

Semantically speaking, a thorough analysis of the meanings of the verb *ata* in the corpus reveals the following:

Firstly, the verb *ata* in the Qur'anic text has multiple meanings. These meanings include:

- 1- to move hitherward; to draw near; to approach the speaker, or some place or person; to occur, e.g. *ya/teenaka saAAayan* in verse 2:260, or to complete a movement toward a place; to arrive, e.g. *Falamma ataha* in verse 20:11
- 2- To convey to the place where the speaker is or is to be; to bear from a more distant to a nearer place; to fetch; to cause the accession or obtaining of; to make to come; to produce, e.g. *laAAaallee ateeukum minha biqabasin* in verse 20:10
- 3- To have sexual intercourse as, for example, in *fa/toohunna min haythu amarakumu Allahu* in verse 2:222.
- 4- To commit wicked evil deeds (e.g. *man ya/ti minkunna bifahishatin mubayyinatin* in verse 33:30; *wata/toona fee nadeekumu almunkara* in verse 29:29).
- 5- To enter (when it has *albuyoota* (houses) as its object) (e.g. *walaysa albirru bi-an ta/too albuyoota min thuhooriha wa/too albuyoota min abwabiha* in verse 2:189).
- 6- To hear about or come to know (collocating with the word *naba* or its plural form *anba*, or the word *hadeeth* as its subject) as, for example, in *Hal ataka hadeethu moosa* in verse 79:15, and *Alam ya/tikum nabao allatheena kafaroo min qablu* in verse 64:5.
- 7- To afflict or befall as, for example, in *waya/teehee almawtu min kulli makanin* in verse 14:17, and *waatahumu alAAathabu min haythu la yashAAuroona* in verse 16:26.
- 8- To pass by as, for example in *Walaqad ataw AAala alqaryati allatee omtirat matara alssaw-i* in verse 25:40.
- 9- To create as, for example, in *In yasha/ yuthhibkum ayyuha alnnasu waya/ti bi-akhareena* in verse 4:133.
- 10- To supply with or provide as, for example in, *faman ya/teekum bima-in maAAeenin* in verse 67:30.
- 11- To bring forth or make manifest as, for example, in *wa-in kana mithqala habbatin min khardalin atayna biha* in verse 21:47.
- 12- To accept as, for example, in *afata/toona alssihra* (21:3)
- 13- To attack and take by surprise in *waya/tookum min fawrihim hatha* in verse 3:125.
- 14- To restore as, for example, in *ya/ti baseeran* in verse 12:93
- 15- To bear testimony as, for example in *an ya/too bialshshahadati AAala wajhiha* in verse 5:108.
- 16- To undermine and eradicate (when it concords with Allah) as, for example, in *faata Allahu bunyanahum mina alqawaAAidi* in verse 16:26.

Secondly, the verb *ata* in the Glorious Qur'an is not necessarily used to reveal a movement in space by a human being. In the majority of verses involving *ata*, the agent of the action is an inanimate abstract noun, e.g. *hatta atahum nasruna* in verse 6:34.

Thirdly, of the senses listed above, some are more frequent than others. For instance, the senses 1, 2, 3 and 4 can be said to be more frequent than the others.

As far as the translations under scrutiny are considered, the verb *ata* in the Qur'an has varied translation equivalents. The translators' selection of these equivalents is to some extent influenced by the syntactic and semantic behaviors of *ata*. The corpus analysis reveals the following results:

Firstly, the syntactic structures involving *ata* influence the selection of translation equivalents. For example, whether *ata* occurs as a single verb or is accompanied by a given preposition or adverb, and whether it is used as an intransitive verb or a transitive verb with one object or two objects are among the factors that have a bearing on the way it is translated. Table 4 summarizes

the syntactic structures involving *ata* used in the Qur'an, its translation equivalents in the nine translations under scrutiny, and examples involving the numbers of verses in which they occur.

Table 4: The syntactic structures involving *ata* in the Qur'an, and its translation equivalents in the nine translations.

Syntactic structures involving <i>ata</i>	Translation equivalents	Examples
<i>ata</i> as an intransitive verb	<i>advance (again), arrive , assemble, become able to, be fulfilled, (again) be able to, become (again), come (+again, about, back, forth, forward, into existence, to, to pass, unto, up, or upon), face . . . as a united front, form, happen, issue, recover, restore, take effect, take turn, the coming of</i>	2:254, 4:102, 6:158, 6:158, 6:158, 7:53, 11:105, 12:48, 12:49, 13:31, 14:31, , 16:1, 16:33 , 16:111, 20:60, 22:27, 30:4333:20, , 42:47, 61:6, 78:18
<i>ata</i> as a transitive verb with one object	<i>accede to , accept, afflict , aim to, allow, appear before, approach (again), arrive, assail, assault, attain, attack, beat around the bush, be aware of, befall, be guilty of, bestow on, be straightforward, bring (+off, destruction upon, or to), come (+against, at, back to, before, down to, for, in due course, into, in to, in unto, on, to, to face, to pass, unto, upon, up (against), up to, up with, up with to, or way), commit, confront with, demolish, descend on, destroy, discharge, do, enter (+into), enjoy, give (+to), go (+forth to, in to, in unto, into, to, or unto), have commerce, have sex/ intercourse with, hear about, incur, know, know about , learn, light, light on, meet, mobilize for defense, note, observe, overtake, perform, proceed to, practise(+ lust on, or sex with), provide, reach, receive , repeat with, restore to, rush on, see, seize, show (or shew), shine upon, stay on the right path, strike (+at), submit to, succumb to, supply with , surprise, surrender, take (+ to), the coming (+ against of, of, of upon, on, or to), understanding, visit , yield to</i>	2:38, 2:85, 2:118, 2:189, 2:189, 2:210, 2:214, , 2:222, 2:223, 2:248, 2:260, 3:125, 4:15, 4:16, 5:41, 6:4, 6:5, 6:34, 6:40, 6:40, 6:47, 6:71, 6:130, 6:158, 7:17, 7:35, 7:80, 7:81, 7:97, , 7:98, 7:129, 7:163, 7:163, 7:169, 7:187, 9:54, , 9:70, 9:70, 9:92, 10:24, 10:39, 10:50, 11:8, 11:39, 11:93, 2:37, 12:37, 12:107, 12:107 , 13:41, 14:9, 14:17, 14:44, 15:11, 15:64, 15:99, 16:26 , 16:26, 16:33, 16:45, 16:112, 18:55, 18:55, , 18:77, 19:38, 19:43, 19:80, 20:9, 20:11, 20:47, 20:74, 20:75, 20:123, 20:126, 20:133, 21:2, 21:3, 21:40, 21:44, 22:27, 22:55 , 22:55, 23:68, 26:5, 26:6, 26:10, 26:16, 26:89 , 26:165, 26:202, 27:31, 27:38, 27:54, 27:55, 27:87, 28:30, 28:46, 29:28, 29:29, 29:29, 29:53, 32:3, 33:18, 34:3, 34:3, 36:30, 36:46, 37:28, 38:21, 39:25, 39:40, 39:54, 39:55, 39:71, 40:35, 40:56, 41:42, 43:7, 43:66, 47:18, 51:24 , 51:52, 59:2, 63:10, 64:5, 67:8, 71:1, 74:47 , 79:15, 85:17, 88:1
<i>ata</i> + <i>bi</i> + NP	<i>accomplish, be, bear, be accounted for, be guilty of , bring (+about, back, before, forth, in place, in, to, to account, to light, or to pass), cause to . . . , come (+back with, forth with, in with, up, up with, or with), commit, create, create in one's stead, encourage, enter on, fabricate, fall into shame, forth with, give (+ out), have to account for, help, issue, make . . . rise, produce, produce</i>	2:23, 2:106, 2:109, 2:148, 2:258, 2:258, 2:93, 3:161, 4:19, 4:25, 4:133, 5:52 , 5:54, 5:108, 7:106, 9:24, 10:15, 10:38, 11:13, 13:38, 14:19, 16:76, 17:88, 17:88, 17:92, 21:47, 24:4, 24:13, 26:31, 26:154, 28:49, 31:16, 33:30, 35:16, 37:157, 40:78, 44:10, 44:36, 45:25, 52:34, 52:38, 60:1265:1, 68:41

	(in one's stead), put (in . . . place), raise, restore, show (or shew) (+ forth), substitute, substitute in . . . place, summon, utter, vouch (+ for, or unto), work	
ata + NP (as an indirect object) + bi + NP (as a direct object)	be accomplished upon, bring (+ about, again, back, bring back to, on, down, to, unto, upon, or up to), buy for, come (+ against with, to, to with, with to, unto with, up against with, up to with, up with to, up with, with, or up with (back) to), confront with, fetch, give (+back to), go to with, inflict on, lay on, pour upon, present, produce, produce for, provide with, receive, restore(+ for, or to), show, send, summon, supply with	2:25, 2:145, 3:183, 6:35, 6:46, 7:70, 7:77, 7:112, 7:132, 7:203, 8:32, 10:79, 11:32, 11:33, 12:50, 12:54, 12:59, 12:60, 12:66, 12:83, 12:93, 14:10, 14:11, 15:7, 18:19, 19:27, 20:10, 20:58, 20:133, 21:5, 23:71, 23:90, 25:33, 26:37, 27:7 27:7, 27:21, 27:37, 27:38, 27:39, 27:40, 28:29, 28:71, 28:72, 29:29, 40:22, 40:50, 44:19, 46:4, 46:22, 64:6, 67:30
ata + AAala + NP	approach, be, be over, blow on, come(+ by, on, over, past, to, up to, unto, up against, or upon), pass (+by, or over), reach	7:138, 25:40, 27:18, 51:42, 76:1
ata + ila + NP	accept, come (to, unto, or up to)	24:49

Secondly, in a fairly large number of examples it is found that a subject of the verb *ata* in the Arabic text is rendered as an object in the translations. Of course, this is correlated with the translators' selected translation equivalent of the verb *ata*.

Thirdly, in some translations, a single verb is a translation equivalent of a group of words. For example, the single verb *surrender* occurs in the corpus as a translation equivalent of *ya/tookum osara* which consists of the verb *ata* + the object pronoun *kum* + the adverb *osara*. This kind of translation in which "equivalences shift freely up and down the rank scale"; i.e. translating a SL grammatical unit of a certain size by a TL equivalent of a different size is referred to as an "unbounded Translation" (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997, p. 190).

Fourthly, there are varied translation equivalents of *ata* used to express a given meaning as shown in Table 5:

Table 5: The meanings of *ata* in the Qur'an and its translation equivalents in the nine translations.

Meanings of <i>ata</i> in the Qur'an	Translation equivalents	Examples
to move hitherward; to draw near; to approach the speaker, or some place or person; to occur, to complete a	accept, advance (again), aim to, appear before, approach, arrive, assault, assemble, attain, bestow on, be, be over, bring (+ destruction upon, or unto), come (+about, again, against, at, back, before, down to, forth, forward, into, into existence, night, on, to, to face, to pass, to with, unto, unto with, up, up to, up to with, or upon), discharge, enter, face, form a row, fulfill (in the passive form), happen, give (+ to), go (+forth to, to, to with, or unto), light on,	6:40, 7:97, 7:98, 7:187, 12:107, 22:55, 26:202, 29:53, 34:3, 34:3, 43:66, 47:18, 2:38, 2:85, 2:210, 2:214, 2:254, 2:260, 4:102, 5:41, 6:4, 6:34, 6:71, 6:130, 6:158, 7:17, 7:35, 7:53, 9:54, 9:70, 7:129, 7:163, 7:163, 7:169, 9:92, 10:24, 10:39, 11:8, 11:105, 12:48, 12:49, 13:31, 13:41, 14:31, 15:11, 15:99, 16:1, 16:111, 16:33, 16:33, 16:111, 18:55, 18:77, 19:38, 19:43, 19:80, 20:11, 20:47, 20:60, 20:64, 20:69, 20:74,

movement toward a place; to arrive;	<i>meet, mobilize for defense, observe, overtake, pass over, perform, reach, receive, repeat (in the passive form), see, show, surrender, stay on the right path, take effect, take turn, test (in the passive form), understand, visit.</i>	20:75, 20:123, 20:126, 20:133, 21:2, 21:40, 21:44, 22:27, 22:27, 23:68, 24:49, 26:5, 26:10, 26:16, 26:89, 27:31, 27:37, 27:38, 27:87, 28:30, 28:46, 30:43, 32:3, 33:18, 33:20, 36:30, 36:46, 37:28, 39:71, 40:22, 40:50, 40:35, 40:56, 41:11, 41:11, 41:40, 41:42, 42:47, 43:7, 51:52, 59:2, 61:6, 64:6, 67:8, 74:47, 78:18, 98:1
To convey to the place where the speaker is or is to be; to bear from a more distant to a nearer place; to fetch; to cause the accession or obtaining of; to make to come; to produce; to draw	<i>accomplish, accomplish upon (in the passive voice), be, bring (+about, back, before, down, forth, forward for, in place, on, to, to pass, to vouch for, unto, or upon), buy for, cause to, come (+ up, back with, forth with, in with, to, to with, unto, or up with), confront with, enter on, fabricate, fetch, forth with, have to account for, help, give (+ out), issue, make rise, present, produce (+for), provide with, restore (+ to), send, shew/ show, substitute, summon, utter, vouchsafe (unto), work.</i>	2:23, 2:258, 2:106, 2:109, 2:118, 2:145, 2:148, 2:248, 3:93, 3:161, 3:183, 3:188, 5:52, 6:35, 7:70, 7:77, 7:112, 7:132, 7:203, 9:24, 10:15, 10:38, 10:79, 11:32, 11:33, 12:50, 12:54, 12:59, 12:60, 12:66, 12:83, 12:93, 14:10, 14:11, 15:7, 15:64, 16:76, 17:92, 18:15, 18:19, 19:27, 20:10, 20:58, 20:133, 21:5, 21:61, 23:71, 23:90, 24:4, 24:13, 25:33, 26:31, 26:37, 27:7, 26:154, 27:7, 27:21, 27:38, 27:39, 27:40, 28:29, 28:49, 28:71, 28:72, 37:157, 40:78, 44:10, 44:19, 44:36, 45:25, 46:4, 46:22, 52:34, 52:38, 60:12, 68:41, 11:13, 13:38, 17:88, 17:88,
To have sexual intercourse	<i>approach, come (+in to, into, in unto, to, unto, up to, up to (obscenity) to, up to (stout), or up with lust to), do sodomy with, enjoy, go (+in unto, in to, into, or to), have (+ commerce, intercourse, or sex) with, practice (+sex with, or lust on), proceed to.</i>	2:222, 2:223, 7:81, 26:165, 27:55, 29:29
To commit wicked evil deeds	<i>allow, approach, be guilty of, come up with, commit, do, fall into shame, practise, and proceed to.</i>	4:15, 4:16, 4:19, 4:25, 7:80, 27:54, 29:28, 29:29, 33:30, 65:1
To enter	<i>come (+to, or up to), enter (+into), go to, beat around the bush, being straightforward.</i>	2:189
To hear about or come to know	<i>be aware of, come (+to, unto, up to, or up (to your knowledge), hear about, incur, know about, learn, note, reach, receive, shine upon.</i>	6:5, 9:70, 14:9, 20:9, 26:6, 38:21, 51:24, 64:5, 79:15, 85:17, 88:1
To afflict or befall	<i>afflict, assail confront with, bring (+to), come (+against, on, to, unto, upon, or up to), descend on, incur, light on, overtake, reach,</i>	14:17, 63:10

	<i>seize, strike, see, and surprise. (ata + bi used in the imperative form) to express the meaning of to lay torment on someone): bring (+ on, to, or upon), come (+up to with, or up with), inflict on, lay on, pour upon, and send.</i>	6:40, 6:47, 8:32, 10:50, 11:39, 11:93, 12:107, 14:44, 16:26, 16:45, 18:55, 22:55, 29:29, 39:25, 39:40, 39:54, 39:55, 71:1
To pass by	<i>approach, come (+ on, over, past, to, unto, up against, up to, or upon), pass by, reach, and blow on.</i>	27:18, 7:138, 51:42
To create	<i>Bring (+about, forth, in, instead, or in place), cause to arise, create, create in one's stead, come (+ up with, or up (instead) with), produce, produce (in one's stead), put (in . . . place), raise, substitute (+ in . . . place).</i>	4:133, 5:54, 14:19, 35:16
To supply with or provide	<i>befall, come(+ to, or up to), give, provide with, and supply with.</i>	2:25, 12:37, 16:112, 67:30
To bring forth or make manifest	<i>be accounted for, bring, bring forth to be weighed, bring (to account), bring (to light), come up with, produce, shew, and show forth.</i>	7:106, 21:47, 31:16
To accept	<i>accede to, accept, go to, submit to, succumb to, take to, and yield to.</i>	21:3
To attack and take by surprise	<i>attack, come against, comes up (against), and come upon.</i>	3:125
To restore	<i>(again) be able to (+verb), become (+ able to, or again), bring (+ again), come (+to, or up with . . . back), give back, recover, and restore, restore to, and restore for.</i>	6:46, 12:93
To bear testimony	<i>bear, give, and encourage. Be is also found to occur as a translation equivalent of ata bi but with testimony as the subject of the verb be.</i>	5:108
To undermine and eradicate	<i>come upon, strike at, demolish, destroy, bring off, attack, and take from foundation.</i>	16:26

Fifthly, not all equivalents used to render one of the above mentioned meanings of *ata* are synonymous, i.e. they are used in English to express different meanings. This might be interpreted in two ways: (1) the translators interpret or take the meaning expressed by *ata* in a given verse differently, or (2) some of these translation equivalents are inappropriate or are mistranslations. Verifying these possibilities lies outside the scope of this study.

Sixthly, the words collocating with the verb- be it a subject or an object - influence the translator's choices to some extent. For example, the verb *bear* is preferred to the verb *come* in cases where الشهادة *alshshahadat* (testimony) occurs as the object of the verb *ata*. Similarly, the majority of the translators prefer to use the verb *commit* as a translation equivalent of *ata* (*bi*) when it takes الفاحشة *alfahishata* (obscenity) as its object.

Seventhly, an English idiom is used as a translation equivalent of *ata* used metaphorically. For example, *walaysa albirru bi-an ta/too albuyoota min thuhooriha* (Verse 2:189) is translated as 'It is not righteous to beat around the bush' (Khalifa's translation)

7. Findings

The statistical analysis of the translation equivalents of *ata* in the corpus shows the following:

- The verb *ata* is not translated into one single verb. It has varied translation equivalents amounting to 102. Yet, it is sometimes left untranslated.
- These 102 translation equivalents vary in frequency: the most frequent is *come* which occurs 1259 times (52.92%), followed by *bring* which occurs 554 times (23.29 %). Some are of medium frequency (e.g. *go*, *give*, *be*, *approach*, *shew* /*show*, *overtake*, *receive*, *enter*). The majority are of a very low frequency; they occur once or twice in a translation (e.g. *surprise*, *surrender*, *work*).
- The number of equivalents of *ata* vary from one translation to the others. The biggest number of translation equivalents is found in Khalifa's translation: 51 translation equivalents. The smallest number of translation equivalents is found in Ghali's translation where *ata* has just 6 translation equivalents. Shakir and Pickthall's translations have an equal number of translation equivalents (not necessarily the same translation equivalents). These discrepancies can be summarized in Table 6 in which the number of the translation equivalents of *ata* in each translation is arranged in a descending order:

Table 6: Numbers of translation equivalents of *ata* in each of the Nine Translations arranged in a descending order.

Translations	Number of translation equivalents of <i>ata</i>
Khalifa's translation	51
Y. Ali's translation	38
Rodwell's translation	34
Al-Hilali and Khan's translation	29
Shakir's translation	22
Pickthall's translation	22
Palmer's translation	16
Arberry's translation	13
Ghali's translation	6

- Some translation equivalents are found in all or the majority of the nine translations. These are the most frequent translation equivalents, namely *come*, *bring*, *produce*, *reach*, and *commit*.
- *Come* and *bring* happen to be the most frequent translation equivalents compared to other equivalents within each translation.
- Other translation equivalents are never used in some translations. These are represented in the translation equivalents that occur only once or twice in one or two translations.
- There are cases where *ata* is left untranslated: once in Rodwell's, Palmer's, and Shakir's; four times in Y. Ali's, and Al-Hilali and Khan's; and twelve times in Khalifa's translation.
- The verb *ata* exhibits different syntactic structures, and expresses various meanings.
- The translation equivalents of *ata* vary as its syntactic structures and meanings vary.

8. Conclusion

This corpus-based study investigates the English translation equivalents of the verb *ata* which occurs in the Glorious Qur'an frequently. The senses of the verb are traced and distinguished in the source text and its translation equivalents are examined in nine English translations of the Qur'an. Though the researcher cannot determine why the translators have made the choices they have made, she gives an account of these choices and hypothesizes on what factors might have driven them to make them regardless of whether these choices are appropriate or not. This study proves that most of the translators have adopted the policy of contextual consistency i.e. they translate a source language word by that expression in the receptor language which best fits each context rather than by the same expression in all contexts. It is found that in cases where *ata* is used in its 'basic meaning' (motion) the most common translation into English is the basic verb *come*. In the other less prototypical senses of the verb *ata*, however, the translations vary greatly and *come* is seldom used. In general, findings show that when it comes to the peripheral senses (less prototypical senses) of the verb *ata*, translations like *bear*, *enter*, *create*, *attack*, *accept*, *accede to*, *yield*, *succumb*, *produce*, *restore*, *recover*, *practice*, etc. are preferred instead of the basic verb correspondent *come*. It is also proved that the syntactic and semantic behaviors of *ata* influence the variation of translation equivalents. This paper also provides an evidence of how translation corpora may contribute to the exploration of polysemy. It proves that there are significant differences in the translation options chosen by translators. These differences in translation equivalents may serve to highlight differences between the various senses of polysemous items in the original language. Generally speaking, this study shows that translators of the Glorious Qur'an should have some knowledge of polysemy. At times a word has one meaning in a statement, while the same word has a completely different meaning in another statement, which can only be specified by its context.

About the Author:

Sherine Abd El-Gelil Emara is an Egyptian lecturer at Al-Azhar University, Faculty of Humanities, English Language, literature, and simultaneous interpretation. She received her BA, MA, and PhD from Al-Azhar University. She has a 15- year teaching experience in the field of English linguistics and translation. She has three published papers. She is a member of The Association of Arab Translators, and The Arab Society of English Language Studies (Asels).

References

- Abu Al- Su'd, M. M. (951 AH). *irshad alAql alslim ila mzaia alkitab alkrim*. Available at <http://www.altafsir.com/Tafasir.asp?tMadhNo=0&tTafsirNo=28>
- Al-Firuzabadi, M. J. (n.d). *Ba-sa'r thawy atamyeez fee lata'f alkitab al-AAazeez*. Available at <http://www.altafsir.com/MiscellaneousBooks.asp>.
- Al-Hilali, M. T., & Khan, M. M. (1985). *Interpretation of the Meanings of the Noble Qur'an*. Available at http://www.quransearch.com/quran_search.htm/
- Al-Mahalliyy, J., & Al-Suyoutiyy, J. (864 AH). *Tafsir al-Jalalayn*. Available at <http://www.altafsir.com/Tafasir.asp?tMadhNo=0&tTafsirNo=8> .
- Al-Qurtubiyy, M. A. (671 AH). *aljamA laHkam alqrAAn*. Available at <http://www.altafsir.com/Tafasir.asp?tMadhNo=0&tTafsirNo=5>
- Ali, A., et. al. (2012). Some Linguistic Difficulties in Translating the Holy Quran from Arabic into English. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 2, 6. 588-590.

- Ali, Y. (1934). *The Holy Qur'an: Translation and Commentary*. Available at http://www.quransearch.com/quran_search.htm/
- Al-Muntakhab, *The Select*. (1993). Cairo: The Egyptian Supreme Council for Islamic Affairs.
- Al-Qinai, J. (2011). Convergence and Divergence in the Interpretation of Quranic Polysemy and Lexical Recurrence. *Studies about Languages*, 19. 27-38.
- Arberry, A. J. (1957). *The Koran Interpreted*. Available at http://www.quransearch.com/quran_search.htm.
- Baker, M. (1992). *In Other Words: a Coursebook on Translation*. London: Routledge.
- Cruse, A. (2006). *A Glossary of Semantics and Pragmatics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics* (6th ed.). USA, UK, and Australia: Blackwell Publishing Company.
- Dukes, K. (2009-2011). The Quranic Arabic Corpus: Word-by-Word Grammar. Language Research Group, University of Leeds. Available at <http://corpus.quran.com/wordbyword.jsp>.
- Galadari, A. (2013). The Role Of Intertextual Polysemy In Qur'anic Exegesis. *International Journal on Quranic Research (IJQR)*, 3, 4, June 2013, 35-56 © Centre of Quranic Research (CQR), University of Malaya, Malaysia.
- Ghali, M. M. (1996). *Towards Understanding The Ever Glorious Qur'an*. Cairo: Daar-anashr.
- Khalifa, R. (2003). *Quran. The Final Testament*. Available at http://www.quransearch.com/quran_search.htm/
- Kreidler, Ch. W. (1998). *Introducing English Semantics*. New York: Routledge.
- Larson, M. L. (1994). Translation: Grammatical skewing. In R. E. Asher (ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics* (pp. 4709-4716). Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Meyer, Ch. F. (2009). *Introducing English Linguistics*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Mohammed, E. T. (2009). Polysemy as a Lexical Problem in Translation. *Adab Al-Rafidayn*, 55. 1-19.
- Muqatil, S. (n.d). (commentary by Al-Damin, H. S. , 2006). *Al-Wujuh wal-naẓa'ir fee alquran AAatheem*. Jumm'a Al- Majed. Dubai. Available at [http://media.tafsir.net/ar/books//1052/6004.pdf/](http://media.tafsir.net/ar/books//1052/6004.pdf)
- Nida, E. A & Taber, C. R. (1982). *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: E. J. Brill.
- Palmer, E. H. (1880). *The Qur'an*. Available at http://www.quransearch.com/quran_search.htm/
- Penrice, J. (1991). *A Dictionary and Glossary of the Koran*. Delhi: Adam Publishers & Distributors.
- Pickthall, M. M. (1930). *The Meaning of the Glorious Qur'an*. Available at http://www.quransearch.com/quran_search.htm/
- Rodwell, J. M. (1861). *The Koran*. Available at http://www.quransearch.com/quran_search.htm.
- Shakir, M. H. (1983). *The Qur'an*. Available at http://www.quransearch.com/quran_search.htm/
- Shalabi, E. A (2010). *The Actions of Transitional Movement of the Human Being in the Holy Quran: A Semantic and Syntactic Study*. MA: Nablus – Palestine. University Faculty of Graduate Studies. Available at https://scholar.najah.edu/sites/default/files/all-thesis/the_actions_transitional.pdf.

Shuttleworth, M, & Cowie, M. (1997). *Dictionary of Translation Studies*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Yule, G. (2006). *Introduction to Linguistics* (3rd ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Appendices

Appendix A

Table 1: Tokens of the verb *ata* in the Qur'an and their English translations

N Surah: Verse	Arabic text	The translations								
		Rodwell	Palmer	Pickthall	Y. Ali	Arberry	Shakir	Al-Hilali and Khan	Ghali	Khalifa
2:23	fa/too bisooratin min mithlihi	then produce a Sura like it	then bring a chapter like it	then produce a surah of the like thereof	then produce a Sura like thereunto	then bring a sura like it	then produce a chapter like it	then produce a Soorah (chapter) of the like thereof	then come up with a surah of like (manner)	then produce one sura like these
2:25	waotoo bihi mutashabi han	And they shall have its like given to them	and they shall be provided with the like	and it is given to them in resembla nce	for they are given things in similitud e	that they shall be given in perfect semblanc e	and they shall be given the like of it	and they will be given things in resemblanc e (i.e. in the same form but different in taste)	And they are brought (them) in (perfect) resemblance	Thus, they are given allegorical descriptions
2:38	fa-imma ya/tianna kum minnee hudan	and if Guidance shall come to you from me	and haply there may come from me a guidance,	but verily there cometh unto you from Me a guidance	and if, as is sure, there comes to you Guidance from me,	yet there shall come to you guidance from Me	so surely there will come to you a guidance from Me,	then whenever there comes to you Guidance from Me,	then, if ever there should definitely (...) come up to you guidance from Me,	When guidance comes to you from Me,
2:85	wa-in ya/tookum osara	but if they come captives to you	But if they come to you as captives	and if they came to you as captives	and if they come to you as captives	and if they come to you as captives	and if they should come to you, as captives	And if they come to you as captives	and in case they come up to you captured,	Even when they surrendered
2:106	na/ti bikhayrin minha	we bring a better	we will bring a better one than it,	but we bring (in place) one better	but We substitute somethin g better	We bring a better or the like of it;	We bring one better than it	We bring a better one	(except that) We come up with (i.e., bring) a more charitable one.	we produce a better miracle,
2:109	hatta ya/tiya Allahu bi- amrihi	till God shall come in with His working	till God brings His command	until Allah give command	Till God accompli sh His purpose	till God brings His command ;	so that Allah should bring about His command	till Allah brings His Command.	Till Allah comes up (i.e., brings) with His Command	until GOD issues His judgment
2:118	aw ta/teena ayatun	or thou shew us a sign . . . !	or there comes a sign	or some sign come unto us	or why cometh not unto us a Sign	Why does a sign not come to us	or a sign come to us	or why does not a sign come to us?	or a sign had come up to us	or some miracle could come to us!
2:145	Wala-in atayta allatheena ootoo alkitaba bikulli ayatin	Even though thou shouldest bring every kind of sign to those who have received	And if thou shouldest bring to those who have been given the	And even if thou broughtes t unto those who have received the	Even if thou wert to bring to the people of the Book all the Signs	Yet if thou shouldest bring to those that have been given the	And even if you bring to those who have been given the Book every sign	And even if you were to bring to the people of the Scripture (Jews and Christians)	And indeed in case you come up with every sign to the ones to whom the Book was brought	Even if you show the followers of the scripture every kind of miracle,

		the Scriptures,	Book every sign,	Scripture all kinds of portents,	(together) ,	Book every sign,		all the Ayat (proofs, evidences, verses, lessons, signs, revelations, etc.)		
2:148	ya/ti bikumu Allahu jameeAAa n	God will one day bring you all together	God will bring you all together;	Allah will bring you all together	God will bring you Together	God will bring you all together;	Allah will bring you all together;	Allah will bring you together	Allah will come up with you (i.e., bring you) altogether	GOD will summon you all.
2:189	walaysa albirru bi-an ta/too albuyoota min thuhooriha	There is no piety in entering your houses at the back,	And it is not righteousness that ye should enter into your houses from behind them,	It is not righteousness that ye go to houses by the backs thereof (as do the idolaters at certain seasons),	It is no virtue if ye enter your houses from the back	It is not piety to come to the houses from the backs of them;	and it is not righteousness that you should enter the houses at their backs,	It is not Al-Birr (piety, righteousness, etc.) that you enter the houses from the back	And benignancy is not to come up to the homes from their backs;	It is not righteous to beat around the bush;
2:189	wa/too albuyoota min abwabiha	Enter your houses then by their doors	so enter into your houses by the doors thereof	So go to houses by the gates thereof,	Enter houses through the proper doors	so come to the houses by their doors	and go into the houses by their doors	So enter houses through their proper doors	and come up to the homes by their doors,	and by being straightforward.
2:210	an ya/tiyahu mu Allahu	that God should come down to them	that God should come unto them	that Allah should come unto them	until God comes to them	that God shall come to them	that Allah should come to them	that Allah should come to them	that Allah will come up to them	until GOD Himself comes to them
2:214	walamma ya/tikum mathalu allatheena khalaw min qablikum	when no such things have come upon you, as on those who flourish before you	while there had nothing come to you like those who passed away before you;	while yet there hath not come unto you the like of (that which came to) those who passed away before you	without such (trials) as came to those who passed away before you	without there had come upon you the like of those who passed away before you	while yet the state of those who have passed away before you has not come upon you	without such (trials) as came to those who passed away before you	while as yet there had not come up to you the like of (the ones) who passed away even before you?	without being tested like those before you
2:222	fa/toohunn a min haythu amarakum u Allahu i	go in unto them as God hath ordained for you	come in to them by where God has ordered you	then go in unto them as Allah hath enjoined upon you.	ye may approach them in any manner, time, or place ordained for you by God	then come unto them as God has commanded you.	go in to them as Allah has commanded you	then go in unto them as Allah has ordained for you (go in unto them in any manner as long as it is in their vagina).	then come up to them (i.e., to have sexual intercourse) from where Allah has commanded you.	you may have intercourse with them in the manner designed by GOD.
2:223	fa/too harthakum anna shi/tum	go in, therefore, to your field as ye will	so come into your tillage how you choose	so go to your tilth as ye will	so approach your tilth when or how ye	so come unto your tillage as you wish	so go into your tilth when you like	so go to your tilth (have sexual relations	so come up to your tillage however you decide,	Thus, you may enjoy this privilege however you like, so long as

					will			with your wives in any manner as long as it is in the vagina and not in the anus), when or how you will,		you maintain righteousness
2:248	an ya/tiyaku mu alttabootu	that the Ark shall come to you	that there shall come to you the ark	that there shall come unto you the ark	that there shall come to you the Ark of the covenant	that the Ark will come to you	that there shall come to you the chest	that there shall come to you At-Taboot (a wooden box)	that the coffer (. . .) will come up to you	that the Ark of the Covenant will be restored to you
2:254	min qabli an ya/tiya yawmun la bayAAun feehi	before the day cometh when there shall be no trafficking	before the day comes in which is no barter	ere a day come when there will be no traffickin g, nor	before the Day comes when no bargainin g (Will avail	before there comes a day wherein shall be neither traffick,	before the day comes in which there is no bargaining,	before a Day comes when there will be no bargaining,	before there comes up a Day on which (there) will be no selling, nor (close) fellowship, nor intercession	before a day comes where there is no trade
2:258	fa-inna Allaha ya/tee bialshsha msi mina almashriqi	Since God bringeth the sun from the East,	But verily, God brings the sun from the east,	Lo! Allah causeth the sun to rise in the East,	But it is God that causeth the sun to rise from the east:	God brings the sun from the east;	So surely Allah causes the sun to rise from the east,	Verily! Allah causes the sun to rise from the east;	Yet surely Allah comes up with (i.e., brings) the sun from the East	GOD brings the sun from the east,
2:258	fa/ti biha mina almaghribi	do thou, then, bring it from the West	do thou then bring it from the west?"	so do thou cause it to come up from the West	Do thou then cause him to rise from the West	so bring thou it from the west	then make it rise from the west	then cause it you to rise from the west	so come up with (i.e., bring) it from the West	can you bring it from the west?"
2:260	ya/teenaka saAAayan	and they shall come swiftly to thee	and they will come to thee in haste	they will come to thee in haste	They will come to thee (Flying) with speed.	and they will come to thee running	they will come to you flying	they will come to you in haste.	they will come up to you with hasty diligence	They will come to you in a hurry
3:93	fa/too bialtawrat i	Bring ye then the law	Bring the law	Produce the Torah	Bring ye the Law	Bring you the Torah now	Bring then the Taurat	Bring here the Taurat (Torah)	So come up with Tawrah	Bring the Torah
3:125	waya/took um min fawrihim hatha	and the foe come upon you in hot haste	and they come upon you on a sudden, now	and (the enemy) attack you suddenly	even if the enemy should rush here on you in hot haste	and the foe come against you instantly	and they come upon you in a headlong manner	and the enemy comes rushing at you	and (the enemy) comes up (against) you instantly	then they attack you suddenly
3:161	ya/ti bima ghalla	shall come forth with his defraudings on the day of the resurrection	shall bring what he has cheated on the resurrecti on day	will bring what he embezzled with him on the Day of Resurrect ion	He shall, on the Day of Judgment , restore what he misappropriated	shall bring the fruits of his fraud on the Day of Resurrect ion	shall bring that in respect of which he has acted unfaithfully on the day of resurrection	he shall bring forth on the Day of Resurrectio n that which he took (illegally)	will come up with whatever he exploited on the Day of the Resurrection	will have to account for it on the Day of Resurrection
3:183	hatta ya/tiyana	until he present us a	until he gives us a	until he bring us	unless He showed	until he brings to	until he brings us an	unless he brings to us	until he comes up to	unless he produces an

	biqurbanin	sacrifice	sacrifice	an offering	us a sacrifice	us a sacrifice	offering	an offering	us with an all-sanctified sacrifice	offering
3:188	bima ataw	what they have brought to pass	what they have produced	what they have given	what they have brought about	what they have brought	what they have done	what they have done (or brought about)	what they have come up with	their works
4:15	aallatee ya/teena alfahishata min nisa-ikum	If any of your women be guilty of whoredom, then bring four	Against those of your women who commit adultery	As for those of your women who are guilty of lewdness	If any of your women are guilty of lewdness	Such of your women as commit indecency	And as for those who are guilty of an indecency from among your women	And those of your women who commit illegal sexual intercourse	And (as for) the ones of your women who come up with the obscenity,	Those who commit adultery among your women
4:16	Waallatha ni ya/tiyanih a minkum	And if two men among you commit the same crime	And if two of you commit it	And as for the two of you who are guilty thereof	If two men among you are guilty of lewdness	And when two of you commit indecency	And as for the two who are guilty of indecency from among you	And the two persons (man and woman) among you who commit illegal sexual intercourse	And (as for) the two of you who come up with (an obscenity)	The couple who commits adultery
4:19	illa an ya/teena bifahishatin mubayyinatin	unless they have been guilty of undoubted lewdness	unless they commit fornication manifestly	unless they be guilty of flagrant lewdness.	except where they have been guilty of open lewdness	except when they commit a flagrant indecency	unless they are guilty of manifest indecency	unless they commit open illegal sexual intercourse	except when they come up with a (demonstrably) evident obscenity	unless they commit a proven adultery
4:25	fa-in atayna bifahishatin	If . . . they commit adultery	if they commit fornication,	If . . . they commit lewdness	if they fall into shame,	if they commit indecency,	then if they are guilty of indecency,	if they commit illegal sexual intercourse,	(then) in case they come up with an obscenity,	if they commit adultery
4:102	walta/ti tafatun okhra lam yusalloo	then let another party that hath not prayed come forward	and let another party who have not yet prayed come forward	and let another party come that hath not worshipped	And let the other party come up which hath not yet prayed	and let another party who have not prayed come	and let another party who have not prayed come forward	and let the other party come up which has not yet prayed	and let another section who have not prayed come up	Then, let the other group that has not prayed take their turn
4:133	waya/ti bi-akhareena	and create others in your stead	and can bring others	produce others (in your stead)	and create another race	and bring others	and bring others	and bring others	and come up with others	and substitute others in your place
5:41	lam ya/tooka	others - but who come not to thee.	other people, but who come not to thee.	other folk who come not unto thee,	others who have never so much as come to thee.	other folk, who have not come to thee,	another people who have not come to you;	others who have not come to you	(who) have not come up to you	people who never met you,
5:52	faAAasa Allahu an ya/tiya bialfathi	But haply God will of himself bring about some victory	It may be God will give the victory	And it may happen that Allah will vouchsafe (unto thee) the victory	Ah! perhaps God will give (thee) victory	But it may be that God will bring the victory	but it may be that Allah will bring the victory	Perhaps Allah may bring a victory	Yet it may be that Allah will come up with the conquest	May GOD bring victory
5:54	fasawfa ya/tee Allahu	God will then raise up a people	God will bring (instead)	Allah will bring a people	soon will God produce a	God will assuredly bring a	then Allah will bring a people, He	Allah will bring a people	then Allah will eventually	then GOD will substitute in your place

	biqawmin yuhibbuhum wayuhibbunahum	loved by Him, and loving Him,	a people whom He loves and who love Him	whom He loveth and who love Him	people whom He will love as they will love Him.	people He loves, and who love Him, humble towards the believers	shall love them and they shall love Him	whom He will love and they will love Him	come up with a people He loves and who love Him	people whom He loves and who love Him
5:108	Thalika adna an ya/too bialshshah adati AAala wajhiha	Thus will it be easier for men to bear a true witness	thus is it easier for men to bear testimony according to the purport thereof	Thus it is more likely that they will bear true witness	That is most suitable: that they may give the evidence in its true nature and shape	So it is likelier that they will bear testimony in proper form	This is more proper in order that they should give testimony truly	That should make it closer (to the fact) that their testimony would be in its true nature and shape (and thus accepted)	So, it is likelier that they will bear testimony in proper form	This is more apt to encourage an honest testimony on their part
6:4	Wama ta/teehim min ayatin min ayati rabbihim	Never did one single sign from among the signs of their Lord come to them	There came not to them any sign of the signs of their Lord	Never came there unto them a revelation of the revelations of Allah	But never did a single one of the signs of their Lord reach them.	Not a sign of their Lord comes to them	And there does not come to them any communication of the communications of their Lord	And never an Ayah (sign) comes to them from the Ayat (proofs, evidences, verses, lessons, signs, revelations, etc.) of their Lord	And in no way is there even a sign of the signs of their Lord that comes up to them	No matter what kind of proof comes to them from their Lord
6:5	fasawfa ya/teehim anbao ma kanoo bihi yastahzi-oonah	But in the end, a message as to that which they have mocked, shall reach them	but there shall come to them the message of that at which they mocked.	But there will come unto them the tidings of that which they used to deride.	but soon shall they learn the reality of what they used to mock at.	but there shall come to them news of that they were mocking	therefore the truth of what they mocked at will shine upon them.	but there will come to them the news of that (the torment) which they used to mock at.	Then the tidings of whatever they used to mock will eventually come up to them.	they have incurred the consequences of their heedlessness.
6:34	hatta atahum nasruna	till our help came to them	until our help came to them	till Our succour reached them	until Our aid did reach them	until Our help came unto them	until Our help came to them	till Our Help reached them	until Our victory came up to them	until our victory came to them
6:35	fata/tyahum bi-ayatin	that thou mightest bring them a sign	to bring them a sign	that thou mayst bring unto them a portent (to convince them all)!	and bring them a sign,-	to bring them some sign	so that you should bring them a sign	so that you should bring them a sign	then you would come up to them with a sign.	and produced a miracle for them
6:40	in atakum AAathabu Allahi aw atakumu alssaAAatu	If the punishment of God were to come upon you, or "the Hour" were to come upon you	if there should come God's torment, or there should come to you the	if the punishment of Allah come upon you or the Hour come	if there come upon you the wrath of God, or the Hour (that ye dread)	If God's chastisement comes upon you, or the Hour comes upon you	if the chastisement of Allah should overtake you or the hour should come upon you	if Allah's Torment comes upon you, or the Hour comes upon you	in case the torment of Allah comes up to you or the Hour comes up to you	if GOD's retribution came to you, or the Hour came to you

			hour	upon you						
6:46	man ilahun ghayru Allahi ya/teekum bihi	what god beside God would restore them to you?	who is god but God to bring you it again?	Who is the God Who could restore it to you save Allah?	who - a god other than God - could restore them to you?	who is a god other than God to give it back to you?	who is the god besides Allah that can bring it to you?	who is there - an ilah (a god) other than Allah who could restore them to you?	who is a god other than Allah to come up with them (back) to you?" (i.e., bring them "back" to you)	which god, other than GOD, can restore these for you?
6:47	in atakum AAathabu Allahi baghtatan aw jahratana	If the punishment of God come on you suddenly or foreseen	if God's torment should come upon you suddenly or openly	if the punishment of Allah come upon you unawares or openly	if the punishment of God comes to you, whether suddenly or openly	If God's chastisement comes upon you, suddenly or openly	if the chastisement of Allah should overtake you suddenly or openly	if the punishment of Allah comes to you suddenly (during the night), or openly (during the day)	In case the torment of Allah comes up to you suddenly or openly	if GOD's retribution came to you suddenly, or after an announcement
6:71	i/tina	Come to us	Come to us	Come unto us	come to us	Come to us	Come to us	Come to us	Come up to us	Stay with us on the right path
6:130	alam ya/tikum rusulun minkum	came not apostles to you from among yourselves	did there not come to you apostles from among yourselves	Came there not unto you messengers of your own	came there not unto you apostles from amongst you	did not Messengers come to you from among you	did there not come to you apostles from among you	Did not there come to you Messengers from amongst you	did Messengers not come up to you from among you	did you not receive messengers from among you
6:158	an ta/tyahumu almal-ikatu aw ya/tya rabbuka	the coming of the angels to them or the coming of thy Lord Himself	that the angels should come for them, or that thy Lord should come	that the angels should come unto them, or thy Lord should come	if the angels come to them, or thy Lord (Himself) come to them	the angels to come to them, nothing less, or that thy Lord should come	that the angels should come to them, or that your Lord should come	that the angels should come to them, or that your Lord should come	that the Angels should come up to them or that your Lord should come up	the angels to come to them, or your Lord
6:158	aw ya/tya baAAadu ayati rabbika	or that some of the signs of the Lord should come to pass	or that some signs of thy Lord should come	or there should come one of the portents from thy Lord	or certain of the signs of thy Lord!	or that one of thy Lord's signs should come	or that some of the signs of your Lord should come	or that some of the Signs of your Lord should come	or that some of the signs of your Lord should come up	or some physical manifestations of your Lord
6:158	yawma ya/tee baAAadu ayati rabbika	On the day when some of thy Lord's signs shall come to pass	On the day when some signs do come	In the day when one of the portents from thy Lord cometh	the day that certain of the signs of thy Lord do come,	On the day that one of thy Lord's signs comes	On the day when some of the signs of your Lord shall come	The day that some of the Signs of your Lord do come,	On the Day some of the signs of your Lord come up,	The day this happens
7:17	Thumma laatiyanna hum min bayni aydeehim	Then will I surely come upon them from before	then will I surely come to them, from before them	Then I shall come upon them from before them	Then will I assault them from before them	then I shall come on them from before them	Then I will certainly come to them from before them	Then I will come to them from before them	Thereafter indeed I will definitely come up to them from before them	I will come to them from before them
7:35	imma ya/tyanna kum	there shall come to you	verily, there will come to	When messengers of your	whenever there come to	If there should come to	if there come to you	If there come to you Messengers	In case ever there should definitely	when messengers come to you

	rusulun minkum	Apostles from among yourselves	you apostles from amongst you	own come unto you	you apostles from amongst you	you Messeng ers from among you	apostles from among you	from amongst you	come up to you Messengers from among you	from among you
7:53	yawma ya/tee ta/weeluh u	When its interpretati on shall come	on the day when its interpreta tion shall come	On the day when the fulfillme nt thereof cometh	On the day the event is finally fulfilled	The day its interpreta tion comes, about	On the day when its final sequel comes about	On the Day the event is finally fulfilled(i.e. the Day of Resurrectio n),	The Day its interpretation comes up	The day such fulfillment comes to pass,
7:70	fa/tina bima taAAidun a	Then bring that upon us with which thou threatenest us	then bring us what thou dost threaten us with,	Then bring upon us that wherewit h thou threatene st us	bring us what thou threatene st us with,	Then bring us that thou promisest us	Then bring to us what you threaten us with	So bring us that wherewith you have threatened us	Then come up to us with what you promise us	We challenge you to bring the doom you threaten us with
7:77	i/tina bima taAAidun a	let thy menaces be accomplish ed upon us	bring us what thou didst threaten us with	Bring upon us that thou threatene st	bring about thy threats,	bring us that thou promisest us	bring us what you threatened us with	Bring about your threats	come up to us with what you promise us	bring the doom you threaten us with
7:80	ata/toona alfahishata	commit ye this filthy deed	Do ye approach an abominat ion	Will ye commit abominat ion	Do ye commit lewdness	What, do you commit such indecenc y	What! do you commit an indecency	Do you commit the worst sin	Do you commit (Literally: come up with the obscenity)	You commit such an abomination;
7:81	Innakum lata/toona alrrijala shahwatan min dooni alnnisa-i	Come ye to men, instead of women, lustfully	verily, ye approach men with lust rather than women	Lo! ye come with lust unto men instead of women	For ye practise your lusts on men in preferenc e to women	See, you approach men lustfully instead of women	Most surely you come to males in lust besides females	Verily, you practise your lusts on men instead of women	Surely you indeed come up with lust to men, apart from (i.e. instead of) women	You practice sex with the men, instead of the women
7:97	an ya/tyyahu m ba/suna bayatan	that our wrath would not light on them by night	that our violence would not come on them by night	the coming of Our wrath upon them as a night-raid	the coming of Our wrath by night	Our might shall not come upon them at night	Our punishment coming to them by night	the coming of Our Punishment by night	that Our violence will not come up to them (in their homes) at night	that our retribution will not come to them in the night
7:98	an ya/tyyahu m ba/suna duhan	that our wrath would not light on them in broad day	that our violence would not come on them in the morning	the coming of Our wrath upon them in the daytime	its coming in broad daylight	Our might shall not come upon them in daylight	Our punishment coming to them in the morning	the coming of Our Punishment in the forenoon	that Our violence will not come up to them in the forenoon	that our retribution will not come to them in the daytime
7:106	fa/ti biha	shew it	then bring it	then produce it	show it forth	produce it,	then bring it	show it forth	so come up with it	then produce it
7:112	Ya/tooka bikulli sahirin AAaleemi n	And bring to thee every skilled enchanter	and bring you every knowing magician	To bring each knowing wizard unto thee.	And bring up to thee all (our) sorcerers well- versed.	to bring thee every cunning sorcerer.'	That they may bring to you every enchanter possessed of knowledge.	That they bring up to you all well-versed sorcerers."	(And) they will come up to you with every knowledgeabl e sorcerer	Let them summon every experienced magician.

7:129	an ta/tiyana	thou camest to us	thou didst come to us	thou camest unto us	thou camest to us	thou camest to us	you have come to us	you have come to us	you came up to us	you came to us
7:132	mahma ta/tina bihi min ayatin	Whatever sign thou bring us	Whatever thou dost bring us as a sign'	Whatever portent thou bringest	Whatever be the Signs thou bringest,	Whatsoe ver sign thou bringest to us	Whatever sign you may bring to us	Whatever Ayat (proofs, evidences, verses, lessons, signs, revelations, etc.) you may bring to us,	No matter what sign you come up with to us	No matter what kind of sign you show us
7:138	faataw AAala qawmin	and they came to a people	and they came unto a people	and they came unto a people	They came upon a people	and they came upon a people	then they came upon a people	and they came upon a people	Then they came upon a people	When they passed by people
7:163	ith ta/teehim	when their fish came to them	when their fish came to them	how their big fish came unto them	their fish did come to them	when their fish came to them	when their fish came to them	when their fish came to them	as their whales came to them on the	the fish came to them
7:163	la ta/teehim	but came not to them	they came not to them	came they not unto them	they came not	they came not unto them	they did not come to them	and did not come to them	they did not come up to them	the fish did not come
7:169	wa-in ya/tihim AAaradun mithlulu	Yet if the like good things came to them again	But if the like goods came to them	And if there came to them (again) the offer of the like	(Even so), if similar vanities came their way	and if chance goods the like of them come to them	And if the like good came to them	And if (again) the offer of the like (evil pleasures of this world) came their way	And in case an advantage, the like of it, comes up to them	But then they continued to opt for the materials of this world
7:187	la ta/teekum illa baghtatan	not otherwise than on a sudden will it come on you	it will not come to you save on a sudden	It cometh not to you save unawares .	Only, all of a sudden will it come to you	it will not come on you but suddenly!	it will not come on you but of a sudden.	It shall not come upon you except all of a sudden	It will not come up to you except suddenly	It will not come to you except suddenly
7:203	Wa-itha lam ta/tihim bi-ayatin	And when thou bringest not a verse (sign) of the Koran to them	Shouldst Thou not bring them a sign	And when thou bringest not a verse for them	If thou bring them not a revelatio n,	And when thou bringest them not a sign,	And when you bring them not a revelation	And if you do not bring them a miracle	And when you do not come up to them with a sign,	If you do not produce a miracle that they demand,
8:32	awi i/tina biAAatha bin aleemin	or lay on us some grievous chastiseme nt	or bring us grievous woe	or bring on us some painful doom	or send us a grievous penalty	or bring us a painful chastisem ent	or inflict on us a painful punishment	or bring on us a painful torment	or come up to us with a painful torment.	or pour upon us a painful punishment
9:24	hatta ya/tiya Allahu bi- amrihi	until God shall Himself enter on His work	until God brings His bidding	till Allah bringeth His command to pass	until God brings about His decision	till God brings His command	till Allah brings about His command	until Allah brings about His Decision (torment).	till Allah comes up with His Command	until GOD brings His judgment
9:54	wala ya/toona alssalata illa wahum kusala	and discharge not the duty of prayer but with sluggishnes s,	and perform not prayer save lazily,	and they come not to worship save as idlers,	that they come to prayer without earnestne ss;	and perform not the prayer save lazily,	and they do not come to prayer but while they are sluggish,	and that they came not to As- Salat (the prayer) except in a lazy state;	and they do not come up to prayer except lazily	and when they observed the Contact Prayers (Salat), they observed them lazily,
9:70	Alam	Hath not	Did there	Hath not	Hath not	Has there	Has not the	Has not the	Has there not	Have they not

	ya/tihim nabao allatheena min qablihim	the history reached them of those who were before them? -	not come to them the declaratio n of those who were before them?	the fame of those before them reached them -	the story reached them of those before them?-	not come to you the tidings of those who were before you	news of those before them come to them;	story reached them of those before them?	come up to them the tiding of the ones who were even before them	learned anything from the previous generations; the people of Noah,
9:70	atat-hum rusuluhum bialbayyin ati	Their apostles came to them with clear proofs of their mission:	Their apostles came to them with manifest signs;	Their messenge rs (from Allah) came unto them with proofs (of Allah's Sovereig nty).	To them came their apostles with clear signs.	Their Messeng ers came to them with the clear signs	their apostles came to them with clear arguments;	to them came their Messengers with clear proofs.	Their Messengers came up to them with the clear evidences	Their messengers went to them with clear proofs.
9:92	itha ma atawka litahmilah um	when they came to thee that thou shouldst mount them,	when they came to thee that thou shouldst mount them,	when they came to thee (asking) that thou shouldst mount them,	those who came to thee to be provided with mounts,	when they came to thee, for thee to mount them,	when they came to you that you might carry them,	those who came to you to be provided with mounts,	when they came up to you for you to transport them,	those who come to you wishing to be included with you,
10:15	i/ti biqu-r-anin ghayri hatha	Bring a different Koran from this	Bring a Qur'an other than this	Bring a Lecture other than this	Bring us a reading other than this	Bring a Koran other than this	Bring a Quran other than this	Bring us a Quran other than this	Come up with a Qur'an other than this	Bring a Quran other than this,
10:24	ataha amruna laylan aw naharan	Our behest cometh to it by night or by day,.	Our order comes to it by night or day,	Our command ment cometh by night or by day	There reaches it Our command by night or by day,	Our command comes upon it by night or day,	Our command comes to it, by night or by day,	Our Command reaches it by night or by day	Our Command comes up to it by night or daytime,	our judgment comes by night or by day,
10:38	fa/too bisooratin mithlihi	Then bring a Sura like it	Bring a surah like it	Then bring a surah like unto it	Bring then a Sura like unto it	Then produce a sura like it,	Then bring a chapter like this	Bring then a Soorah (chapter) like unto it	Then come up with a s rah like it	Then produce one sura like these
10:39	walamma ya/tihim ta/weeluh u	though the explanation of it had not yet been given them.	while its interpreta tion has not yet come to them;	and whereof the interpreta tion (in events) hath not yet come unto them.	even before the elucidatio n thereof hath reached them:	and whose interpreta tion has not yet come to them.	and the final sequel of it has not yet come to them;	and whereof the interpreta tion has not yet come unto them.	and whose interpretation as yet has not come up to them	and before understanding it.
10:50	in atakum AAathabu hu	if God's punishment came on you	when the torment comes to you	When His doom cometh unto you	if His punishme nt should come to you	If His chastisem ent comes upon you	if His punishment overtakes you	if His torment should come to you	in case His torment comes up to you	Whether His retribution comes to you
10:79	i/toonee bikulli sahirin AAaleemi n	Fetch me every skilled magician	Bring me every knowing sorcerer	Bring every cunning wizard unto me	Bring me every sorcerer well versed	Bring me every cunning sorcerer	Bring to me every skillful magician	Bring to me every well-versed sorcerer	Come up to me with every knowledgeable sorcerer	Bring to me every experienced magician

11:8	ala yawma ya/teehim	What! will it not come upon them	Aye! on the day it comes to them	Verily on the day when it cometh unto them	Ah! On the day it (actually) reaches them	Surely, the day it shall come to them	Now surely on the day when it will come to them	Verily, on the day it reaches them	Verily, the day it will come up to them	In fact, once it comes to them
11:13	fa/too biAAashri suwarin mithlihi muftarayat in	Then bring ten Suras like it of your devising	Bring ten surahs like it devised	Then bring ten surahs, the like thereof, invented	Bring ye then ten suras forged, like unto it,	Then bring you ten suras the like of it, forged	Then bring ten forged chapters like it	Bring you then ten forged Soorah (chapters) like unto it	Then come up with ten Surahs the like of it, fabricated;	Then produce ten suras like these, fabricated
11:32	fa/tina bima taAAidun a	Bring then upon us what thou hast threatened	bring us then what thou hast threatene d us with,	now bring upon us that wherewit h thou threatene st us	now bring upon us what thou threatene st us with,	Then bring us that thou promisest us	therefore bring to us what you threaten us with,	now bring upon us what you threaten us with	Then come up to us with what you promise us	We challenge you to bring the doom you threaten us with
11:33	innama ya/teekum bihi Allahu	God will bring it on you	God will only bring it on	Only Allah will bring it upon you	Truly, God will bring it on you	God will bring you it	Allah only will bring it to you	Only Allah will bring it (the punishment) on you	Surely only Allah will be coming up to you with it	GOD is the One who brings it to you
11:39	man ya/teehi AAathabu n yukhzeehi	On whom a punishment shall come that shall shame him	He to whom a torment comes, it shall shame him,	to whom a punishme nt that will confound him cometh,	who it is on whom will descend a penalty that will cover them with shame	to whom will come a chastisem ent degradin g him,	who it is on whom will come a chastiseme nt which will disgrace him	who it is on whom will come a torment that will cover him with disgrace	to whom will come up a torment to disgrace him,	You will surely find out who will suffer a shameful retribution
11:93	man ya/teehi AAathabu n yukhzeehi	On whom shall light a punishment that shall disgrace him	To whomsoe ver torment comes it shall disgrace him	on whom there cometh a doom that will abase him	who it is on whom descends the penalty of ignominy	to whom will come the chastisem ent degradin g him	who it is on whom will light the punishment that will disgrace him	who it is on whom descends the torment that will cover him with ignominy	to whom will come up the torment that will disgrace him,	which of us will incur shameful retribution
11:105	Yawma ya/ti	When that day shall come	The day when it shall come,	On the day when it cometh	The day it arrives	the day it comes	On the day when it shall come	On the Day when it comes	The Day it comes up	The day it comes to pass
12:37	la ya/teekum a taAAamu n turzaqanihi	There shall not come to you in a dream any food wherewith ye shall be fed,	There shall not come to you any food with which ye are provided,	The food which ye are given (daily) shall not come unto you	Before any food comes (in due course) to feed either of you,	No food shall come to you for your sustenance, e,	There shall not come to you the food with which you are fed	No food will come to you (in wakefulness or in dream) as your provision,	No food will come up to you (both) to be provided with	If any food is provided to you,
12:37	qabla an ya/tiyaku ma	----	----	ere it cometh unto you	ere it befall you	ere it comes to you	before it comes to you	----	before it comes up to you	----
12:48	Thumma ya/tee min baAAadi thalika sabAAun shidadun	Then after that shall come seven grievous years	Then there shall come after that seven severe (years)	Then after that will come seven hard years	Then will come after that (period) seven dreadful (years),	Then thereafter there shall come upon you seven hard	Then there shall come after that seven years of hardship	Then will come after that, seven hard (years),	Thereafter; even after that, (there) will come up seven strict (years),	After that, seven years of drought will come

						years				
12:49	Thumma ya/tee min baAAadi thalika AAamun feehee yughathu alnnasu	Then shall come after this a year, in which men shall have rain,	Then there will come after that a year in which men shall have rain	Then, after that, will come a year when the people will have plenteous crops	Then will come after that (period) a year in which the people will have abundant water,	Then thereafter there shall come a year wherein the people will be succoured	Then there will come after that a year in which people shall have rain	Then thereafter will come a year in which people will have abundant rain	Thereafter, even after that, (there) will come up a season wherein all people will be succored	After that, a year will come that brings relief for the people
12:50	i/toonee bihi	Bring him to me	Bring him to me	Bring him unto me	Bring ye him unto me	Bring him to me!	Bring him to me	Bring him to me	Come up with him (i.e., Bring him) to me!	Bring him to me
12:54	i/toonee bihi	Bring him to me	Bring him to me	Bring him unto me	Bring him unto me	Bring him to me	Bring him to me	Bring him to me	Come up with him (i.e., Bring him) to me	Bring him to me
12:59	i/toonee bi-akhin lakum min abeekum	Bring me your brother from your father	Bring me a brother that ye have from your father	Bring unto me a brother of yours from your father	Bring unto me a brother ye have, of the same father as yourselves	Bring me a certain brother of yours from your father	Bring to me a brother of yours from your father	Bring me a brother of yours from your father	Come up with (i.e., Bring him) a brother of yours from your father	Next time, bring with you your half-brother
12:60	Fa-in lam ta/toonee bihi	But if ye bring him not to me	But if ye bring him not to me	And if ye bring him not unto me	Now if ye bring him not to me	But if you bring him not to me	But if you do not bring him to me	But if you bring him not to me	Yet in case you do not come up with him, (i.e., Bring him)	If you fail to bring him to me
12:66	lata/tunna nee bihi	that ye will, indeed, bring him back to me	that ye will surely bring him to me	that ye will bring him back to me	that ye will be sure to bring him back to me	that you will surely bring him back to me	that you will most certainly bring him back to me,	that you will bring him back to me	indeed you will definitely bring him (back) to me	that you will bring him back
12:83	AAasa Allahu an ya/tiyanee bihim jameeAAan	God, may be, will bring them back to me together	It may be that God will give me them all together	It may be that Allah will bring them all unto me	Maybe God will bring them (back) all to me (in the end)	Haply God will bring them all to me	maybe Allah will bring them all together to me	May be Allah will bring them (back) all to me.	It may be that Allah would (make) them altogether come up to me	May GOD bring them all back to me
12:93	ya/ti baseeran	and he shall recover his sight	he will become able to see	he will become (again) a seer	he will come to see (clearly)	and he shall recover his sight	he will (again) be able to see	he will become clear-sighted	and he will recover his sight, (Or: breath)	his vision will be restored.
12:93	wa/toonee bi-ahlikum ajmaAAeena	and bring me all your family	and bring, me your families all together	and come to me with all your folk	Then come ye (here) to me together with all your family	then bring me your family all together	and come to me with all your families	and bring to me all your family	and come up with your family all together.”	Bring your whole family and come back to me
12:107	an ta/tiyahum ghashiyatun min AAathabi Allahi	that the overwhelming chastisement of God shall not come upon them	overwhelming vengeance coming on them from the torment of God	the coming on them of a pall of Allah's punishment	Do they then feel secure from the coming against them of the	that there shall come upon them no enveloping of the chastisement	that there may come to them an extensive chastisement from Allah	the coming against them of the covering veil of the Torment of Allah	that there will not come up to them an Enveloper of the torment of Allah	that an overwhelming retribution from GOD will not strike them

					covering veil of the wrath of God	ent of God				
12:107	aw ta/tiyahum u alssaAAat u baghtatan	or that that Hour shall not come upon them suddenly	or from the Hour coming upon them suddenly	or the coming of the Hour suddenly	or of the coming against them of the (final) Hour all of a sudden	or that the Hour shall not come upon them suddenly	or (that) the hour may come to them suddenly	or of the coming against them of the (Final) Hour, all of a sudden	or that the Hour will not come to them suddenly	or the Hour will not come to them suddenly
13:31	hatta ya/tiya waAAadu Allahi	until the threat of God come to pass	until God's promise comes	until the threat of Allah come to pass	until the promise of God come to pass	until God's promise comes	until the promise of Allah comes about	until the Promise of Allah comes to pass	until the promise of Allah comes up to them	until GOD's promise is fulfilled
13:38	wama kana lirasoolin an ya/tiya bi-ayatin illa bi- ithni Allahi	Yet no apostle had come with miracles unless by the leave of God.	and no apostle could bring a sign save by God's permission;-	and it was not (given) to any messenger that he should bring a portent save by Allah's leave.	and it was never the part of an apostle to bring a sign except as God permitted (or commanded).	and it was not for any Messengers to bring a sign, but by God's leave	and it is not in (the power of) an apostle to bring a sign except by Allah's permission;	And it was not for a Messenger to bring a sign except by Allah's Leave	and in no way was it for a Messenger to come up with a sign except by the permission of Allah	No messenger can produce a miracle without GOD's authorization
13:41	anna na/tee al- arda nanqusuha min atrafuha	that we come into their land and cut short its borders	that we come to the land and diminish the borders thereof	how we aim to the land, reducing it of its outlying parts	that We gradually reduce the land (in their control) from its outlying borders	how We come to the land diminishing it in its extremities	that We are bringing destruction upon the land by curtailing it of its sides	that We gradually reduce the land (of disbelievers , by giving it to the believers, in war victories) from its outlying borders	that We come up to the earth diminishing it in its extremities	that every day on earth, brings them closer to the end
14:9	Alam ya/tikum nabao allatheena min qablikum	Hath not the story reached you of those who were before you	Has not the story come to you of those who were before you,	Hath not the history of those before you reached you	Has not the story reached you, (O people!), of those who (went) before you?	Has there not come to you the tidings of those who were before you	Has not the account reached you of those before you,	Has not the news reached you, of those before you,	Has there not come up to you the tidings of the ones who were even before you	Have you not heard about those before you -
14:10	fa/toona bisultanin mubeenin	Bring us therefore some clear proof	Bring us, then, obvious authority	Then bring some clear warrant	then bring us some clear authority	then bring us a manifest authority	bring us therefore some clear authority	Then bring us a clear authority i.e. a clear proof of what you say)	then come up to us with an evident all- binding authority	Show us some profound authority
14:11	wama kana lana an na/tiyaku m bisultanin illa bi-	and it is not in our power to bring you any special proof, But by the leave	and it is not for us to bring you an authority, save by His	It is not ours to bring you a warrant unless by the permission	It is not for us to bring you an authority except as God	It is not for us to bring you an authority save by the leave	and it is not for us that we should bring you an authority except by Allah's	It is not ours to bring you an authority (proof) except by the	And in no way could we come up to you with an all- binding authority	We could not possibly show you any kind of authorization, except in accordance with GOD's will

	ithni Allahi	of God.	permissio n	n of Allah	permits	of God	permission	Permission of Allah. And in Allah	except by the permission of Allah	
14:17	waya/teehee al-mawtu min kulli makanin:	and Death shall assail him on every side	and death shall come upon him from every place	and death cometh unto him from every side	death will come to him from every quarter, yet will he not die	and death comes upon him from every side	and death will come to him from every quarter	and death will come to him from every side	and death comes up to him from every place	as death comes to him from every direction.
14:19	in yasha/ yuthhibku m waya/ti bikhalqin jadeedin	Were such his pleasure He could make you pass away, and cause a new creation to arise	If He please He can take you off and bring a new creation	If He will, He can remove you and bring (in) some new creation	If He so will, He can remove you and put (in your place) a new creation	If He will, He can put you away and bring a new creation	If He please He will take you off and bring a new creation	If He will, He can remove you and bring (in your place) a new creation!	In case He (so) decides, He can put you away and come up with a new creation	If He wills, He can remove you, and substitute a new creation in your place
14:31	min qabli an ya/tiya yawmun la bayAAun feehee wala khilalun	ere the day come when there shall be neither traffic nor friendship	before there comes the day when there shall be no buying and no friendship.	before a day cometh wherein there will be neither traffick nor befriending.	before the coming of a Day in which there will be neither mutual bargaining nor befriending.	before a day comes wherein shall be neither bargaining nor befriending.	before the coming of the day in which there shall be no bartering nor mutual befriending.	before the coming of a Day on which there will be neither mutual bargaining nor befriending.	before a Day comes up wherein (there) will be neither selling nor fellowship	before a day comes where there is neither trade, nor nepotism.
14:44	yawma ya/teehim u alAAathabu	the day when the punishment shall overtake them	the day when the torment shall come!	a day when the doom will come upon them	the Day when the Wrath will reach them	the day when the chastisement comes on them	the day when the chastisement shall come to them	the Day when the torment will come unto them;	And warn mankind of the Day when the torment will come up to them	the day when the retribution comes to them
15:7	Law ma ta/teena bialmala-ikati	Wouldst thou not have come to us with the angels	Why dost thou not bring us the angels	Why bringest thou not angels unto us	Why bringest thou not angels to us	Why dost thou not bring the angels unto us	Why do you not bring to us the angels	Why do you not bring angels to us	Would you ever come up with the Angels to us	Why do you not bring down the angels
15:11	Wama ya/teehim min rasoolin illa kanoo bihi yastahzi-oon	But never came Apostles to them whom they did not deride.	But there never came an apostle to them but they mocked at him.	And never came there unto them a messenger but they did mock him.	But never came an apostle to them but they mocked him.	And not a single Messenger came to them, but they mocked at him	And there never came an apostle to them but they mocked him.	And never came a Messenger to them but they did mock him.	And in no way did a Messenger come up to them except that they used to mock at him	Every time a messenger went to them, they ridiculed him.
15:64	Waatayna ka bialhaqqi	We have come to thee with very truth	And we have brought thee the truth	And bring thee the Truth	We have brought to thee that which is inevitably due	We have come to thee with the truth	And we have come to you with the truth	And we have brought to you the truth	And we have come up to you with the truth	We bring to you the truth
15:99	hatta ya/tiyaka alyaqeenu	till the certainty o'ertake thee	until the certainty shall come to	till the Inevitable cometh unto thee	until there come unto thee	until the Certain comes to thee	until there comes to you that which is	until there comes unto you the certainty	until the Certitude comes up to you	in order to attain certainty

			thee		the Hour that is Certain		certain	(i.e. death)		
16:1	Ata amru Allahi	THE doom of God cometh to pass.	God's bidding will come	The commandment of Allah will come to pass	(Inevitable) cometh (to pass) the Command of God:	God's command comes;	Allah's commandment has come	The Event (the Hour or the punishment of disbelievers and polytheists or the Islamic laws or commandments), ordained by Allah will come to pass,	The Command of Allah has come up;	GOD's command has already been issued (and everything has already been written),
16:26	faata Allahu bunyanahum mina alqawaAAidi	But God attacked their building at its foundation	but God brought their building off its foundations	so Allah struck at the foundations of their building	but God took their structures from their foundations	then God came upon their building from the foundations	but Allah demolished their building from the foundations	but Allah struck at the foundation of their building	Then Allah came upon their structure from the foundations	and consequently, GOD destroyed their building at the foundation,
16:26	waatahumu alAAathabu min haythu la yashAAur oona	and, whence they looked not for it, punishment overtook them:	and the torment came to them, from whence they could not perceive.	and the doom came on them whence they knew not;	and the Wrath seized them from directions they did not perceive.	and the chastisement came upon them from whence they were not aware.	and the punishment came to them from whence they did not perceive.	and the torment overtook them from directions they did not perceive.	then Allah came upon their structure from the foundations,	The retribution struck them when they least expected.
16:33	an ta/tiyahumu almal-ikatu	that the angels of death come upon them	that the angels should come to take them off	that the angels should come unto them	until the angels come to them	that the angels shall come to them	that the angels should come to them	that the angels should come to them (to take away their souls (at death)),	that the Angels should come up to them	the angels to come to them
16:33	aw ya/tiyamru rabbika	or that a sentence of thy Lord take effect	or that thy Lord's bidding should come	or thy Lord's command should come to pass	or there comes the Command of thy Lord (for their doom)	or thy Lord's command shall come	or that the commandment of your Lord should come to pass	or there should come the command (i.e. the torment or the Day of Resurrection) of your Lord	or your Lord's Command should come up	or until your Lord's judgment comes to pass
16:45	aw ya/tiyahumu alAAathabu min haythu la yashAAur oona	or that a chastisement will not come upon them whence they looked not for it	or bring them torment from whence they cannot perceive	or that the doom will not come on them whence they know not	or that the Wrath will not seize them from directions they little perceive	or that the chastisement will not come upon them, from whence they are not aware	or that the punishment may not overtake them from whence they do not perceive	or that the torment will not seize them from directions they perceive not	Or that the torment will not come up to them from where they are not aware?	or that the retribution will not come to them when they least expect it

16:76	aynama yuwajjihh u la ya/ti bikhayrin	send him where he will, he cometh not back with success.	wherever he directs him he comes not with success;	whitherso ever he directeth him to go, he bringeth no good.	whicheve r way be directs him, he brings no good:	wherever he dispatche s him, he brings no good.	wherever he sends him, he brings no good;	whichever way he directs him, he brings no good.	wherever he directs him, he comes up with no charitable (acts).	whichever way he directs him, he cannot produce anything good.
16:111	Yawma ta/tee kullu nafsin tujadilu AAan nafsiha	On a certain day shall every soul come to plead for itself,	On the day every soul will come to wrangle for itself,	On the Day when every soul will come pleading for itself,	One Day every soul will come up strugglin g for itself,	The day that every soul shall come disputing in its own behalf;	(Remember) the day when every soul shall come, pleading for itself	(Remember) the Day when every person will come up pleading for himself,	The Day that every self will come up disputing for itself	The day will come when every soul will serve as its own advocate,
16:112	ya/teeha rizquha raghadan min kulli makanin	to which its supplies come in plenty from every side	its provision came to it in plenty from every place,	its provision coming to it in abundanc e from every side	abundantl y supplied with sustenanc e from every place	its provision coming to it easefully from every place	to which its means of subsistence come in abundance from every quarter	its provision coming to it in abundance from every place	its provision coming up to it opulently from every place	with provisions coming to it from everywhere
17:88	la-ini ijtamaAA ati al-insu waaljinnu AAala an ya/too bimithli hatha alqur-ani	Verily, were men and Djinn assembled to produce the like of this Koran,	If mankind and ginns united together to bring the like of this Qur'an,	Verily, though mankind and the jinn should assemble to produce the like of this Qur'an,	If the whole of mankind and Jinns were to gather together to produce the like of this Quran,	If men and jinn banded together to produce the like of this Koran,	If men and jinn should combine together to bring the like of this Quran,	If the mankind and the jinns were together to produce the like of this Quran,	Indeed in case humankind and the jinn gathered together to come up with the like of this Qur'an,	If all the humans and all the jinns banded together in order to produce a Quran like this
17:88	la ya/toona bimithlihi	they could not produce its like,	they could not bring the like, though	they could not produce the like thereof	they could not produce the like thereof,	they would never produce its like,	they could not bring the like of it,	they could not produce the like thereof,	they would not come up with its like,	they could never produce anything like it,
17:92	aw ta/tiya biAllahi waalmala- ikati qabeelan	or thou bring God and the angels to vouch for thee	or thou bring us God and the angels before us	or bring Allah and the angels as a warrant	or thou bring God and the angels before (us) face to face	or thou bringest God and the angels as a surety,	or bring Allah and the angels face to face (with us)	or you bring Allah and the angels before (us) face to face	or you come up with Allah, and the Angels and their (dependent) tribes	Or unless you bring GOD and the angels before our eyes
18:15	lawla ya/toona AAalayhi m bisultanin bayyinin	though they bring no clear proof for them	Though they do not bring any manifest authority for them	though they bring no clear warrant (vouchsaf ed) to them	why do they not bring forward an authority clear (and convinc ing) for what they do	Ah, if only they would bring some clear authority regarding them	why do they not produce any clear authority in their support	Why do they not bring for them a clear authority	Had they come up with a most evident all-binding authority concerning their belief in them	If only they could provide any proof to support their stand
18:19	falya/tiku m birizqin minhu	and from him let him bring you a supply	and let him bring you provision thereof	and bring you a supply thereof.	and bring some to you	and bring you provision thereof	so let him bring you provision from it	and bring some of that to you	so let him come up to you with a provision thereof	and buy some for us
18:55	illa an ta/tiyahum sunnatu	unless they wait till that the doom of	except the coming	unless (it be that they	but that (they ask that) the	but that the wont of the	except that what happened	except that the ways of the ancients	the enactment (for) the earliest	except that they demanded to see the same

	al-awwaleen a	the ancients overtake them,	on them of the course of those of yore	wish) that the judgment of the men of old should come upon them	ways of the ancients be repeated with them,	ancients should come upon them	to the ancients should overtake them,	be repeated with them (i.e. their destruction decreed by Allah),	(people) should come up to them	(kind of miracles) as the previous generations,
18:55	aw ya/tyahu mu alAAathab u qubulan	or the chastisement come upon them in the sight of the universe	or the coming of the torment before their eyes	or (that) they should be confronted with the Doom	or the Wrath be brought to them face to face	or that the chastisement should come upon them face to face	or that the chastisement should come face to face with them	or the torment be brought to them face to face	or that the torment should come up to them face to face.	or challenged to see the retribution beforehand
18:77	hatta itha ataya ahla qaryatin	till they came to the people of a city.	until when they came to the people of a city;	till, when they came unto the folk of a certain township,	until, when they came to the inhabitants of a town,	until, when they reached the people of a city,	until when they came to the people of a town,	till, when they came to the people of a town,	until, when they came up to the population of a city	When they reached a certain community,
19:27	Faatat bihi qawmaha	Then came she with the babe to her people,	Then she brought it to her people, c	Then she brought him to her own folk,	At length she brought the (babe) to her people,	Then she brought the child to her folk	And she came to her people with him	Then she brought him (the baby) to her people,	Then she came up with him to her people carrying him.	She came to her family,
19:38	yawma ya/toonan a	the day when they shall come before us	on the day when they shall come to us	the Day they come unto Us	the Day that they will appear before Us	the day they come to Us	the day when they come to Us	the Day when they will appear before Us	the Day they come up to Us	when they come to face us
19:43	qad jaanee mina alAAailmi ma lam ya/tika	verily now hath knowledge come to me which hath not come to thee.	verily, to me has come knowledge which has not come to thee; t	Lo! there hath come unto me of knowledge that which came not unto thee.	to me hath come knowledge which hath not reached thee:	there has come to me knowledge such as came not to thee;	truly the knowledge has come to me which has not come to you,	Verily! There has come to me of knowledge that which came not unto you.	surely there has already come to me (something) of knowledge that did not come up to you;	I have received certain knowledge that you did not receive.
19:80	waya/teen a fardan	and he shall come before us all alone.	and he shall come to us alone.	and he will come unto Us, alone	and he shall appear before Us bare and alone.	and he shall come to Us alone.	and he shall come to Us alone.	and he shall come to Us alone.	and he will come up to Us a single (person).	and he comes back to us all alone.
20:9	Wahal ataka hadeethu moosa	Hath the history of Moses reached thee?	Has the story of Moses come to thee?	Hath there come unto thee the story of Moses ?	Has the story of Moses reached thee?	Hast thou received the story of Moses?	And has the story of Musa come to you?	And has there come to you the story of Moosa (Moses)?	And has there come up to you the discourse of Mûsa (Moses).	Have you noted the history of Moses?
20:10	laAAaallee ateeukum minha biqabas	Haply I may bring you a brand from it,	Haply I may bring you there from a	Peradventure I may bring you a brand	perhaps I can bring you some burning brand	Perhaps I shall bring you a brand from it,	haply I may bring to you therefrom a live coal	perhaps I can bring you some burning brand	possibly I will come up to you with a (flaming) brand from it,	Maybe I can bring you some of it

			brand	therefrom	therefrom			therefrom,		
20:11	Falama ataha	And when he came to it,	And when he came to it	And when he reached it,	But when he came to the fire,	When he came to it,	So when he came to it,	And when he came to it (the fire),	Then, as soon as he came up to it,	When he came to it,
20:47	Fa/tyiahu	Go ye then to him	So come ye to him	So go ye unto him	So go ye both to him	So go ye both to Pharaoh	So go ye both to him	So go ye both to him	So come ye up (both) to him	Go to him
20:58	Falana/tiy annaka bisihin mithlihi	Therefore will we assuredly confront thee with like enchantments:	Then we will bring you magic like it;	But we surely can produce for thee magic the like thereof;	But we can surely produce magic to match thine!	by thy sorcery? We shall assuredly bring thee sorcery the like of it;	So we too will produce before you magic like it,	Then verily, we can produce magic the like thereof;	Then, indeed we will definitely come up to you with sorcery the like of it	We will surely show you similar magic
20:60	thumma ata	and came	and then he came	then came (to the appointed tryst)	and then came (back).	Thereafter he came again	then came	and then came back	thereafter (he) came up	then came
20:64	thumma i/too saffan	then come in order	and then form a row	and come in battle line.	and then assemble in (serried) ranks	then come in battle-line.	then come standing in ranks	and then assemble in line.	(and) thereafter come up in ranks; (i.e., in battle, ranks)	and face them as a united front
20:69	wala yuflihu alssahiru haythu ata	and come where he may, ill shall an enchanter fare."	and no magician shall prosper wherever he comes.'	and a wizard shall not be successful to whatever point (of skill) he may attain.	and the magician thrives not, (no matter) where he goes."	and the sorcerer prospers not; wherever he goes.'	and the magician shall not be successful wheresoever he may come from.	and the magician will never be successful, no matter whatever amount (of skill) he may attain."	and the sorcerer will not prosper where he comes.	The magician's work will not succeed
20:74	Innahu man ya/ti rabbahu mujriman	As for him who shall come before his Lord laden with crime	Verily, he who comes to his Lord a sinner	Lo! whoso cometh guilty unto his Lord,	Verily he who comes to his Lord as a sinner (at Judgment)	Whosoever comes unto his Lord a sinner,	Whoever comes to his Lord (being) guilty,	Verily! Whoever comes to his Lord as a Mujrim	Surely whoever comes up to his Lord a criminal	Anyone who comes to his Lord guilty
20:75	Waman ya/tihi mu/minan	But he who shall come before Him, a believer	But he who comes to Him a believer	But whoso cometh unto Him a believer	But such as come to Him as Believers	And whoso comes unto Him a believer	And whoever comes to Him a believer	But whoever comes to Him (Allah) as a believer (in the Oneness of Allah, etc.),	And whoever comes up to Him a believer,	As for those who come to Him as believers
20:123	fa-imma ya/tiyanna kum minnee hudan	Hereafter shall guidance come unto you from me	And if there should come to you, from me a guidance	But when there come unto you from Me a guidance	but if, as is sure, there comes to you Guidance from Me	but if there comes to you from Me guidance	So there will surely come to you guidance from Me	Then if there comes to you guidance from Me	yet, in case ever there definitely comes to you from Me guidance	When guidance comes to you from Me
20:126	kathalika atatka ayatuna	Thus is it, because our signs came	Our signs came to thee,	So (it must be). Our	Thus didst Thou,	Even so it is. Our signs	Even so, Our communica	Like this, Our Ayat (proofs,	Thus it is. Our signs came up to	Because you forgot our revelations

		unto thee		revelations came unto thee	when Our Signs came unto thee	came unto thee,	tions came to you	evidences, verses, lessons, signs, revelations, etc.) came unto you	you	when they came to you,
20:133	lawla ya/teena bi-ayatin min rabbihi	If he come not to us with a sign from his Lord . . .!	Unless he bring us a sign from his Lord	If only he would bring us a miracle from his Lord!	Why does he not bring us a sign from his Lord?	Why does he not bring us a sign from his Lord?	Why does he not bring to us a sign from his Lord?	Why does he not bring us a sign (proof) from his Lord?	if only he had come up to us with a sign from his Lord!	If he could only show us a miracle from his Lord!
20:133	awa lam ta/tihim bayyinatun ma fee alssuhufi al-oola	But have not clear proofs for the Koran come to them, in what is in the Books of old?	What! has there not come to them the manifest sign of what was in the pages of yore	Hath there not come unto them the proof of what is in the former scriptures	Has not a Clear Sign come to them of all that was in the former Books of revelation	Has there not come to them the clear sign of what is in the former scrolls	Has not there come to them a clear evidence of what is in the previous books	Has there not come to them the proof of that which is (written) in the former papers .	And has there not come up to them the supreme evidence of what is in the earliest scrolls	Did they not receive sufficient miracles with the previous messages
21:2	ma ya/teehim min thikrin min rabbihi muhaddathin	Every fresh warning that cometh to them from their Lord	No reminder comes to them from their Lord of late	Never cometh there unto them a new reminder from their Lord	Never comes (aught) to them of a renewed Message from their Lord	no Remembrance from their Lord comes to them lately renewed	There comes not to them a new reminder from their Lord	Comes not unto them an admonition (a chapter of the Quran) from their Lord as a recent revelation	In no way does any Remembrance from their Lord come up to them a recent discourse	When a proof comes to them from their Lord, that is new
21:3	afata/toona alssihra waantum tubsiroona	What! will ye, with your eyes open, accede to sorcery	will ye accede to magic, while ye can see	Will ye then succumb to magic when ye see (it)	Will ye go to witchcraft with your eyes open	What, will you take to sorcery with your eyes open	what! will you then yield to enchantment while you see	Will you submit to magic while you see it	Will you then take to sorcery while you are beholding	Would you accept the magic that is presented to you
21:5	falya/tina bi-ayatin	let him come to us with a sign	but let him bring us a sign	Let him bring us a portent	Let him then bring us a Sign	Now therefore let him bring us a sign, even	so let him bring to us a sign	Let him then bring us an Ayah (sign as a proof)	Then let him come up to us with a sign	Let him show us a miracle
21:40	Bal ta/teehim	But it shall come on them	Nay, it shall come on them	Nay, but it will come upon them	Nay, it may come to them	Nay, but it shall come upon them	Nay, it shall come on them	Nay, it (the Fire or the Day of Resurrection) will come upon them	it will come up to them	Indeed, it will come to them
21:44	anna na/tee al-arda nanqusuha min atafiha	that we come to a land and straiten its borders	that we come to the land and shorten its borders?	how we aim to the land, reducing it of its outlying parts?	that We gradually reduce the land (in their control) from its outlying borders?	how We come to the land, diminishing it in its extremities?	that We are visiting the land, curtailing it of its sides?	that We gradually reduce the land (in their control) from its outlying borders?	that We come up to the earth, diminishing it in its extremes?	that every day on earth brings them closer to the end?
21:47	wa-in kana	though, were a	even though it	Though it be of the	and if there be	even if it be the	and though there be the	And if there be the	and even in case it be the	Even the equivalent of a

	mithqala habbatin min khardalin atayna biha	work but the weight of a grain of mustard seed, we would bring it forth to be weighed	be the weight of a grain of mustard seed, we will bring it;	weight of a grain of mustard seed, We bring it.	(no more than) the weight of a mustard seed, We will bring it (to account)	weight of one grain of mustard- seed We shall produce it,	weight of a grain of mustard seed, (yet) will We bring it,	weight of a mustard seed, We will bring it.	weight of one grain of mustard-seed, We will come up with it.	mustard seed will be accounted for.
21:61	fa/too bihi AAala aAAayuni alnnasi	Then bring him before the people's eyes	'Then bring him before the eyes of men	Then bring him (hither) before the people's eyes	Then bring him before the eyes of the people	Bring him before the people's eyes	Then bring him before the eyes of the people	Then bring him before the eyes of the people	Then come up with him (i.e., bring him) before the eyes of the multitude,	Bring him before the eyes of all the people
22:27	ya/tooka rijalan waAAala kulli damirin	Let them come to thee on foot and on every fleet camel,	let them come to you on foot and on every slim camel,	They will come unto thee on foot and on every lean camel;	they will come to thee on foot and (mounted) on every kind of camel,	and they shall come unto thee on foot and upon every lean beast,	they will come to you on foot and on every lean camel,	They will come to you on foot and on every lean camel,	they shall come up (hurriedly) to you on foot and upon every slender (conveyance) ; they shall definitely come up from every deep ravine	They will come to you walking or riding on various exhausted (means of transportation).
22:27	ya/teena	arriving	come to you	they will come	they will come to thee	they shall come	coming	they will come	they shall definitely come up	They will come
22:55	hatta ta/tiyahum u alssaAAat u	until "the Hour" come suddenly upon them	until the Hour comes on them suddenly	until the Hour come upon them unawares	until the Hour (of Judgment) comes suddenly upon them	until the Hour comes on them suddenly	until the hour overtakes them suddenly	until the Hour comes suddenly upon them,	until the Hour comes	until the Hour comes to them suddenly
22:55	aw ya/tiyahu m AAathabu yawmin AAaqeemi n	or until the chastiseme nt of the day of desolation come upon them.	or there comes on them the torment of the barren day.	or there come unto them the doom of a disastrou s day.	or there comes to them the Penalty of a Day of Disaster.	or there shall come upon them the chastisem ent of a barren day	or there comes on them the chastiseme nt of a destructive day.	or there comes to them the torment of the Day after which there will be no night (i.e. the Day of Resurrectio n).	or there comes up to them the torment of a sterile Day	or until the retribution of a terrible day comes to them
23:68	am jaahum ma lam ya/ti abaahumu al- awwaleen a	whether that hath come to them which came not to their fathers of old?	whether that has come to them which came not to their fathers of yore?	or hath that come unto them which came not unto their fathers of old ?	or has anything (new) come to them that did not come to their fathers of old?	or came there upon them that which came not upon their fathers, the ancients?	or is it that there has come to them that which did not come to their fathers of old?	or has there come to them what had not come to their fathers of old?	or did there come to them that which did not come up to their earliest fathers?	Do they not realize that they have received something never attained by their ancestors?
23:71	bal ataynahum bithikrihi m	But we have brought them their warning;	Nay, we brought them their reminder,	Nay, We have brought them their Reminder ,	Nay, We have sent them their admoniti on,	Nay, We brought them their Remembr ance,	Nay! We have brought to them their reminder,	Nay, We have brought them their reminder,	No indeed, We have come up to them with (i.e., brought) their Remembranc e	We have given them their proof,

23:90	Bal ataynahum bialhaqqi	Yea, we have brought them the truth;	Nay, we have brought them the truth,	Nay, but We have brought them the Truth,	We have sent them the Truth:	Nay, but We brought them the truth	Nay! We have brought to them the truth,	Nay, but We have brought them the truth (Islamic Monotheism),	No indeed, (but) We have come up to them with (i.e., because) the Truth,	We have given them the truth,
24:4	thumma lam ya/too bi-arbaAAati shuhadaa	and bring not four witnesses	and then do not bring four witnesses	but bring not four witnesses	and produce not four witnesses	and then bring not four witnesses	then do not bring four witnesses	and produce not four witnesses	(and) thereafter they do not come up with four witnesses	then fail to produce four witnesses
24:13	fa-ith lam ya/too bialshshuhada-i	If they cannot produce the witnesses,	but since they did not bring the witnesses ,	Since they produce not witnesses ,	When they have not brought the witnesses ,	But since they did not bring the witnesses ,	But as they have not brought witnesses	Since they (the slanderers) have not produced witnesses!	yet as they did not come up with the witnesses	If they fail to produce the witnesses,
24:49	Wa-in yakun lahumu alhaqu ya/too ilayhi muthAAineena	But had the truth been on their side, they would have come to Him, obedient.	But had the right been on their side they would have come to him submissively enough.	But if right had been with them they would have come unto him willingly.	But if the right is on their side, they come to him with all submission.	but if they are in the right, they will come to him submissively.	And if the truth be on their side, they come to him quickly, obedient.	But if the right is with them, they come to him willingly with submission.	And in case they truly (have a case), (Literally: they are in the right) they will come up to it compliant	However, if the judgment is in their favor, they readily accept it!
25:33	Wala ya/toonak a bimathalin	Nor shall they come to thee with puzzling questions	Nor shall they come to thee with a parable	And they bring thee no similitude	And no question do they bring to thee	They bring not to thee any similitude	And they shall not bring to you any argument	And no example or similitude do they bring (to oppose or to find fault in you or in this Quran	And they do not come up to you with any similitude	Whatever argument they come up with
25:40	Walaqad ataw AAala alqaryati	Oft are this have the unbelieving Meccans passed by the city	Why, they have come past the cities	And indeed they have passed by the township	And the (Unbelievers) must indeed have passed by the town	Surely they have come by the city	And certainly they have (often) passed by the town	And indeed they have passed by the town	And indeed they already came up to the town	They have passed by the community
26:5	Wama ya/teehim min thikrin mina alrrahmani muhdathin	But from each fresh warning that cometh to them from the God of Mercy	But there comes not to them any recent Reminder from the Merciful One	Never cometh there unto them a fresh reminder from the Beneficent One	But there comes not to them a newly-revealed Message from (God) Most Gracious	But never fresh remembrance comes to them from the All-merciful	And there does not come to them a new reminder from the Beneficent God	And never comes there unto them a Reminder as a recent revelation from the Most Beneficent (Allah)	And in no way does a recent Remembrance come up to them from The All-Merciful	Whenever a reminder from the Most Gracious comes to them, that is new

26:6	fasaya/tee him anbao ma kanoo bihi yastahzi-eena	But tidings shall reach them which they shall not laugh to scorn	but there shall come to them a message of that at which they mocked	but there will come unto them tidings of that whereat they used to scoff.	so they will know soon (enough) the truth of what they mocked at!	therefore assuredly tidings will come to them of that they mocked at.	therefore the news of that which they mock shall soon come to them.	then the news of what they mocked at, will come to them.	so the tidings will soon come up to them of what they used to mock at.	they have incurred the consequences of their heedlessness.
26:10	i/ti alqawma alththalim eena	Go to the wicked people	Come to the unjust people	Go unto the wrongdoing folk	Go to the people of iniquity	Go to the people of the evildoers	Go to the unjust people	Go to the people who are Zalimoon	Come up to the unjust people	Go to the transgressing people
26:16	Fa/tiya firAAawn a	And go to Pharaoh	And go to Pharaoh	And come together unto Pharaoh	So go forth, both of you, to Pharaoh	So go you to Pharaoh	Then come to Firon	And when you both come to Firaun (Pharaoh)	So come up to Firaawn	Go to Pharaoh
26:31	fa/ti bihi	Forth with it then	Bring it	Produce it then	Show it then	Bring it then, if	Bring it then	Bring it forth then	Come up with it then	Then produce it
26:37	Ya/tooka bikulli sahharin AAaleemi n	Who shall bring to thee every cunning magician	and bring to thee every knowing sorcerer	Who shall bring unto thee every knowing wizard	And bring up to thee all (our) sorcerers well-versed	to bring thee every cunning sorcerer.	That they should bring to you every skillful magician.	To bring up to you every well-versed sorcerer.	Who will come up to you with every crafty, knowledgeable sorcerer	Let them summon every experienced magician.
26:89	Illa man ata Allaha biqalbin saleemin	Save to him who shall come to God with a sound heart:	but only he who comes to God with a sound heart.	Save him who bringeth unto Allah a whole heart.	"But only he (will prosper) that brings to God a sound heart;	except for him who comes to God with a pure heart.	Except him who comes to Allah with a heart free (from evil).	Except him who brings to Allah a clean heart	Except for him who comes up to Allah with a sound heart	Only those who come to GOD with their whole heart (will be saved).
26:154	fa/ti bi-ayatin	produce now a sign	so bring us a sign	So bring some token	then bring us a Sign	then produce a sign	so bring a sign	Then bring us a sign	Then come up with a sign	Produce a miracle
26:165	Ata/toona alththukra na mina alAAalam eena	What! with men, of all creatures, will ye have commerce?	Do ye approach males of all the world	What! Of all creatures do ye come unto the males,	Of all the creatures in the world, will ye approach males,	What, do you come to male beings,	What! do you come to the males from among the creatures	Go you in unto the males of the Alameen (mankind)	Do you come up to (stout) the males of the worlds.	Do you have sex with the males, of all the people?
26:202	Faya/tiyah um baghtatan	And it shall come upon them on a sudden	and it shall come to them suddenly	So that it will come upon them suddenly	But the (Penalty) will come to them of a sudden	so that it will come upon them suddenly	And it shall come to them all of a sudden	It shall come to them of a sudden	So that it will come up to them suddenly	It will come to them suddenly
27:7	saateekum minha bikhabarin	I will bring you tidings from it	I will bring you therefrom news	I will bring you tidings thence,	soon will I bring you from there some information	,and will bring you news of it	I will bring to you from it some news,	I will bring you from there some information	Soon I will come up to you with news of it,	let me bring you news therefrom
27:7	aw ateekum bishihabin qabasin	or will bring you a blazing brand	or I will bring you a burning brand	or bring to you a borrowed flame	or I will bring you a burning brand to	or I will bring you a flaming brand	or I will bring to you therefrom a	or I will bring you a burning brand	or come up to you with a flaming brand	let me bring. . . or a torch to warm you

					light our fuel,		burning firebrand			
27:18	Hatta itha ataw AAala wadi alnnamli	Till they reached the Valley of Ants.	until they came upon the valley of the ants.	Till, when they reached the Valley of the Ants,	At length, when they came to a (lowly) valley of ants,	till, when they came on the Valley of Ants,	Until when they came to the valley of the Naml,	Till, when they came to the valley of the ants,	Till, when they came up to the Valley of Ants,	When they approached the valley of the ants,
27:21	aw laya/tiyan nee bisultanin mubeenin	unless it bring me a clear excuse."	or he shall bring me obvious authority	or he verily shall bring me a plain excuse	unless he bring me a clear reason (for absence)	or he bring me a clear authority	or he shall bring to me a clear plea	unless he brings me a clear reason	or indeed he should definitely come up to me with an evident, all-binding authority.	unless he gives me a good excuse
27:31	wa/toonee muslimene na	but come to me submitting (Muslims)	but come to me resigned	but come unto me as those who surrender	but come to me in submission (to the true Religion)	but come to me in surrender	and come to me in submission	but come to me as Muslims (true believers who submit to Allah with full submission)	and come up to me as Muslims." (Or: in surrender)	come to me as submitters
27:37	falana/tiyan nahum bijunoodin	for we will surely come to them with forces	for we will surely come to them with hosts	We verily shall come unto them with hosts	and be sure we shall come to them with such hosts	we shall assuredly come against them with hosts	so we will most certainly come to them with hosts	We verily shall come to them with hosts	So indeed we will definitely come up against them with hosts	we will come to them with forces
27:38	ayyukum ya/teenee biAAarshi ha	which of you will bring me her throne	which of you will bring me her throne	Which of you will bring me her throne	which of you can bring me her throne	which one of you will bring me her throne	which of you can bring to me her throne	Which of you can bring me her throne	whichever one of you will come up to me with (i.e., bring) her throne	which of you can bring me her mansion
27:38	qabla an ya/toonee muslimene na	before they come to me, submitting (Muslims)	before they come to me resigned	before they come unto me, surrendering	before they come to me in submission	before they come to me in surrender	before they come to me in submission	before they come to me surrendering themselves in obedience	before they come up to me as Muslims?" (Or: in surrender).	before they arrive here as submitters
27:39	ana ateeka bihi	I will bring it thee	I will bring thee it	I will bring it thee	I will bring it to thee	I will bring it to thee,	I will bring it to you	I will bring it to you	I will come up with it to you	I can bring it to you
27:40	ana ateeka bihi	I will bring it to thee	I will bring it to thee	I will bring it thee	I will bring it to thee	I will bring it to thee	I will bring it to you	I will bring it to you	I will come up with it (i.e., bring) to you	I can bring it to you
27:54	ata/toona alfahishata waantum tubsiroona	What! proceed ye to such filthiness with your eyes open	'Do ye approach an abominable sin while ye can see	Will ye commit abomination knowingly	Do ye do what is shameful though ye see (its iniquity)	'What, do you commit indecency with your eyes open	What! do you commit indecency while you see	Do you commit AlFahishah (evil, great sin, every kind of unlawful sexual intercourse, sodomy, etc.) while you see	Do you come up to (the) obscenity (while) you behold (its impurity)	How could you commit such an abomination, publicly, while you see

27:55	A- innakum lata/toona alrrijala shahwatan min dooni alnnisa-i	What! come ye with lust unto men rather than to women?	do ye indeed approach men lustfully rather than women?	Must ye needs lust after men instead of women ?	Would ye really approach men in your lusts rather than women?	What, do you approach men lustfully instead of women?	What! do you indeed approach men lustfully rather than women?	Do you approach men in your lusts rather than women?	Do you (really) come up with lust to men rather than women?	You practice sex with the men, lustfully, instead of the women.
27:87	wakullun atawahu dakhireen a	and all shall come to him in humble guise.	and all shall come abjectly to Him.	And all come unto Him, humbled.	and all shall come to His (Presence) as beings conscious of their lowliness .	and every one shall come to Him, all utterly abject;	and all shall come to him abased.	And all shall come to Him humbled.	and every one will come up to Him, all (utterly) object.	All will come before Him, forcibly.
28:29	laAAalee ateekum minha bikhabarin	Haply I may bring you tidings from it	haply I may bring you good news therefrom	peradvent ure I shall bring you tidings thence	I hope to bring you from there some informati on	Perhaps I shall bring you news of it	maybe I will bring to you from it some news	perhaps I may bring to you from there some information	Possibly I (will) come up to you with news of it	Maybe I can bring to you news
28:30	Falamma ataha	And when he came up to it,	And when he came to it	And when he reached it,	But when he came to the (fire),	When he came to it,	And when he came to it,	So when he reached it (the fire),	Then, as soon as he came up to it,	When he reached it,
28:46	ma atahum min natheerin min qablika	to whom no warner had come before thee,	to whom no warner has come before thee	unto whom no warner came before thee,	to whom no warner had come before thee:	to whom no warner came before thee,	to whom no warner came before you	to whom no warner had come before you,	that you may warn a people to whom in no way did (any) warner come up even before you,	who received no warner before you,
28:49	fa/too bikitabin min AAindi Allahi	Bring then a Book from before God	Bring, then, a book from God	Then bring a scripture from the presence of Allah	Then bring ye a Book from God	Bring a Book from God	Then bring some (other) book from Allah	Then bring a Book from Allah	Then come up with a Book from the Providence of Allah	Then produce a scripture from GOD
28:71	man ilahun ghayru Allahi ya/teekum bidiya-in	what god beside God would bring you light?	who is the god, but God, to bring you light?	who is a god beside Allah who could bring you light ?	what god is there other than God, who can give you enlighten ment?	what god other than God shall bring you illuminati on?	who is the god besides Allah that could bring you light?	who is an ilah (a god) besides Allah who could bring you light?	what god other than Allah will come up to you with (i.e., bring) illumination?	Which god, other than GOD, can provide you with light?
28:72	man ilahun ghayru Allahi ya/teekum bilaylin	what god but God could bring you the night	who is the god, except God, to bring you the night	who is a god beside Allah who could bring you night	what god is there other than God, who can give you a night	what god other than God shall bring you night	who is the god besides Allah that could bring you the night	who is an ilah (a god) besides Allah who could bring you night	what god other than Allah shall come up to you with (i.e., bring) night	Which god, other than GOD, can provide you with a night
29:28	innakum lata/toona alfahishata	Proceed ye to a filthiness	'Verily, ye approach an abominat ion	Lo! ye commit lewdness	Ye do commit lewdness,	'Surely you commit such indecenc y	Most surely you are guilty of an indecency	You commit Al- Fahishah (sodomy the worst sin)	Surely you indeed come up to (such) obscenity	You commit such an abomination,
29:29	A- innakum lata/toona	Proceed ye even to men?	What! do ye approach	For come ye not in unto	"Do ye indeed approach	What, do you approach	What! do you come to the males	"Verily, you do sodomy	Do you really come up to (obscenity) to	"You practice sex with the men

	alrrijala		men?	males	men,	men		with men,	men	
29:29	wata/toon a fee nadeekum u almunkara	and proceed ye to the crime in your assemblies	and approach in your assembly sin	and commit ye not abominat ion in your meetings	and practise wickedne ss (even) in your councils? "	and commit in your assembly dishonou r	and you commit evil deeds in your assemblies	And practise Al- Munkar (disbelief and polytheism and every kind of evil wicked deed) in your meetings	and come up in your assembly to maleficence	and you allow all kinds of vice in your society
29:29	i/tina biAAatha bi Allahi	Bring God's chastiseme nt upon us	Bring us God's torment	Bring Allah's doom upon us	Bring us the Wrath of God	Then bring us the chastisem ent of God,	Bring on us Allah's punishment	Bring Allah's Torment upon us	Come up with the torment of Allah	Bring to us GOD's retribution
29:53	walaya/tiy annahum baghtatan	But it shall overtake them suddenly	the torment would have come upon them suddenly	And verily it will come upon them suddenly	and it will certainly reach them,- of a sudden	but it shall come upon them suddenly	and most certainly it will come to them all of a sudden	And surely, it will come upon them suddenly	and indeed it will definitely come upon them suddenly,	Certainly, it will come to them suddenly
30:43	min qabli an ya/tiya yawmun la maradda lahu mina Allahi	ere the day come which none can hinder God from bringing on	before there come a day from God which there is no averting	before the inevitable day cometh from Allah.	before there come from God the Day which there is no chance of averting	before there comes a day from God that cannot be turned back	before there come from Allah the day which cannot be averted;	before there comes from Allah a Day which none can avert it	before there comes up from Allah a Day without turning (back)	before a day comes which is made inevitable by GOD
31:16	ya/ti biha Allahu	verily God will bring everything to light,	God would bring it (to light).	Allah will bring it forth	God will bring it forth	God shall bring it forth	Allah will bring it (to light);	Allah will bring it forth.	Allah will come up with it; (i.e., bring it)	GOD will bring it.
32:3	ma atahum min natheerin min qablika	to whom no warner hath come before thee	to whom no warner has come before thee	to whom no warner came before thee	to whom no warner has come before thee:	to whom no warner came before thee	to whom no warner has come before you,	to whom no warner has come before you	in no way did (any) warner come up to them even before you,	who never received a warner before you,
33:18	wala ya/toona alba/sa illa qaleelan	and who come not to the fight except a little.	and show but little valour;-	and they come not to the stress of battle save a little,	but come not to the fight except for just a little while.	and come to battle but little,	and they come not to the fight but a little,	while they (themselves) come not to the battle except a little.	and they (themselves) do not come up to battle, (Literally: to violence) except a little	Rarely do they mobilize for defense
33:20	wa-in ya/ti al-ahzabu	and were the confederate s to come again	and if the confederate s should come	and if the clans should advance (again)	and if the Confeder ates should come (again)	and if the Confeder ates come	and if the allies should come (again)	and if AlAhzab (the Confederate s) should come (again)	And in case the (allied) parties come up	They thought that the parties might come back
33:30	man ya/ti minkunna bifahishati n mubayyin atin	should any of you be guilty of a proven lewdness	whosoever of you commits manifest fornicatio n	Whosoever of you committe th manifest lewdness	If any of you were guilty of evident unseemly conduct	whosoever among you commits a flagrant indecenc	whoever of you commits an open indecency	whoever of you commits an open illegal sexual intercourse	whoever of you comes up with a demonstrably evident obscenity	if any of you commits a gross sin

						y				
34:3	la ta/teena alssaAAat u	will the Hour come upon us!"	The Hour shall not come to us;'	The Hour will never come unto us.	Never to us will come the Hour	'The Hour will never come to us.'	The hour shall not come upon us	The Hour will not come to us.	The Hour will not come up to us	The Hour will never come to pass!
34:3	lata/tiyann akum	it will surely come upon you!	it shall surely come to you!	it is coming unto you surely.	it will come upon you	it shall come to you,	it shall certainly come upon you;	it will come to you.	indeed it will definitely come up to you	it will most certainly come to you.
35:16	waya/ti bikhalqin jadeedin	and bring forth a new creation!	and will bring a fresh creation	and bring (instead of you) some new creation	and bring in a New Creation.	and bring a new creation	and bring a new generation	and bring about a new creation	and come up (instead) with a new creation	and substitute a new creation
36:30	ma ya/teehim min rasoolin illa kanoo bihi yastahzi- oona	No apostle cometh to them but they laugh him to scorn.	there comes to them no apostle but they mock at him!	Never came there unto them a messenger but they did mock him!	There comes not an apostle to them but they mock him!	Never comes unto them a Messenger, but they mock at him.	there comes not to them an apostle but they mock at him	There never came a Messenger to them but they used to mock at him	In no way does a Messenger come up to them except that they used to mock at him.	Every time a messenger went to them, they always ridiculed him.
36:46	Wama ta/teehim min ayatin min ayati rabbihim	Aye, not one sign from among the signs of their Lord dost thou bring them,	and thou bringest them not any one of the signs of their Lord,	Never came a token of the tokens of their Lord to them,	Not a Sign comes to them from among the Signs of their Lord,	yet never any sign of the signs of their Lord comes to them,	And there comes not to them a communication of the communications of their Lord	And never came an Ayah from among the Ayat (proofs, evidences, verses, lessons, signs, revelations, etc.) of their Lord to them,	And in no way does any sign of the signs of their Lord come up to them,	No matter what kind of proof is given to them from their Lord,
37:28	innakum kuntum ta/toonana AAani alyameeni	In sooth, ye came to us in well- omened sort	Verily, ye came to us from the right	Lo! ye used to come unto us, imposing , (swearing that ye spoke the truth)	It was ye who used to come to us from the right hand	Why, you of old would come to us from the right hand	Surely you used to come to us from the right side	It was you who used to come to us from the right side	Surely you used to come up to us from the right hand	You used to come to us from the right side
37:157	Fa/too bikitabiku m	Produce your Book	then bring your Book	Then produce your writ	Then bring ye your Book (of authority)	Bring your Book	Then bring your book	Then bring your Book	Then come up with your Book	Show us your book
38:21	Wahal ataka nabao alkhasmi	Hath the story of the two pleaders reached thee	Has there come to thee the story of the antagonists	And hath the story of the litigants come unto thee	Has the Story of the Disputants reached thee	Has the tiding of the dispute come to thee	And has there come to you the story of the litigants	And has the news of the litigants reached you	And has the tiding of the adversaries come up to you	Have you received news of the feuding men

39:25	faatahumu alAAathab u min haythu la yashAAur oona	but a punishment came upon them whence they looked not for it	and the torment came to them whence they perceived it not	and so the doom came on them whence they knew not	and so the Punishme nt came to them from directions they did not perceive	then the chastisem ent came upon them from whence they were not aware	therefore there came to them the chastiseme nt from whence they perceived not	and so the torment came on them from directions they perceived not	then the torment came up to them from where they were not aware	and, consequently, the retribution afflicted them whence they never expected
39:40	Man ya/teehi AAathabu n yukhzeehi	On whom shall light a punishment that shall shame him	He to whom the torment comes it shall disgrace him	Who it is unto whom cometh a doom that will abase him	Who it is to whom comes a Penalty of ignominy	to whom will come a chastisem ent degradin g him	Who it is to whom there shall come a punishment which will disgrace him	To whom comes a disgracing torment	To whom will come up a torment disgracing him	who has incurred shameful punishment
39:54	min qabli an ya/tyaku mu alAAathab u	ere the punishment come on you	before there comes on you torment!	before there come unto you the doom	before the Penalty comes on you	ere the chastisem ent comes upon you	before there comes to you the punishment	before the torment comes upon you	even before the torment comes up to you;	before the retribution overtakes you
39:55	min rabbikum min qabli an ya/tyaku mu alAAathab u	ere the punishment come on you	before there come on you the torment	before the doom cometh on you	before the Penalty comes on you	ere the chastisem ent comes upon you	before there comes to you the punishment	before the torment comes on you	even before the torment comes up to you suddenly	before the retribution overtakes you
39:71	alam ya/tikum rusulun minkum	Came not apostles from among yourselves to you	Did not apostles from amongst yourselve s come to you	Came there not unto you messenger s of your own,	Did not apostles come to you from among yourselve s	Did not Messeng ers come to you from among yourselve s,	Did there come to you apostles from among you	Did not the Messengers come to you from yourselves,	Did not Messengers come up to you from among yourselves	Did you not receive messengers from among you
40:22	kanat ta/teehim rusuluhum bialbayyin ati	their apostles had come to them with proofs of their mission	their apostles did come to them with manifest signs	their messenger s kept bringing them clear proofs	there came to them their apostles with Clear (Signs)	their Messeng ers came to them with the clear signs	there came to them their apostles with clear arguments	there came to them their Messengers with clear evidences, proofs and signs	their Messengers kept coming up to them with the supreme evidence (s)	their messengers went to them with clear proofs
40:35	bighayri sultanin atahum	without authority having come to them	without authority having come to them	without any warrant that hath come unto them	without any authority that hath reached them	without any authority come to them	without any authority that He has given them	without any authority that has come to them	without any all-binding authority that has come up to them	without any basis
40:50	awa lam taku ta/teekum rusulukum bialbayyin ati	Came not your apostles to you with the tokens?	Did not your apostles come to you with manifest signs?	Came not your messenger s unto you with clear proofs ?	Did there not come to you your apostles with Clear Signs?	Did not your Messeng ers bring you the clear signs?	Did not your apostles come to you with clear arguments?	Did there not come to you, your Messengers with (clear) evidences and signs?	And did your Messengers not come up to you with the supreme evidence (s)?	Did you not receive your messengers who delivered to you clear messages?
40:56	bighayri sultanin atahum	without authority having	without authority having	without a warrant having	without any authority	without any authority	without any authority that has	without any authority having	without any all-binding authority	without proof

		reached them	come to them	come unto them	bestowed on them	come to them	come to them	come to them	having come up to them	
40:78	wama kana lirasoolin an ya/tiya bi-ayatin illa bi-ithni Allahi	but no apostle had the power to work a miracle unless by the leave of God.	and no apostle might ever bring a sign except by the permission of God;	and it was not given to any messenger that he should bring a portent save by Allah's leave,	It was not (possible) for any apostle to bring a sign except by the leave of God:	It was not for any Messenger to bring a sign, save by God's leave.	and it was not meet for an apostle that he should bring a sign except with Allah's permission	and it was not given to any Messenger that he should bring a sign except by the Leave of Allah.	and in no way (could) any Messenger come up with a sign except by the permission of Allah	No messenger can produce any miracle without GOD's authorization.
41:11	i/tiya tawAAan aw karhan	Come ye, whether in obedience or against your will	Come, ye two, whether ye will or no!	Come both of you, willingly or loth	Come ye together, willingly or unwillingly	Come willingly, or unwillingly!	Come both, willingly or unwillingly	Come both of you willingly or unwillingly	Come up (you two) willingly (Or: in obedience) or unwillingly!	Come into existence, willingly or unwillingly
41:11	atayna ta-iaAeena	We come obedient.	We come willingly!	We come, obedient.	We do come (together), in willing obedience	We come willingly	We come willingly	We come, willingly	We come up willingly."	We come willingly
41:40	amman ya/tee aminan yawma alqiyamati	or he who shall come forth secure on the day of resurrection	or he who comes safe on the resurrection day	Is he who is hurled into the Fire better, or he who cometh secure on the Day of Resurrection?	or he that comes safe through, on the Day of Judgment	or he who comes on the Day of Resurrection in security	or he who comes safe on the day of resurrection	or he who comes secure on the Day of Resurrection	or he who (really) comes up secure on the Day of the Resurrection	or one who comes secure on the Day of Resurrection
41:42	La ya/tee albatilu min bayni yadayhi wala min khalfihi	Falsehood, from whatever side it cometh, shall not come night it	falsehood shall not come to it, from before it, nor from behind	Falsehood cannot come at it from before it or from behind it	No falsehood can approach it from before or behind it	falsehood comes not to it from before it nor from behind it	Falsehood shall not come to it from before it nor from behind it	Falsehood cannot come to it from before it or behind	Untruth does not come up to it before (Literally: between its two hands) it nor from behind it	No falsehood could enter it, in the past or in the future
42:47	min qabli an ya/tiya yawmun la maradda lahu mina Allahi	ere the day come, which none can put back when God doth ordain its coming.	before the day comes of which there is no averting from God	before there cometh unto you from Allah a Day which there is no averting.	before there come a Day which there will be no putting back, because of (the Ordainment of) God!	before there comes a day from God that cannot be turned back;	before there comes the day from Allah for which there shall be no averting	before there comes from Allah a Day which cannot be averted.	even before there comes up a Day that has no turning back from Allah	before a day comes which is decreed inevitable by GOD.
43:7	Wama ya/teehim min nabiyyin illa kanoo bihi yastahzi-	But no prophet came to them whom they made not the object of	and there never came to them a prophet but they did mock	And never came there unto them a prophet	And never came there a prophet to them but they	but not a Prophet came to them, without they mocked	And there came not to them a prophet but they mocked at him	And never came there a Prophet to them but they used to mock at him	And in no way did a Prophet come up to them, except that they used to mock at him.	Every time a prophet went to them, they ridiculed him.

	oona	their scorn:	at him	but they used to mock him.	mocked him.	at him				
43:66	Hal yanthuroo na illa alssaAAat a an ta/tiyahum baghtatan	For what wait they but for the hour "to come suddenly on them	Do they expect aught but that the Hour will come upon them suddenly	Await they aught save the Hour, that it shall come upon them suddenly,	Do they only wait for the Hour - that it should come on them all of a sudden	Are they looking for aught but the Hour, that it shall come upon them suddenly	Do they wait for aught but the hour, that it should come upon them all of a sudden	Do they only wait for the Hour that it shall come upon them suddenly,	Are they looking for (anything) except the Hour, that it will come to them suddenly	Are they waiting for the Hour (Day of Judgment) to come to them suddenly
44:10	yawma ta/tee alssamao bidukhani n mubeenin	on the day when the Heaven shall give out a palpable SMOKE,	the day when the heaven shall bring obvious smoke	the day when the sky will produce visible smoke	the Day that the sky will bring forth a kind of smoke (or mist) plainly visible	a day when heaven shall bring a manifest smoke	the day when the heaven shall bring an evident smoke	the Day when the sky will bring forth a visible smoke	a Day when the heaven will come up with an evident smoke	the day when the sky brings a profound smoke
44:19	inee atekum bisultanin mubeenin	for I come to you with undoubted power	verily, I come to you with obvious authority	Lo! I bring you a clear warrant.	for I come to you with authority manifest	behold, I come to you with a clear authority	surely I will bring to you a clear authority	Truly, I have come to you with a manifest authority	Surely I am bringing you an evident, all-binding authority	I bring to you powerful proofs
44:36	Fa/too bi-aba-ina	Bring back our sires	so bring our fathers	Bring back our fathers	Then bring (back) our forefather s	Bring us our fathers	So bring our fathers (back)	Then bring back our fore-fathers	Then come up with (i.e., bring) our fathers,	Bring back our forefathers
45:25	i/too bi-aba-ina	Bring back our fathers	Bring our fathers	Bring (back) our fathers	Bring (back) our forefather s	Bring us our fathers	Bring our fathers (back)	Bring back our (dead) fathers	Come up with (i.e., bring) our fathers	Bring back our forefathers
46:4	eetoonee bikitabin min qabli hatha	Bring me a Book sent down by them before this Koran	Bring me a book sent before this	Bring me a scripture before this (Scriptur e)	bring me a book (revealed) before this	Bring me a Book before this	Bring me a book before this	Bring me a Book (revealed before this)	Come up to me (i.e., bring me) with a Book before this	Show me any other scripture before this one
46:22	fa/tina bima taAAidun a	Bring on us now the woes which thou threatenest	then bring us what thou dost threaten us with	Then bring upon us that wherewith thou threatene st us	Then bring upon us the (calamity) with which thou dost threaten us	Then bring us that thou promisest us	then bring us what you threaten us with	Then bring us that with which you threaten us	Then come up to us with (i.e., bring us) what you promise us	We challenge you to bring (the retribution) you threaten
47:18	Fahal yanthuroo na illa alssaAAat a an ta/tiyahum baghtatan	For what do the infidels wait, but that the Hour come suddenly on them?	Do they wait for aught but the Hour, that it should come to them suddenly	Await they aught save the Hour, that it should come upon	Do they then only wait for the Hour,- that it should come on them of a	Are they looking for aught but the Hour, that it shall come upon	Do they then wait for aught but the hour that it should come to them all of a sudden?	Do they then await (anything) other than the Hour, that it should come upon them	Are they then looking for (anything) except the Hour, that it will come up to them suddenly??	Are they waiting until the Hour comes to them suddenly?

			?	them unawares ?	sudden?	them suddenly ?		suddenly?		
51:24	Hal ataka hadeethu dayfi ibraheema almukram eena	Hath the story reached thee of Abraham's honoured guests?	Has the tale of Abraham's honoured guests reached thee?	Hath the story of Abraham's honoured guests reached thee (O Muhamm ad) ?	Has the story reached thee, of the honoured guests of Abraham ?	Hast thou received the story of the honoured guests of Abraham ?	Has there come to you information about the honored guests of Ibrahim?	Has the story reached you, of the honoured guests (three angels; Jibrael (Gabriel) along with another two) of Ibraheem (Abraham)?	Has the discourse about Ibrahim's (Abraham) honored guests come up (to your knowledge)?	Have you noted the history of Abraham's honorable guests?
51:42	Ma tatharu min shay-in atat AAalayhi	It touched not aught over which it came,	that left naught on which it came	It spared naught that it reached	It left nothing whatever that it came up against	that left nothing it came upon	It did not leave aught on which it blew	It spared nothing that it reached	In no way did it come upon anything	Anything that it came upon
51:52	Kathalika ma ata allatheena min qablihim min rasoolin	Even thus came there no apostle to those who flourished before them	Thus there came no apostle to those before them	Even so there came no messenger unto those before them	Similarly, no apostle came to the Peoples before them	Even so not a Messenger came to those before them	Thus there did not come to those before them an apostle	Likewise, no Messenger came to those before them,	Thus in no way did (any) Messenger come up to the ones even before them	Consistently, when a messenger went to the previous generations
52:34	Falya/too bihadeethi n mithlihi	Let them then produce a discourse like it	But let them bring a discourse like it	Then let them produce speech the like thereof	Let them then produce a recital like unto it	Then let them bring a discourse like it	Then let them bring an announcement like it	Let them then produce a recital like unto it	Then let them come up with a discourse like this	Let them produce a Hadith like this,
52:38	falya/ti mustamiA Auhum bisultanin mubeenin	Let any one who hath heard them bring a clear proof of it	then let their listener bring obvious authority.	Then let their listener produce some warrant manifest!	Then let (such a) listener of theirs produce a manifest proof.	Then let any of them that has listened bring a clear	Then let their listener bring a clear authority	Then let their listener produce some manifest proof.	Then let their listener come up with an evident, all binding authority	Let their listeners show their proof.
59:2	faatahumu Allahu	But God came upon them	but God came upon them	But Allah reached them	But the (Wrath of) God came to them	then God came upon them	but Allah came to them	But Allahs (Torment) reached them	Then Allah came upon them	But then GOD came to them
60:12	wala ya/teena bibuhtanin	nor bring scandalous charges	and will not bring a calumny which they have forged	nor produce any lie	that they will not utter slander, intention ally forging falsehood	nor bring a calumny	and will not bring a calumny	that they will not utter slander, intention ally forging falsehood	nor come up with (i.e., bring) all-evident calumny	nor fabricate any falsehood
61:6	birasoolin ya/tee min baAAadee	an apostle that shall come after me	an apostle who shall come after me	a messenger who cometh after me	an Apostle to come after me	a Messenger who shall come after me	an Apostle who will come after me	a Messenger to come after me	a Messenger who will come up even after me,	a messenger to come after me

63:10	min qabli an ya/tiya ahadakum u almawtu	ere death surprise each one of you	before death come on any one of you	before death cometh unto one of you	before Death should come to any of you	before that death comes upon one of you	before death comes to one of you	before death comes to one of you	even before the death comes up to one of you	before death comes to you
64:5	Alam ya/tikum nabao allatheena kafaroo min qablu	Hath not the story reached you of those who disbelieved of yore	Has there not come to you the story of those who misbelieved before	Hath not the story reached you of those who disbelieved of old	Has not the story reached you, of those who rejected Faith aforetime	Has there not come to you the tidings of those that disbelieved before	Has there not come to you the story of those who disbelieved before	Has not the news reached you of those who disbelieved aforetime?	Has there not come up to you the tidings of the ones who disbelieved earlier	Have you noted those who disbelieved in the past,
64:6	kanat ta/teehim rusuluhum bialbayyin ati	their apostles came to them with the clear tokens	their apostles came to them with manifest signs	their messengers (from Allah) kept coming unto them with clear proofs	there came to them apostles with Clear Signs	their Messengers came to them with the clear signs	there came to them their apostles with clear arguments	there came to them their Messengers with clear proofs (signs)	their Messengers kept coming up to them with the supreme evidence (s)	their messengers went to them with clear proofs
65:1	illa an ya/teena bifahishatin mubayyinatin	unless they have committed a proven adultery	unless they have committed manifest adultery	unless they commit open immorality.	except in case they are guilty of some open lewdness	except when they commit a flagrant indecency	unless they commit an open indecency	except in case they are guilty of some open illegal sexual intercourse	except (when) they come up with a demonstrably evident obscenity	unless they commit a proven adultery
67:8	alam ya/tikum natheerun	Came not the warner to you?	Did not a warner come to you?	Came there unto you no warner?	Did no Warner come to you?	Came there no warner to you?	Did there not come to you a warner?	Did no warner come to you?	Has no Warner come up to you	Did you not receive a warner?
67:30	faman ya/teekum bima-in maAAeenin	who then will give you clear running water?	who is to bring you flowing water?	who then could bring you gushing water?	who then can supply you with clear-flowing water?	then who would bring you running water?	who is it then that will bring you flowing water?	who then can supply you with flowing (spring) water?	then who would come up to you with (i.e., bring) profuse water?"	who will provide you with pure water?"
68:41	falya/too bishurakاهيم	let them produce those associate-gods of theirs	then let them bring their partners	Then let them bring their other gods	Then let them produce their "partners"	Then let them bring their associates	----	Then let them bring their "partners"	Then let them come up with their associates	Let their idols help them
71:1	min qabli an ya/tiyahum AAathabun aleemun	ere there come on them an afflictive punishment	before there come to them a grievous torment	ere the painful doom come unto them	before there comes to them a grievous Penalty	ere there come on them a painful chastisement	before there come upon them a painful chastisement	before there comes to them a painful torment	even before there comes up to them a painful torment	before a painful retribution afflicts them
74:47	Hatta atana alyaqeenu	Till the certainty came upon us	until the certainty did come to us!	Till the Inevitable came unto us.	Until there came to us (the Hour) that is certain.	till the Certain came to us	Till death overtook us	Until there came to us (the death) that is certain	Until the Certitude came up to us	Until certainty came to us now
76:1	Hal ata AAala al-insani	Doth not a long time pass over	Does there not come on	Hath there come	Has there not been over Man	Has there come on man a	There surely came over man a	Has there not been over man a	Has there come upon man a while	Is it not a fact that there was a time

	heenun mina alddahri	MAN	man a portion of time	upon man (ever) any period of time	a long period of Time	while of time	period of time	period of time	of (an) era	
78:18	fata/toona afwajan	and ye shall come in crowds,	and ye shall come in troops	and ye come in multitude s	and ye shall come forth in crowds	and you shall come in troops	so you shall come forth in hosts,	and you shall come forth in crowds (groups)	then you will come up in troops	and you come in throngs
79:15	Hal ataka hadeethu moosa	Hath the story of Moses reached thee?	Has the story of Moses come to you?	Hath there come unto thee the history of Moses ?	Has the story of Moses reached thee?	Hast thou received the story of Moses?	Has not there come to you the story of Musa?	Has there come to you the story of Moosa (Moses)?	Has there come up to you the discourse of M ūsū? (Moses).	Have you known about the history of Moses?
85:17	Hal ataka hadeethu aljunoodi	Hath not the story reached thee of the hosts	Has there come to thee the story of the hosts	Hath there come unto thee the story of the hosts	Has the story reached thee, of the forces-	Hast thou received the story of the hosts	Has not there come to you the story of the hosts	Has the story reached you of the hosts,	Has the discourse about the hosts come up to you,	Did you note the history of the troops?
88:1	Hal ataka hadeethu alghashiya ti	Hath the tidings of the day that shall OVERSHA DOW, reached thee?	Has there come to thee the story of the overwhel ming?	Hath there come unto thee tidings of the Overwhel ming? (Event)?	Has the story reached thee of the overwhel ming (Event)?	Hast thou received the story of the Envelope r?	Has not there come to you the news of the overwhel ming calamity?	Has there come to you the narration of the overwhel ming	Has the discourse of the Envelope come up to you?	Are you aware of the Overwhelming?
98:1	hatta ta/tyahum u albayyinat u	until the CLEAR EVIDENC E had come to them	until there came to them the manifest sign	till the clear proof came unto them	until there should come to them Clear Evidence	till the Clear Sign came to them	until there had come to them the clear evidence	until there came to them clear evidence.	until the Supreme Evidence came up to them	despite the proof given to them

Appendix B

Table 2: Translation Equivalents of the Verb ata in the Corpus and Their Frequency and Percentage of Occurrence.

N	Translation equivalents	Frequ ncy	Percentage (%)	N	Translation equivalents	Freq uency	Percentage (%)
1	Come	1259	52.92	52	Repeat	2	0.08
2	bring	554	23.29	53	See	2	0.08
3	produce	68	2.86	54	Utter	2	0.08
4	Reach	58	2.44	55	Accomplish	1	0.04
5	commit	52	2.19	56	account for	1	0.04
6	Go	41	1.73	57	advance (again)	1	0.04
7	Give	27	1.13	58	allow	1	0.04
8	Be	25	1.05	59	assail	1	0.04
9	approach	20	0.84	60	assault	1	0.04
10	Shew /show	17	0.71	61	beat around the bush	1	0.04
11	overtake	15	0.63	62	befall	1	0.04
12	Receive	14	0.59	63	bestow on	1	0.04
13	Enter	11	0.46	64	blow on	1	0.04
14	cause to ---	8	0.34	65	buy	1	0.04
15	pass	8	0.34	66	demolish	1	0.04
16	restore	8	0.34	67	destroy	1	0.04
17	Practise/practice	7	0.29	68	discharge	1	0.04
18	provide	5	0.21	69	encourage	1	0.04

19	bear	5	0.21	70	enjoy	1	0.04
20	light on	5	0.21	71	fabricate	1	0.04
21	substitute	5	0.21	72	face	1	0.04
22	take	4	0.17	73	fall into shame	1	0.04
23	attain	4	0.17	74	Fetch	1	0.04
24	do	4	0.17	75	form	1	0.04
25	have ---	4	0.17	76	Forth with	1	0.04

Appendix C

Table 3: Translation equivalents of verb ata and their number of occurrence in each of the Nine Translations under Scrutiny.

N	English translations	Rodwell	Palmer	Pickthall	Y. Ali	Arberry	Shakir	Al-Hilali & Khan	Ghali	Khalifa
1	accede to	1	1							
2	accept									2
3	Accomplish				1					
4	account for									1
5	advance (again)			1						
6	afflict									2
7	aim to			2						
8	allow									1
9	appear before				2			1		
10	approach		8		6	3	1	1		1
11	Arrive	1			1					1
12	assail	1								
13	assault				1					
14	assemble				1			1		
15	Attack	1		1						1
16	attain			1				1		2
17	Be	4		3	6		6	3		3
18	bear	1	1	1		1			1	
19	beat around the bush									1
20	become		1	1				1		
21	befall				1					
22	bestow on				1					
23	blow on						1			
24	bring	57	86	71	62	82	80	75	3	38
25	buy									1
26	cause to ---	1		2	2		1	2		
27	Come	128	148	134	106	147	140	123	25 7	76
28	commit	4	6	7	2	10	5	8	1	9
29	confront with	1		1						
30	create	1			1					
31	demolish						1			
32	descend on				2			1		
33	destroy									1
34	discharge	1								
35	do				1		1	2		
36	encourage									1
37	enjoy									1
38	Enter	3	2		2		1	2		1
39	fabricate									1
40	face									1
41	fall into shame				1					
42	Fetch	1								
43	form		1							
44	Forth with	1								
45	Fulfill				1			1		1
46	Give	4	3	3	5	2	3	1		6
47	Go	5	1	6	5	4	5	5		10
48	happen									1
49	have ---	1								3
50	hear about									1
51	Help									1
52	incur									4
53	inflict on						1			
54	Issue									2
55	know				1					1
56	lay on	1								
57	learn				1					1

N	English translations	Rodwell	Palmer	Pickthall	Y. Ali	Arberry	Shakir	Al-Hilali & Khan	Ghali	Khalifa
58	light on	4					1			
59	Lust after			1						
60	Make . . . rise						1			
61	Meet									1
62	mobilize for defense									1
63	Note									4
64	observe									1
65	overtake	5					7	1		2
66	pass	2		1	1		1	1		2
67	perform		1			1				
68	pour upon									1
69	Practise/practice				2			2		3
70	present	1								
71	Proceed	4								
72	produce	8	1	14	9	6	3	8		19
73	provide		1							4
74	put (in your place)				1					
75	Raise	1								
76	Reach	13	1	10	18	1	1	12		2
77	Receive					5				9
78	recover	1				1			1	
79	Repeat				1			1		
80	restore	1		1	2			1		3
81	rush on				1					
82	see									2
83	Seize				2			1		
84	Send				3					
85	Shew /show	2	1		3			1		10
86	shine upon						1			
87	Stay on the right path									1
88	Strike			1				1		2
89	submit to							1		
90	substitute				1					4
91	succumb to			1						
92	summon									3
93	supply with				2			1		
94	Surprise	1								
95	Surrender									1
96	take	1			1	1			1	
97	Understanding									1
98	Utter				1			1		
99	Visit						1			
100	vouchsafe (unto			1						
101	Work	1								
102	yield to						1			
	Zero equivalent	1	1		4		1	4		12

The Effect of Semantic Mapping on Students' Vocabulary

Ghuzayyil M. Al-Otaibi

College of Languages & Translation

King Saud University

Riyadh, Al-Muzahimiyah, Saudi Arabia

P.O.Box 11972 Zip Code 381

Abstract

Nursing students at King Saud University (KSU) are considered to be low achieving readers. They face difficulties with understanding medical texts due to the fact that they lack some necessary medical vocabulary knowledge. Thus, the researcher used computer-assisted semantic mapping (CASM) with level-three (114 NAJM) nursing students to map medical terms for the purpose of helping such students in vocabulary acquisition. The present study, therefore, aimed at investigating the efficiency of CASM in improving ESP students' vocabulary knowledge.

Participating subjects were of two groups: Group A (n = 32) and Group B (n = 26). The control group (n = 26) received traditional in-class instruction that depends on the textbook only and the experimental group (n = 32) received a combination of traditional in-class instruction and SM instruction using a software (FreeMind 0.8.1). A pre- and post-test were utilized to assess student vocabulary skills before and after the intervention. The semantic-mapping treatment lasted 8 weeks. Results showed that SM expanded student vocabulary.

Keywords: ESP, nursing students, semantic mapping, vocabulary

Introduction

The process of reading goes beyond simply decoding words on a page. It involves understanding the meaning of individual words and combining their meanings to reach an understanding of a reading text. Thus, knowledge of vocabulary items can aid in reading comprehension. Researchers such as Brown, Waring, Donkaewbua (2008), Waring and Takaki (2003) and Horst (2005) state that there is a strong relationship between students' word knowledge and reading comprehension. People with large vocabulary understand more of a text. As suggested by Davis (1942, 1944), reading, as a skill, is built on a number of sub-skills. He mentions that two of the components, word knowledge and reasoning in reading, account for 89% of students' achievement.

Nursing students at King Saud University (KSU) are considered to be struggling readers compared with medical students. Pre-medical and nursing students are required to take an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course known as 134 NAJM for pre-medical students and 114 NAJM for nursing students that aims at improving students' English and medical knowledge at the same time. The objectives of the course are mainly increasing students' medical terms and improving their reading comprehension level. Nursing and pre-medical students need to understand the meanings of medical terms if they are to understand medical texts. After teaching the course to both groups, the researcher noticed that nursing students are facing difficulties with understanding and recalling medical texts due to the fact that they lack some necessary medical vocabulary knowledge.

One of the techniques that gained some popularity for its efficiency in improving students' reading comprehension level and their vocabulary is the technique of semantic mapping (SM). As defined by Pearson and Johnson (1978), SM is an organizational strategy that shows graphically and visually the relationships between ideas.

Al-Jarf (2009) highlights that a considerable body of research indicates the effectiveness of SM in science (Özmen, Demircioğlu & Coll, 2009), nursing (Jitlakoat, 2005), psychology (Berry & Chew, 2008), economics (Chiou, 2009), medicine (Gonzalez, Palencia, Umana, Galindo, & Villafrade, 2008), research methods (Hay, 2007), and teacher education (Andrews, Tressler, & Mintzes, 2008). It can be used in every language skill to benefit native speakers of English at all grade levels. It has been implemented with success in writing (Ojima, 2006; Al-Jarf, 2009), reading (Siddiqi, 2007; Hall & Strangman, 2002), and vocabulary (Little & Box, 2011).

Nowadays, computer-related technologies have been successfully introduced as instructional tools in classrooms and their impact cannot be ignored. Thus, the researcher will use a computer program known as *FreeMind 0.8.1* to generate semantic maps. Such a program uses lines, arrows, branches, pictures, and colors and thus it makes learning tasks more appealing and motivating. Anderson-Inman and Horney (1997) highlight that computer-assisted SM (CASM) is a rich tool that stimulates the visual thinking that underlies knowledge representation and makes it more accessible and attractive. Due to the wide use of SM in different areas, the researcher will use CASM to investigate its effectiveness with nursing students who need sufficient knowledge of medical terms to understand medical passages.

Semantic Mapping

Khoii and Sharififar (2012) describes SM as "a visual strategy for vocabulary expansion and extension of knowledge by displaying in categories words related to one another" (p. 202). Hence, semantic maps are of two aspects: visual and conceptual. Visually, a semantic map is an arrangement of shapes such as boxes, triangles, circles, or rectangles connected through lines and arrows. Conceptually, a semantic map contains verbal information within such shapes (Fisher, 1995, p. 68). Novak (1998, p. 3) noted that since semantic maps are "knowledge representation tools;" they should be read from top to bottom; from general concepts to more specific ones at the bottom.

SM can be used, as noted by Buzan (2000), to take notes, improve memory, generate and develop ideas. Hague (1987) and Machalias (1991) note that classroom activities that foster the formation of associations between concepts may build up semantic networks necessary for long-term retention. Hence, it has been proven that SM enhances recall of information (Berkowitz, 1986), helps in problem solving and decision making (Shmaefsky, 2007), lowers student apprehension about a subject (Jegade, Alaiyemola, and Okebukola, 1990), aids in planning learning materials (MacArthur, 2009), helps pinpoint any misconceptions, and thus allows teachers to find any initial barriers to learning (Brown, 2002).

Using computer software to generate semantic maps is one way to foster student participation and increase their motivation to higher levels. Anderson-Inman and Horney (1997) state that CASM may activate the visual representation of any form of knowledge and make it more accessible. Also, Plotnick (1997) highlights that computer support for SM makes adaptation and manipulation easier, develops dynamic thinking, and enhances communication and storage. Due to the various uses of the technique, as noted by Ward (1988), SM has been widely used as a prereading or prewriting strategy, as a post-reading check of comprehension, or for general vocabulary development.

Selected Studies on Semantic Mapping and Vocabulary

A number of instructional studies examined the impact of SM on improving students' vocabulary (Pittelman, Levin, & Johnson, 1985; Toms-Bronowski, 1982; Dyer, 1985). Most of these studies conducted on the use of SM for vocabulary development advocate the use of SM as a pre- and post-reading strategy. Such studies were with elementary school students. For example, Johnson, Pittelman, Toms-Bronowski, & Levin (1984) examined the impact of three strategies (teacher-directed SM, semantic feature analysis, and a modified basal approach) on fourth graders' vocabulary. The aforementioned strategies were taught as examples of pre-reading vocabulary instruction. Results showed that the two groups receiving instruction in SM and semantic feature analysis outperformed the one of the modified basal approach.

Similarly, Nilforoushan (2012) worked with sixty intermediate female learners of English to examine the effect of SM (as a post-reading strategy) on students' awareness of two affective dimensions, evaluation and potency dimensions of deep vocabulary knowledge. Using a vocabulary achievement test, the researcher reported that SM was an effective strategy in improving students' awareness of the affective domains. However, Khoii and Sharififar (2012) chose thirty-eight intermediate female learners of English to compare the technique of SM to rote memorization. Posttest results showed that the difference between both groups using the above-

mentioned techniques is not significant concluding that SM is not superior to rote memorization. The researchers attributed this lack of statistical significance to poor students' involvement in map creation and the use of other cognitive strategies by the rote-memorization group such as that of mnemonic.

Thus, Al-Jarf (2010) recommended an instructional strategy for teaching vocabulary that can be followed by teachers interested in implementing a SM computer program in class. The procedure is of six stages: (a) *orientation*, (b) *presentation and modeling*, (c) *guided practice*, (d) *independent practice*, (e) *extension activities*, and (f) *assessment*. In the first stage, students are exposed to the SM software and its components. Then, the instructor can train their students in using the program by creating different kinds of maps: (a) *morphological maps* for words sharing the same root, prefix, or suffix, (b) *phonics or sound-symbol association maps* for words with silent letters, words with hidden sounds, homonyms, and homophones, (c) *syntactic maps* which focus on the plural and singular form of words, collocations, idioms, and phrasal verbs, (d) *semantic maps* for antonyms and synonyms, and (e) *phonological maps* that focus on pronunciations and stress patterns. In the *guided practice stage*, students connect words they already know with those studied in class through using the SM program. Students will be guided by their teacher to add any new word covered in class to the previously created maps according to specific categories. For the *independent practice stage*, students will continue using the program at home and will be asked to add new words to their maps and to create more maps. On tests, the instructor can give their students a semantic map of specific category and with blank nodes to be filled with appropriate items. In this way, student knowledge of vocabulary items is evaluated and hence SM can be used also for evaluation purposes.

Methodology

Population of the study

The participants of this study were ESP Saudi university female students studying at the Nursing College, KSU, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. This study took place during the first semester of the academic year 1430/31 AH (2009/10). Students were in their third semester taking an ESP course (114 NAJM) offered by COLT. The subjects were all native speakers of Arabic and they were the researcher's students. Their median age was 19, and they all had no less than seven years of EFL instruction in grades 6-12 prior to their admission to the Nursing College. Students enrolled at the College of Nursing are provided with the essential knowledge and skills that help them become qualified nurses. They are encouraged to act promptly and to think critically in order to face career challenges in any setting. Thus, students are not only offered specialized courses in nursing, but they are given other courses in chemistry, physics, nutrition, pharmacology, anatomy, physiology, biostatistics, the English language (112 NAJM and 113 NAJM), the Arabic language, the Islamic culture, etc.

Participants were of two intact groups (76 participants), but the total number of subjects became 58 because of students' irregular attendance and withdrawal, which affected the process of obtaining data. The control group (n = 26) received traditional in-class instruction that depends on the textbook only (*The Language of Medicine in English* by Ethel and Martin Tiersky) and the experimental group (n = 32) received a combination of traditional in-class instruction and SM instruction using a software (FreeMind 0.8.1).

114 NAJM is the only ESP course offered by COLT to nursing students. The course is taught to students of level three for three hours per week. It aims at improving students' reading comprehension level and vocabulary. Hence, the textbook assigned for the course (*The Language of Medicine in English* by Ethel and Martin Tiersky) is primarily of medical passages followed by sections focusing on some medical terms and exercises. Exercises are reading comprehension exercises (T/F statements, WH-Questions, identifying causes and their effects, inferencing, etc.) and vocabulary exercises, including analyzing words and word parts, matching words with their meanings or synonyms, matching meronyms (parts such as organs) with holonyms (wholes exemplified by systems), etc. The researcher covered only five required chapters from the book, namely, "Highlights from the History of Medicine", "Human Anatomy", "Disease: Its Symptoms and Treatments", "Physicians and Medical Specialties", and "First Aid in Medical Emergencies".

Research Design

This study is of a *quasi-experimental design* known as the nonequivalent-control-group design (hereafter NEGD) represented as follows:

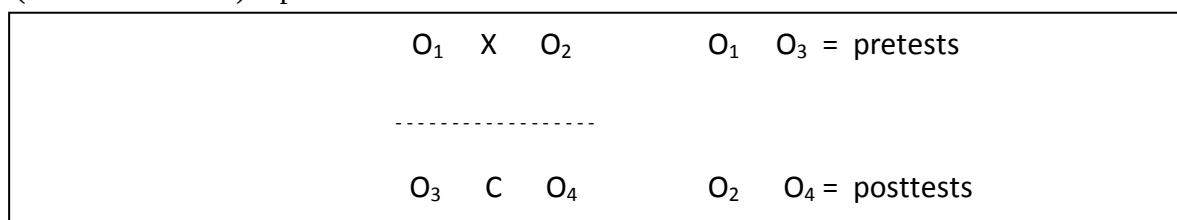


Figure 1. The pretest-posttest nonequivalent-groups design (Best & Kahn, 1986, p. 129).

Following the above illustrated design, Group A (n = 32) was the experimental group that received the intervention (SM instruction) whereas Group B (n = 26) was the one instructed traditionally using the textbook only. This study was of 11 weeks from the 14th of October to the 13th of January. SM treatment lasted 8 weeks. Both groups were pretested during Week 1 to ensure that they were comparable to each other and to attribute any resultant change in student behavior to the treatment itself and not to any other factor.

During the second week, students of the intervention group only received a training session on the procedure of SM. A week later, the experimental group started using SM to map medical terms in their textbook. The control group, on the other hand, was taught in a traditional way, as is usually the case in traditional teacher-fronted classrooms. The post-test was administered to students of both groups during Week 11 to measure the extent to which the treatment benefited students of the experimental group.

Vocabulary Test

The vocabulary test is of 30 items (matching questions). It was set to explore students' ability in identifying meanings of words using their knowledge of medical roots, matching words with their definitions, and matching meronyms with holonyms. Such vocabulary skills are emphasized in student textbook and textbook exercises. Student textbook, *The Language of Medicine in English*, is not merely of medical passages, but each passage is followed by a group of words and their definitions. Students were asked to medical terms and they had to find ways of dividing medical terms into categories to create maps of medical words and their definitions. Hence, the focus of Question III (see Appendix 1) is on matching words with their definitions.

Students were also required to generate maps of body systems (holonyms) and their organs (meronyms). Identifying the organs of each body system is the focus of Chapter 2 and thus Question II (see Appendix 1) is about matching body systems with their organs. Textbook exercises place a lot of importance on medical roots and hence students were urged to create maps of words sharing the same medical root. The focus of Question I (see Appendix 1) is on matching medical terms with their definitions and students had to depend on their knowledge of medical roots to answer this question.

The researcher chose to test student vocabulary through matching questions because such questions are used normally in testing meanings of words (Pavlu, 2009). In addition, educators argued that matching questions are the best when one wants to assess "content knowledge" (Jones, 1994). Further, Jones stated that matching questions are more efficient than multiple-choice questions since one can read one list of distracters to answer a group of items. To avoid any arbitrary answers by students, the researcher included more options than premises in the test and hence the probability of guessing is low.

Three types of validity have been obtained for the pre- and post-test: content validity, face validity, and concurrent validity. According to Hughes (1989), a test is said to have content validity if its content truly reflects the purpose of the test. It can be safely said that the test (See Appendix 1) sufficiently covers the entire body of the content that was intended to be measured. The vocabulary test, for example, contains items that were set to explore students' ability to identify meanings of words by using their knowledge of medical roots, matching words with their definitions, and matching meronyms with holonyms. Heaton (1975) stated that one should develop a table of test specifications to achieve content validity. Thus, the following test blueprint was developed by the researcher to specify the content of the test.

Face validity was also obtained for the same pre- and post-test. A test having face validity, as described by Heaton (1975), is a test that "looks right" when shown to other testers and testees (p. 159). It has been shown to three experienced teachers at COLT (two MA holders in English Literature and one MA holder in TESL) who taught the course more than once. All the reviewers confirmed the suitability of the test to student level and suggested some modifications that have been considered.

Test reliability was calculated for the pre- and post-test. According to Heaton (1975), for a test to be valid, it should be reliable in the first place. As defined by Hughes (1989), a test is reliable if it gives the same results when scored by different people or administered on different occasions. To achieve test-retest reliability, the pre- and post-test was piloted with a sample ($n = 24$) of 114 NAJM students who were not part of the present study. It was administered to the same group on two different occasions (two-week interval). Scores obtained from these two administrations were correlated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Results revealed that the test showed a moderate to high degree of correlation which suggested that students performed similarly on both occasions. Hence, the vocabulary test ($r = 0.675$) is considered to be reliable.

Description of the Treatment

FreeMind 0.8.1 is the software used in the study and it is a free mind mapping program written in Java licensed under a free software license called the GNU General Public License. The

program is used for creating mind maps. A mind map, as mentioned above, is a diagram of nodes representing ideas or words and arranged around a central concept (Tanaka, 2007, p 4). The program is notable for its ability in helping users in generating, classifying, and organizing ideas. It can also aid in problem solving and decision making (Tanaka, 2007, p 5).

Week 3 was marked as the first week of the experiment, which lasted eight weeks. The control group (Group B) was taught in a traditional way, whereas the intervention group (Group A) was exposed to the technique of SM and was required to map medical terms using FreeMind 0.8.1. With the control group, the instructor would start explaining the meanings of the key terms listed after each medical passage in each chapter. Then, the teacher would go back to the passage to explain each paragraph. After that, students of the control group were asked to do the exercises and their answers were shared and discussed among the group.

On the other hand, for the experimental group, keywords (pertinent to the chapter) were introduced by the teacher to be mapped. When the teacher introduced important keywords, she asked students to think of other words related to it to activate their prior knowledge. Using the SM software, the projector, and a laptop, students' responses were documented and the teacher prompted students to find ways of categorizing such words and connecting them to each other. Hence, students worked with the teacher and individually to map some medical terms of the passage by identifying their synonyms, antonyms, definitions (see Figure 2), derivatives, etc., or by finding other medical terms that share with the key one its prefix, suffix, or its root (see Figure 3), or identifying meronyms and holonyms (see Figure 4). As students reached the end of the intervention, they were able to map more medical terms. Maps created by students ranged from re-focused semantic maps (teacher-directed emphasis) to general semantic maps (student-generated) made towards the end of the treatment.

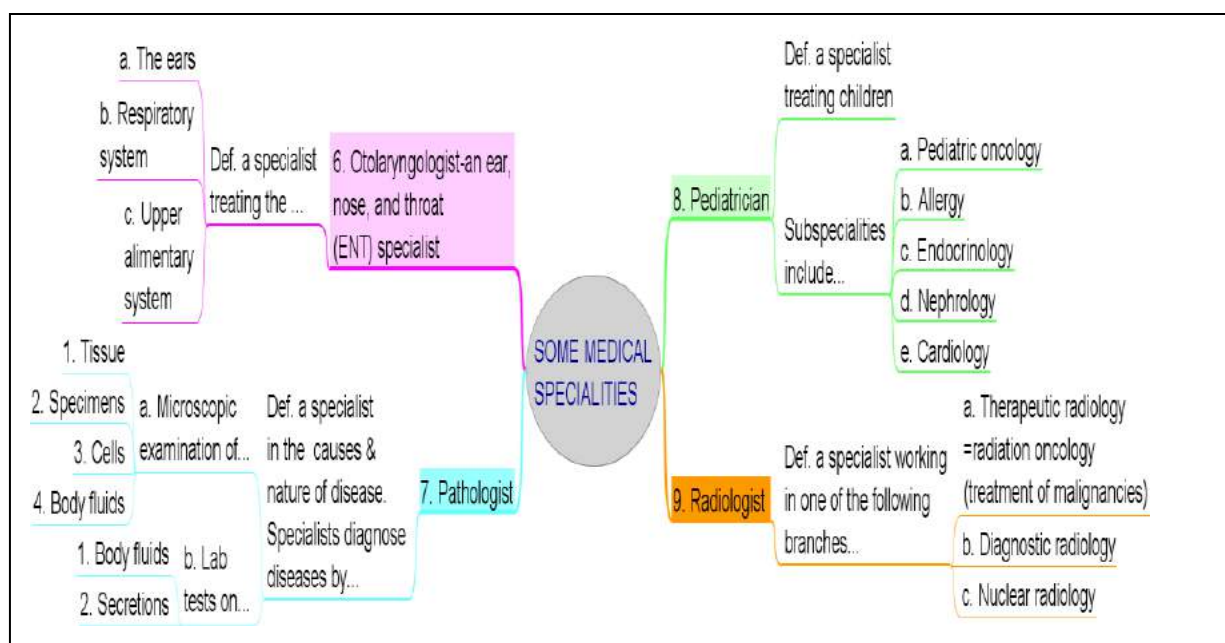


Figure 2. A semantic map showing some words and their definitions (Tiersky & Tiersky, 1992).

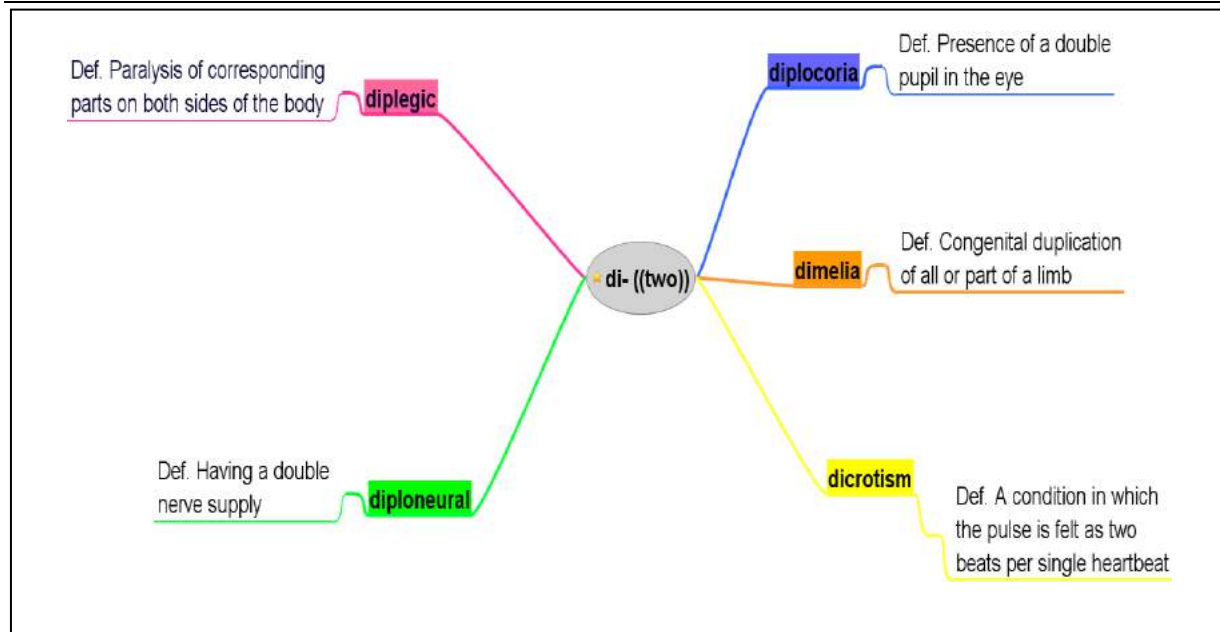


Figure 3. A student-created semantic map showing words that share the same prefix.

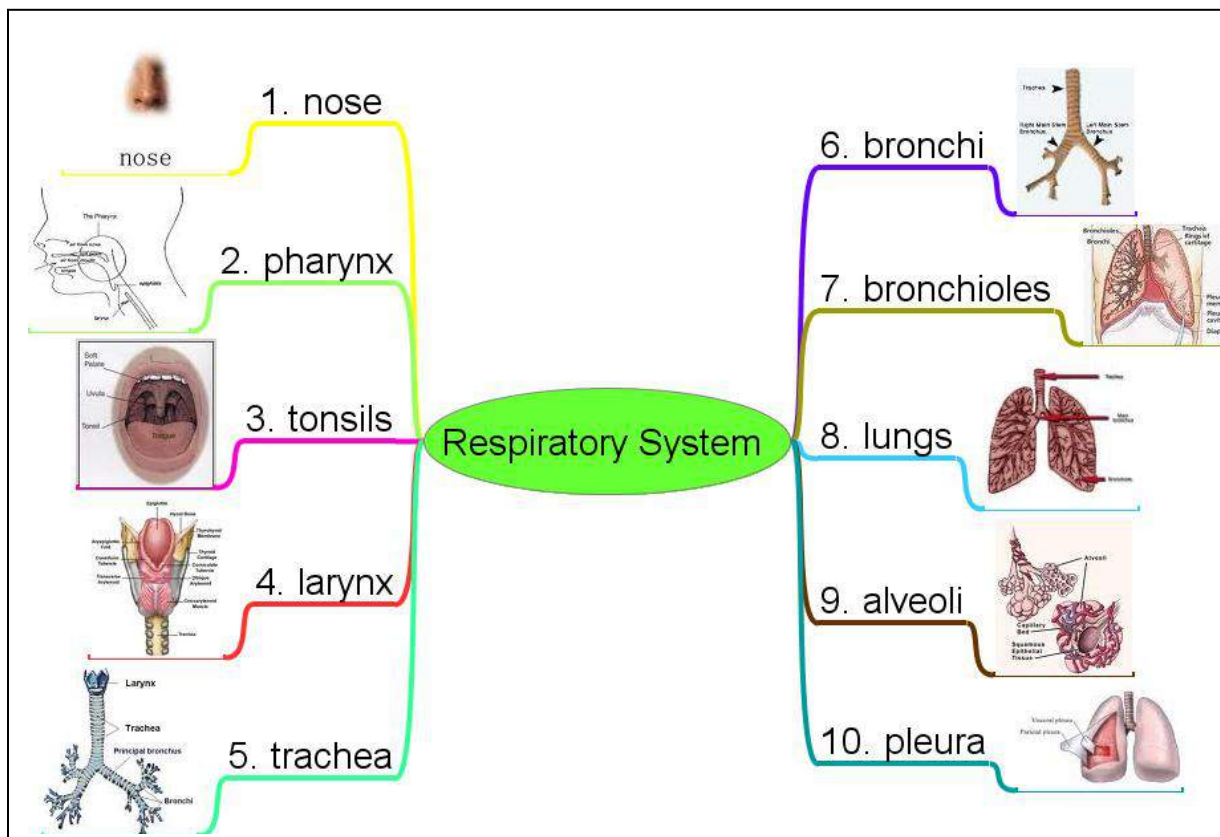


Figure 4. A map of the respiratory system (as a holonym) and its organs (meronyms) (Tiersky & Tiersky, 1992).

Data Analysis

To analyze the obtained data, the researcher used descriptive statistics to describe the basic features of the collected data. Descriptive statistics are necessary to show the distribution, the central tendency (mean, median, and mode), and the dispersion (standard deviation) of data. Inferential statistics such as the independent samples *t* tests, the paired samples *t* tests, and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient were used to compare the mean scores of both groups, to measure student progress in each group, and to compare student performance on one post-test with that of another.

The research question asks: Is CASM an effective technique for increasing nursing students' knowledge of medical terms? To answer this question, one needs to compare student performance in both groups before and after the treatment. The pre-test was used to ensure that both groups were equivalent before carrying out the experiment. To ensure the equality of both groups, the researcher used the independent samples *t* test. Results of the vocabulary pre-test (see Table 1) showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups. The mean score of the experimental group ($n = 32$) was (16.31) with a standard deviation (SD) of (4.496), whereas the control group ($n = 26$) scored (16.34) with a SD of (4.947). As shown in Table 1, the Sig. (2-tailed) was (0.978) and it is greater than (0.05) and hence one can conclude that there was no significant difference in the mean scores between the two groups before the commencement of the treatment.

Table 1 Vocabulary Pre-test Results Using the Independent Samples *t* Test

Group	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i> -Value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Case group	32	16.31	4.496	-.027	.978
Control group	26	16.34	4.947		

Note. The probability of error (*P*-value) is significant if it is equal or less than .05.

To find out if CASM has increased the vocabulary range of students in the experimental group, the independent samples *t* test was used to analyze vocabulary post-test results. Table 4-6 showed that the mean score of the experimental group was (28.21) with a SD of (1.929) and that the control group scored (25.15) with a SD of (3.966). Table 2 showed that the Sig. (2-tailed) was (.000) and it is less than (0.05) indicating a significant difference between both groups favoring the case group.

Table 2 Vocabulary Post-test Results Using the Independent Samples *t* Test

Group	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i> -Value	Sig. (2-tailed)

Case group	32	28.21	1.929	3.608	.000
Control group	26	25.15	3.966		

Note. The probability of error (*P*-value) is significant if it is equal or less than .05.

Besides the analyses presented above, the researcher used the paired samples *t* test to measure any increase in student vocabulary by comparing student mean scores (of the same group) in the pre-test with those of the post-test. As shown in Table 3, the pre-test mean score of the experimental group was (16.31) while their post-test mean score was (28.21). The Sig (2-tailed) was (.000) and it is less than (0.05) indicating a significant difference between student performance on both tests in favor of the post-test.

Table 3 Paired Samples *t* Test for the Difference in Student Vocabulary Between the Pre- and Post-test of the Case Group

Test	Mean	N	SD	<i>t</i> -Value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test	16.31	32	4.496	-18.923	.000
Post-test	28.21	32	1.929		

Note. The probability of error (*P*-value) is significant if it is equal or less than .05.

On the other hand, the pre-test mean score of the control group was (16.34) while their post-test mean score was (25.15). As shown in Table 4, the Sig (2-tailed) was (.000) and it is less than (0.05) indicating a significant difference between student performance on both tests favoring the post-test.

Table 4 Paired Samples *t* Test for the Difference in Student Vocabulary Between the Pre- and Post-test of the Control Group

Test	Mean	N	SD	<i>t</i> -Value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test	16.34	26	4.947	-10.357	.000
Post-test	25.15	26	3.966		

Note. The probability of error (*P*-value) is significant if it is equal or less than .05.

From the results advanced above, student vocabulary of both groups has increased significantly, but students of the treatment group outperformed those of the control group. One can conclude that this significant increase in the vocabulary of the experimental group was due to the use of CASM. As a result, the researcher would reject the null hypothesis and would state that CASM is an effective technique for increasing students' knowledge of medical terms.

Discussion of Results

Students' vocabulary of both groups has increased significantly but students of the experimental group outperformed those in the control group in the vocabulary post-test. Similar findings have been emphasized by Toms-Bronowski (1982), Pittelman and Johnson (1985), Nilforoushan (2012) and Moore and Readence (1984). It is important to note that such an improvement in performance can be attributed to a number of factors. First, students were given a chance to be responsible of their learning and create their own maps as they explore the intricacies of the program (Khoii & Sharififar, 2012). Further, the instructor's guidance at the beginning of the course helped students overcome most of the technical problems. It also paved the way for students to focus on the process of mapping medical terms. In addition, the taught vocabulary was contextualized and this gave students more than one way to map terms (holonyms and meronyms, words sharing the same root or prefix, hypernyms and hyponyms, etc.). Using SM as a memorization tool, students' retention of word meaning has been improved. SM was also useful as an evaluation method to check on student learning.

The present study suggests some theoretical and pedagogical implications that need to be highlighted. Theoretically, this study reinforces the role of prior knowledge in helping students acquire new information. As suggested by previous research, background knowledge and word knowledge are equally essential for reading comprehension (Little & Box, 2011). Certainly, the technique of SM aided learners in vocabulary acquisition and helped them relate new information to old information. Pedagogically, the study emphasizes the role of computer in classrooms. Computer programs can add easiness to task accomplishment and enjoyment to learning activities. Further, computers can make students' assignments more organized and reduce dependence on teachers as the only source of knowledge. They make students more motivated and more engaged in the learning process. Obviously, CASM helped students learn independently and think more deeply. It was extremely useful in summarizing and organizing medical passages and hence can be used as an effective revision tool. It would be also suggested from this study that metacognitive strategies can work very efficiently if used with small classes, so it would be easier for instructors to provide intensive training for students and detailed explanation of each student-created map. It has been expected that map creation during class hours would take up more time than scheduled, but CASM facilitated student comprehension of medical passages and saved class time.

Conclusion

Nursing students at KSU struggle a lot in reading courses because their repertoire of medical vocabulary is so limited. . Thus, the researcher used CASM with level-three nursing students to map medical terms for the purpose of vocabulary retention. The present study, therefore, aimed at investigating the efficiency of CASM in improving ESP students' vocabulary knowledge. The SM intervention lasted 8 weeks and students of both groups (traditional and

experimental) were pre-tested and post-tested. An analysis of students' scores on the post-tests indicated that the experimental group achieved significantly greater gains than the control group. Based on the study findings, some suggestions are offered. First, FreeMind 0.8.1 could not exhibit the relationship between nodes of the same level and of different levels. Therefore, other mind-mapping programs should be tried if one wants to create more complex maps to emphasize more relationships between words. Additionally, to map terms related to the same passage, one map can be linked to another using a different program. Also, examining words from more than one aspect helps in vocabulary retention.

About the Author:

Ghuzayyil M. Al-Otaibi is a lecturer at the College of Languages & Translation (King Saud University) who has been teaching English for 10 years. She has her MA in applied linguistics and she is interested in cognitive linguistics and teaching English for specific purposes (ESP).

References

- Al-Jarf, R. (2009, April). *Enhancing freshman students' writing skills with a mind-mapping software*. Paper presented at the 5th International Scientific Conference on E-learning and Software for Education, Bucharest, Romania. Retrieved May 17, 2009, from http://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/aljarf/Documents/eLSE%20Educational%20Technology%20Conference%202009%20-%20Romania/994.1.%20AlJarf_Enhancing.pdf
- Al-Jarf, R. (2010). Enhancing freshman students' vocabulary skills with a mind-mapping software. In J. Lloyd, & D. Espiritu (Eds.), *Touchpoint Conference Proceedings* (pp. 92-100). Philippines, Manila: La Salle University.
- Anderson-Inman, L., & Horney, M. (1997). Computer-based concept mapping: Enhancing literacy with tools for visual thinking. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 40, 302-306.
- Andrews, K., Tressler, K., & Mintzes, J. (2008) Assessing environmental understanding: an application of the concept mapping strategy. *Environmental Education Research*, 14(5), 519-536.
- Berkowitz, S. (1986, March 1). Effects of instruction in text organization on sixth-grade students' memory for expository reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21(2), 161-78. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ332891) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Berry, J., & Chew, S. (2008). Improving learning through interventions of student-generated questions and concept maps. *Teaching of Psychology*, 35(4), 305-312.
- Best, J., & Kahn, J. (1989). *Research in education* (6th ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, D. (2002). Creative concept mapping. *Science Teacher*, 69(3), 58-61.
- Brown, R., Waring, R., & Donkaewbua, S. (2008). Incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading, reading while listening, and listening to stories. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 20(1), 23-45
- Buzan, T. (2000). *The mind map book*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Chiou, C. (2009). Effects of concept mapping strategy on learning performance in business and economics statistics. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 55-69.
- Davis, F. B. (1944). Fundamental factors of comprehension in reading. *Psychometrika*, 9, 185-197.

- Draper, A., & Moeller, G. (1971, January 1). *We think with words (Therefore, to improve thinking, teach vocabulary)*. Phi Delta Kappan. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ036207) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Dyer, P. A. (1985). A study of the effects of pre-reading mapping on comprehension and transfer of learning. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 46(9), pp. 26–41.
- Englert, C., & Mariage, T. (1991, March 1). Making students partners in the comprehension process: Organizing the reading posse. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 14(2), 123-38. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ431318) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Fisher, R. (1995). *Teaching children to learn*. London: Bloch well / Simon and Schuster/ Stanley thornes.
- Gauthier, L. (1991, September 1). The effects of vocabulary gain upon instructional reading level. *Reading Improvement*, 28(3), 195-202. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ448366) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Gonzalez, H., Palencia, A., Umana, L., Galindo, L., & Villafrade, L. (2008). Mediated Learning Experience and Concept Maps: A Pedagogical Tool for Achieving Meaningful Learning in Medical Physiology Students. *Advances in Physiology Education*, 32, 312-316.
- Hall, T., & Strangman, N. (2002). *Graphic organizers*. Wakefield, MA: National Center on Accessing the General Curriculum. Retrieved March 26, 2011, from http://aim.cast.org/learn/historyarchive/backgroundpapers/graphic_organizers
- Hay, D. B. (2007). Using concept maps to measure deep, surface and non-learning outcomes. *Studies in Higher Education*, 32, 1, 39-57.
- Heaton, J. B. (1975). *Writing English Language Tests*. London: Longman.
- Horst, M. (2005). Learning L2 vocabulary through extensive reading: A measurement study. *The Canadian Modern Language Review / La Revue Canadienne Des Langues Vivantes*, 61(3), 355-382.
- Hughes, A. (1989). *Testing for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Jackson, J., Dizney, H., & Purdue Univ., L. (1963, June 1). Intensive Vocabulary Training. *Journal of Developmental Reading*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED040214) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Jegede, O., Alaiyemola, F., & Okebukola, P. (1990). The effect of concept mapping on students' anxiety and achievement in biology. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 27, 951-960.
- Jitlakoat, Y. (2005). The effectiveness of using concept mapping to improve primary medical care nursing competencies among fourth year assumption university nursing students. *Journal of Technology*, 9(2), 111-120.
- Johnson, D.D., Pittelman, S., Toms-Bronowski, S., & Levin, K. (1984). An investigation of the effects of prior knowledge and vocabulary acquisition on passage comprehension. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED254830) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Johnson, D. D., Toms-Browowski, S., & Buss, R. R. (1983). Fundamental factors in reading comprehension revisited .In L. Gentile & M. Kamil (Eds.), *Reading Research Revisited* (pp. 247-255). Columbus: Charless Merrill.
- Jones, L. V. (1994). Perspectives on educational Testing: Discussion. *Educational measurement: Issues and practice*, 13(2), 28-30.

- Khoii, R., & Sharififar, S. (2013). Memorization versus semantic mapping in L2 vocabulary acquisition. *ELT Journal*, 67(2), 199-209.
- Laflamme, J. (1997, February 1). The effect of the multiple exposure vocabulary method and the target reading/writing strategy on test scores. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 40(5), 372-81. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ547133) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Little, D. C., & Box, J. A. (2011). The use of a specific schema theory strategy-semantic mapping-to facilitate vocabulary development and comprehension for at-risk readers. *Reading Improvement*, 48(1), 24-31.
- MacArthur, C.A. (2009). Reflections on research on writing and technology for struggling writers. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 24(2), 93-103.
- Machalias, R. (1991). Semantic networks in vocabulary teaching and their application in the foreign language classroom. *Babel: Journal of the Australian Modern Language Teachers' Association*, 26(3), 19-24.
- Mezynski, K. (1983, June 1). Issues concerning the acquisition of knowledge: Effects of vocabulary training on reading comprehension. *Review of Educational Research*, 53(2), 253-79. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ284882) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Moore, D. W., & Readence, J. E. (1984). A quantitative and qualitative review of graphic organizer research. *Journal of Educational Research*, 78(1), 11-17.
- Nilforoushan, S. (2012). The effect of teaching vocabulary through semantic mapping on EFL learners' awareness of the affective dimensions of deep vocabulary knowledge. *English Language Teaching*, 5(10), 164.
- Novak, J. (1998). Learning, creating and using knowledge. Concept Maps™ as facilitative tools in schools and in corporations. London: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ojima, M. (2006). Concept mapping as pre-task planning: A case study of three Japanese ESL writers. *System: An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics*, 34(4), 566-585.
- Özmen, H., Demircioğlu, G., & Coll, R. K. (2009). A comparative study of the effects of a concept mapping enhanced laboratory experience on Turkish high school students' understanding of acid-base chemistry. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*, 7(1), 1-24.
- Pavlu, I. (2009). *Testing vocabulary*. Diploma thesis, Masaryk University Brno. Retrieved May 17, 2009, from http://is.muni.cz/th/152699/pdf_m/Testing_vocabulary.pdf
- Pearson, P. D., & Johnson, D. D. (1978). *Teaching reading comprehension*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Pittelman, S., Johnson, D., & Wisconsin Center for Education Research. (1985, December 1). *Project on the investigation of the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction*. Final Report. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED276988) Retrieved May 19, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Pittelman, S., Wisconsin Center for Education Research, & Others. (1985, September 1). *An investigation of two instructional settings in the use of semantic mapping with poor readers*. Program Report 85-4. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED262380) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Plotnick, E. (1997, June). *Concept mapping: A graphical system for understanding the relationship between concepts*. ERIC Digest. Syracuse, NY : ERIC Clearinghouse on

- Information and Technology. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED407938). Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Shmaefsky, B. (2007). E-concept mapping. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 36(4), 14-15.
- Siddiqi, M. S. (2007). *The effect of using computer-assisted semantic mapping on the achievement of EFL students in reading comprehension at the second year in secondary school in Makkah*. Unpublished master's thesis, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Stahl, S., & Kapinus, B. (1991, September 1). Possible sentences: Predicting word meanings to teach content area vocabulary. *Reading Teacher*, 45(1), 36-43. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ431097) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Tanaka, B. (2007). Free your mind with Freemind. *LinuxWorld Magazine*. Retrieved March 25, 2011, from <http://www.networkworld.com/news/2007/101107-freemind.html>
- Thorndike, R. L. (1973-1974). Reading as reasoning. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 9, 135-147.
- Thurstone, L. L. (1946). Note on a reanalysis of Davis' reading tests. *Psychometrika*, 11, 185-188.
- Tiersky, E., & Tiersky, M. (1992). *The language of medicine in English* (Rev. ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Toms-Bronowski, S., & Wisconsin Center for Education Research. (1982, November 1). *An investigation of the effectiveness of semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis with intermediate grade level children*. Program Report 83-3. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED224000) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Vogt, D. (1983). *Semantic mapping as a vocabulary teaching technique to improve recall of word meaning*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED258150) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Ward, A. (1988). *Semantic mapping in the adult learning center*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED294150) Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC database.
- Waring, R., & Takaki, M. (2003). At what rate do learners learn and retain new vocabulary from reading a graded reader? *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 15, 130-163.

Appendix1. Vocabulary test

Name:..... Group:..... Score:...../30

I. Instructions: Use your knowledge of word parts to match words in Column B with their definitions in Column A. Answers in Column B will be used only once. (1 point each)

Column A	Column B
.....1. Inflammation of the skin	A. Cardiectasis
.....2. The condition of having an abnormally low body temperature	B. Dermatitis
.....3. The surgical removal of the whole or a part of the stomach	C. Diplopia
.....4. The study of the origin and development of the mind	D. Gastrectomy
.....5. The study of the anatomy and diseases of the ear	E. Histokinesis
.....6. The free discharge of a thin nasal mucus	F. Hypothermia
.....7. Double vision, in which a single object is seen as	G. Leukodystrophy
	H. Oncotomy
	I. Otology
	J. Psychogenesis
	K. Rhinorrhea

.....two objects	L. Synergist
.....8. Conjoined twins united at the chest	M. Thoracopagus
.....9. The incision of a tumor or swelling	N. Vasculitis
.....10. Disturbance of the white substance of the brain	
.....11. An agent that increases the effectiveness of another agent when combined with it	
.....12. Movement in the tissue of the body	
.....13. Dilation of the heart	

II. Instructions: Match words in Column A to the systems where they can be found in Column B. Answers in Column B will be used only once. (1 point each)

Column A	Column B
.....1. Rib cage	A. Cardio-vascular
.....2. Thyroid	B. Digestive
.....3. Larynx	C. Endocrine
.....4. Alimentary canal	D. Integumentary
.....5. Urethra	E. Nervous
.....6. Medulla oblongata	F. Respiratory
.....7. Vena cava	G. Skeletal-muscular
	H. Urinary

III. Instructions: Match the terms in Column B to their definitions in column A. Answers in Column B will be used only once. (1 point each)

Column A	Column B
.....1. Infectious agents given to patients to establish resistance to particular diseases	A. Antidote
.....2. A dead body	B. Atria
.....3. A substance that neutralizes poisons or their effects	C. Cadaver
.....4. The upper chambers of the heart	D. Hemorrhaging
.....5. A combination of symptoms usually found in a particular disease	E. Hysterectomy
.....6. The body's ability to resist microorganisms	F. Immunity
.....7. Middle-ear surgery for hearing loss	G. Plasma
.....8. Surgical removal of the uterus	H. Stapedectomies
.....9. Severe bleeding	I. Syndrome
.....10. The yellow-colored liquid component of blood, in which blood cells are suspended	J. Vaccines
	K. Antiseptic

Attenuating Obscenity of Swearwords in the Amateur Subtitling of English Movies into Arabic

Abed Shahooth Khalaf

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication
Universiti Putra Malaysia

Sabariah Md Rashid

Department of English, Universiti Putra Malaysia
Selangor, Malaysia

Abstract

The interlingual subtitling of swearwords poses problems to translators due to differences in the degree of tolerating the obscenity of such words by various speech communities. To account for the perplexities incurred in the intercultural transference of swearwords, translators adopt attenuation strategies that facilitate their mediating role between cultures. In line with this, the present study attempts to identify the strategies adopted by Arab amateur subtitlers to mitigate the obscenity of swearwords in English movies. It utilizes a corpus-based approach to identify the factors affecting the decisions made by these subtitlers. The content analysis method was used in categorizing swearwords and in the translation comparison process, Toury's (1996) 'coupled pairs' model was adopted to identify attenuation strategies. The findings revealed that the common strategies used to mitigate the obscenity of swearwords are deletion, change of semantic fields, register shift and the use of archaic words, using euphemistic expressions, generalization and linguistic substitution and ambiguity. Moreover, cultural norms play a significant role in choosing the translation strategy to handle swearwords.

Keywords: amateur subtitling, attenuation, swearwords, translation behavior

Introduction

The digital revolution has brought nations very close to each other; the physical borders have been removed making the world a very small village with globalization. As a result of this physical approximation, cultural interaction has tremendously increased via the fast and convenient access to means of communication. Such an attractive environment has invoked the desire of enthusiastic people to learn more about the peculiarities of other cultures. Their desire was nourished through the consumption of audiovisual productions such as films and TV programs as platforms that represent good reflections of the traditions, customs and life styles of the culture they depict. Nowadays, people can access such productions via TV satellite channels, YouTube, Internet websites and even personal mobile phones whereby they can watch whatever they like anytime and everywhere (Orrego-Carmona, 2012). As a result, people abandoned the traditional ways of acquiring knowledge through reading books and exploited the digital facilities for that end. According to Gambier (2009), people nowadays acquire knowledge via watching subtitled audiovisual products much more than reading books.

The need for foreign audiovisual productions has given prominence to audiovisual translation as an active discipline within Translation Studies (Baker, 2001). The fact that most audiovisual productions are produced in English makes the translation of such productions into the consumers' native language mandatory. This situation poses a challenge on translators due to the increase demand on translated films and TV programs (Diaz-Cintas, 2005). As is well-known, the most important mediums for translating such productions are subtitling and dubbing. The choice between these two mediums is based on economic and ideological considerations, hence, subtitling has become prominent because it is cheaper, faster and it preserves the authenticity of the original text (Chiaro, 2009).

Due to the delay of the official release of subtitled movies, eager movie fans with good command of English and the subtitling apparatus established forums and Internet logs to undertake the subtitling of foreign movies for their peer movie fans. These were referred to as amateur or fan subtitlers (fansubbers) who exploit the user-friendly subtitling software freely available on the Internet to carry out the subtitling of movies, upload their subtitles and disseminate them worldwide.

This phenomenon is not new and according to Diaz-Cintas and Sanchez (2006) it had its roots in the 1980s signaling a "subtitled version of a Japanese anime program." (p. 37). Fansubbing became common when a great deal of anime consumers began participating in the subtitling of such programs. Initially, when it was difficult for fans of Japanese anime programs to understand Japanese, they collaborated through pirating a copy of each anime and subtitling it into English. Later, this same idea was adopted in other spheres particularly in movie subtitling.

What characterizes amateur subtitlers is that they carry out movie subtitling on free basis because they conceive subtitling as hobby (Luczaj, Holy-Luczaj & Cwiek-Rogalska, (2014). They are motivated by their desire to be the first to do the subtitling and help other fans comprehend the storyline of the foreign movie. Fernández-Costales (2012, p. 9) describes the amateur subtitling notion as "the practice of subtitling audiovisual material by fans for fans". Since amateur subtitlers are themselves movie fans, they would best understand their peers' needs. Accordingly, the 'corrupt' professional subtitling approach which removes all cultural

specificities by adopting 'domestication' as translation orientation, is challenged by the amateur subtitling which is 'abusive' and makes viewers able to experience the peculiarities of foreign cultures through adopting 'foreignization' as translation orientation. (Nornes, 1999). This revolt against professional subtitling conventions represents a distinctive feature of amateur subtitlers. Accordingly, they are usually characterized as being more creative in comparison with professional subtitlers (Diaz-Cintas 2005 & Costales 2012).

However, amateur subtitlers lack formal translation training and they are said to be of low linguistic and pragmatic competency (Bogucki, 2009; La Forge & Tonin, 2014). In addition, they lack censoring or editing of their translation performances. Such an environment can affect the performance of the subtitlers particularly when handling cultural specific issues including swearwords in movies when moving from an open culture into a very conservative one such as the Arab culture.

A noticeable phenomenon that goes hand in hand with the aforementioned developments in the status of audiovisual translation is the increasing use of swearwords in English movies. According to Jay (1992, p. 223) "there has been a progressive increase in the amount of swearing in motion pictures over time." Moreover, for Bucaria (2009, p. 16), the deployment of "swearing, sexual explicitness, and extreme violence" has become "part of the DNA" of American movies and TV shows. The use of swearwords, puns, repetitions, interjections, hesitations and slot fillers characteristic of spontaneous speech is meant to make the movie more realistic. It represents a reflection of the manipulation of language in different spheres of life by different people to achieve certain pragmatic functions. When it comes to swearwords, they are mainly used to express inner feelings such as anger, frustration, annoyance, surprise, happiness, power, solidarity and group membership. However, to express such functions, the literal meaning of swearwords is ruled out (Andersson & Trudgill, 1990). Moreover, since swearwords refer to taboo objects or activities, they are perceived as disgusting and are face threatening due to the feelings they invoke.

During the intercultural subtitling process, swearwords pose problems to translators particularly those with little experience. Such words require great care in subtitling for two reasons. Firstly, according to Ivarsson and Carroll (1998, p. 126), swearwords "seem to have a stronger effect in writing than in speech". Secondly, cultures differ in their tolerance of offensive language specially when displayed in public. Thus, in certain cases the cultural and ideological factors may have a more restrictive effect on the subtitler than the technical constraints characteristic of subtitling (Fawcett, 2003).

It is interesting to note that the problems incurred in subtitling swearwords in foreign movies into Arabic have attracted the attention of some Arab scholars (notably, Kuddro, (2000); Al-Bin-Ali, (2006); Mazid, (2006). The difficulty of rendering swearwords was highlighted by these scholars. However, none of their studies was solely devoted to identify the strategies adopted to attenuate the obscenity of swearwords or the factors influencing the decision making process. More importantly, none of them has addressed the amateur subtitling phenomenon.

With this in mind, the present study attempts 1) to identify the translation strategies adopted by amateur subtitlers to attenuate the obscenity of swearwords in English movies

subtitled into Arabic, and 2) to highlight the factors influencing the decisions made by these subtitlers in their treatment of swearwords when rendered into Arabic.

Review of related literature

The Amateur/nonprofessional subtitling phenomenon is gaining momentum nowadays as evidenced by the increasing number of studies carried out in this field (Orrego-Carmona, 2014). Several scholars have directed attention to approach this infant phenomenon from different perspectives despite its dubious nature. The focus of scholars centered on issues such as translation patterns adopted by amateur subtitlers, problems they encounter, and comparisons between the performance of amateur and professional subtitlers.

Regarding handling swearwords in intercultural subtitling, scholars indicated inconsistency in amateur subtitlers' behavior. For example, Garcia-Manchon (2013) carried out a qualitative study on a number of English movies with high occurrences of swearwords and their professional and amateur subtitles in Spanish. The findings of the study highlighted omission as the most dominant strategy used resulting in a reduction in the number of swearwords in both the professional and amateur subtitles compared with the original text. However, omission in the professionally subtitled versions was higher than that in the amateur subtitling, indicating a more censoring trend of professional subtitlers.

Similarly, Massidda (2013) compared the translation behavior of professional and amateur subtitlers in rendering offensive language in the English movie 'Californication'. The findings of this study indicated that while professional subtitlers mitigated or euphemized swearwords like 'motherfucker', 'dick', and 'asshole' into 'son of a good mother', 'biscuit' and 'idiot', respectively, amateur subtitlers rendered them faithfully.

In another study on Chinese amateur subtitling, Tian (2011) found that subtitlers adopted self-censoring of swearwords when subtitling American TV shows into Chinese. They either deleted swearwords or replaced them with random symbols such as '*&^%&'. Furthermore, the phrase 'stop words' was used to replace swearwords like 'son of a bitch' to become 'son of a stop word'.

As for scholarly on subtitling English movies into Arabic, reviewing the literature revealed some scattering references to the treatment of swearwords in studies conducted in this field. To begin with, Kuddro (2000) proposed the censoring of swearwords and religious references when subtitling foreign movies into Arabic because Arab audiences scorn the display of such references on the screen. The recommended censoring strategies included deletion and dynamic translation.

Similarly, Al-Bin-Ali (2006) warned against the irrational handling of swearwords into Arabic because their display can 'shock' the Arab viewers. The findings of her study revealed inconsistency in the strategies used to subtitle swearwords into Arabic. In some cases such words were euphemized while in others they were literally rendered.

Moreover, Mazid (2006) argued that Arab subtitlers adopted 'chunking' as translation strategy proposed by Katan (1999) in their treatment of swearwords. Accordingly, 'fuck' was chunked sideways in Arabic into [ضاجع] (Lit. slept with). Mazid believes that although this

strategy might remove the emotive overtone from the swearword, the translation product is more acceptable because the equivalent colloquial Arabic word "cannot be written on screen in an Arab culture." (p. 93). He, thus, encouraged subtitlers to analyze the context in which the swearword is used to decide to translate or leave it out.

The previous studies collectively point to inconsistency in the strategies adopted for rendering swearwords into Arabic and that each subtitler employed strategies as suited his/her perspective; a case implicating the difficulty of handling the sensitive issue of swearwords. This renders unattainable the formulation of a systematic categorization of translation strategies for attenuating swearwords as a referenced index. It is clear that the aforementioned studies conducted on subtitling English movies into Arabic were not exclusively meant to identify the translation strategies for mitigating swearwords. Furthermore, they focused mainly on the professional subtitling and completely neglected the amateur subtitling. Therefore, the value of the present study lies in its contribution to fill this gap in the literature by focusing on the of Arab amateur subtitlers' translation behavior with respect to the strategies they employ when handling swearwords and the factors influencing their translation decision-making processes.

Characteristics of interlingual subtitling

Interlingual subtitling is an audiovisual communication process aiming at assisting audiences unfamiliar with the film's language or TV program to comprehend its dialogue and follow the developments of the storyline. According to Diaz-Cintas and Remael (2007, p. 8), subtitling is a

Translation practice that consists of presenting a written text, generally on the lower part of the screen, that endeavors to recount the original dialogue of the speakers, as well as the discursive elements that appear in the image . . . , and the information that is contained on the sound-track

In comparison with other types of audiovisual translation including dubbing and voice-over, interlingual subtitling implies two shifts in language medium; one from the spoken to the written mode and another from the movie language into another language. This compound process renders interlingual subtitling 'diagonal' and 'diasemiotic' while dubbing and voice-over are 'isosemiotis' since they maintain the same mode (spoken to spoken) (Gottlieb 2001, p. 17).

The shift from the spoken to the written mode entails the eradication of most of the 'redundant' elements characteristic of face to face interactions such as repetitions, intonation and swearwords among others. Such 'redundant' elements are useful in lubricating people's everyday use of language, facilitating comprehension and in communicating some other pragmatic functions. As a result of this elimination, the subtitler usually attempts to exploit the visual, verbal and nonverbal codes provided by the polysemiotic nature of the movie texture to facilitate the viewer's understanding and communicate the intended meaning.

The reduction referred to above is necessitated by the technical (spatial and temporal) constraints characteristic of subtitling. As for the spatial constraint, the number of lines to appear on the screen should not exceed two per subtitle with a total of (35-40) characters per line (Ivarsson & Carroll 1998). Such a limitation is necessary in order not to occupy a big portion of

the small TV screen and disturb the viewer's enjoyment from watching the movie. The temporal constraint stems from the synchronization that should be achieved between the actors' utterances and the added subtitles. A care should be taken to regulate the appearance and disappearance of the subtitles with the moment an actor begins and finishes his/her utterance. Unless synchronization is maintained, confusion may ensue resulting in an overlap between the turn shifts and appearing subtitles. To reiterate, subtitles may either appear before an actor starts speaking or remain longer than necessary whereby another actor starts speaking, making the viewer unable to identify the speaker and corresponding subtitles. In relation to this, Ivarsson and Carroll (1998) suggest that the amount of time for subtitles to remain on the screen should not be less than one and a half seconds and it should not exceed six seconds depending on the number of lines in the subtitle.

Another characteristic of interlingual subtitling is the concurrency between the spoken language in the source text and the added subtitles in the target language. This represents another restrictive factor for the subtitler because every viewer with reasonable knowledge of the movie's language is able to judge the quality of the subtitling (Gottlieb, 2001). Dubbing and voice-over, on the other hand, 'hide' the original soundtrack, hence giving the translator more freedom to edit and tailor the translation to make it conform to the viewers' 'expectations' (Chesterman, 1997). However, keeping the original soundtrack intact gives more authenticity to subtitling in comparison with dubbing and voice over as it maintains the sense of otherness which is an essential objective behind watching foreign movies.

What the previous account of the characteristics of interlingual subtitling entails is the fact that the subtitlers work under different competing forces; the physical, technical, linguistic and cultural. This state of affairs led scholars to describe interlingual subtitling as a 'constrained translation' (Titford, 1982), or as an act of adaptation.

Methodology

After an account of the criteria followed in selecting the movie that represents the corpus of the study is given, the data collection and analysis stage is clarified in detail. In the analysis process, the translation strategies adopted to attenuate obscenity are presented and discussed with typical illustrative examples. When discussing the translation strategy 'change in semantic field', Allan and Burridge's (2006) model was adopted with some modification. The selection of this model is justified since it categorizes swearwords according to the semantic field each word belongs to.

Research approach

The study is qualitative in nature and aims at identifying the translation strategies adopted in mitigating the obscenity of swearwords in the English movie when subtitled into Arabic. Specifically, it focused on the subtitles of only one movie (*Alpha Dog 2006*) which contains high occurrences of swearwords to constitute its corpus. The movie was selected based on three criteria:

First, it contains the highest occurrences of swearwords (773) for a time span extending from 2000 to 2010. The ten-year-period identified was deemed sufficient of the movies produced in this time span to be representative of the genre. The fact that this movie contains the highest

number of swearwords was verified by Moad's (2011) list of movies which most frequently use the word 'fuck'. From among the American crime drama movies produced in this period, the movie *Alpha Dog* displays the highest occurrences (367) of this word.

Second, the movie is from the American crime drama genre which displays confrontations and conflicts between characters including gangsters, drug dealers and murderers and the police which instigate them to excessively use swearwords for certain pragmatic purposes. According to Parini (2013), the use of swearwords is common in American films, particularly in "spy, mafia and gangster films, films starring drug addicts and dealers, prostitutes, homeless people, soldiers, convicts, warders, and policemen." (p. 154). Besides, unlike in other genres, subtitles in the crime drama genre are indispensable for viewers to understand the actions. Hence, the subtitling of the crime drama genre, according to Minchinton (1993 cited in De Linde 1995), represents a challenge for the translator and the viewers as almost a full account of the movie dialogue should be rendered in the subtitles. Moreover, most of the movies broadcast in the Arab World are produced by Hollywood in America (Gamal, 2008).

Third, it is a popular movie and its source dialogue scripts and subtitles can be downloaded from the Internet. The dialogue scripts were downloaded from the website <http://www.opensubtitles.org/en/search> while its subtitles in Arabic were downloaded from <http://www.subscenes.com>.

Data collection

The data collection of the study included two stages: 1) the downloading of the dialogue scripts of the movie and its Arabic subtitles and 2) the extraction of all instances of swearwords found in the resulting corpus. After the dialogue scripts of the movie and its subtitles were downloaded, they were converted to the .txt format to be more searchable using computing software. Then, they were placed side by side to make a parallel corpus and the *antconc* 3.2.4w concordancing program designed by Anthony (2013) was used in the search for swearwords in this corpus. This facility searches for key words in context (KWIC). It was fed with swearwords from Greenspan's (2010) list of the eleven most recurrent ones in American TV including 'fuck, hell, ass, damn, shit, bitch, penis, vagina and genitals, crap, screw, suck and piss' and their derivations. Another manual search was done to ensure that all swearwords were extracted.

Data analysis

The content analysis method was adopted in the analysis stage whereby all instances of swearwords in the dialogue scripts and subtitles were identified. Toury's (1995) 'coupled pairs' model of translation was then used to compare the 'replacing' with the 'replaced' elements in the source and target texts. This implies that any swearword in the dialogue scripts was picked and compared with its counterpart in the subtitles. Toury's model is based on the notion that translators have linguistic repertoire of the source and the target languages in the form of coupled pairs. In any translation activity, translators automatically elicit equivalents from the target language repertoire to replace source language elements.

Results and discussion

The analysis of the corpus revealed six translation strategies adopted by the amateur subtitler to attenuate swearwords when subtitling the English movie into Arabic. The discussion of the strategies begins with a brief account of each strategy using illustrative examples. A literal back translation of each illustrative example is provided to highlight the adopted attenuating

strategy to readers unfamiliar with Arabic. Furthermore, the discussed swearword in the source text and its counterpart in the target text are underlined to facilitate reference.

Deletion

The deletion strategy implies the complete omission of the swearword in the subtitles and is justified on the basis that swearwords are semantically insignificant and culturally objectionable (Hjort, 2009). Therefore, deleting them provides space for more important elements for the development of the storyline in the movie. Moreover, it might eliminate the chances of objecting at the translation outcome in the target culture as it works into meeting the recipients' expectations. In other words, the subtitler resorted to the most vivid 'domestication' translation strategy when s/he did not provide an equivalent for the swearword used in the movie dialogue on cultural grounds. (Venuti, 1995). As a result of deletion, 364 (47.08%) out of the total number of swearwords were deleted. To see whether the technical constraints alone have motivated deletion, consider the following example:

Example 1

- That's not fair.

(Lit. this is unfair.) هذا ليس عدلا

- Don't fucking touch me!

(Don't ----- touch me!) لا تلمسيني

As can be seen in example 1 above, the intensifying swearword 'fucking' was not rendered in the subtitles. The number of characters of the Arabic subtitle corresponding to that in the original text is only eight implying that space was not the major constraint to necessitate deletion. It can be argued that the cultural factor was the reason for deleting the swearword on the basis that it is mainly used as an emphatic expletive with little semantic value. More importantly, its equivalent in Arabic would be more offensive to the Arab viewers. The offense stems from the fact that swearwords pertaining to sexual blatancy face-threat Arab viewers who consider watching movies as a cultural activity whereby all family members set together for that purpose.

However, it can be argued that the Arab audiences can sense the absence of the English swearword 'fucking' in the subtitles for two reasons; English swearwords are rather pervasive nowadays (Mazid, 2006), and the feedback effect from the image on the screen, i.e. the furious shouting of the speaker and his/her body movement.

Change in semantic field

This strategy portrays a situation in which the subtitler changed the semantic field of swearwords in the source text into a different semantic field in the target language in an attempt to attenuate obscenity. Thus, it is clear that the change was motivated solely by cultural and ideological consideration (Luyken, Thomas, Helen & Herman S. (1991).

In order to give a more vivid picture of this tendency, all swearwords in both sub-corpora were categorized according to the semantic field each word belongs to. The model adopted in this categorization was that of Allan and Burridge (2006) with some modification to encompass the various types of swearwords found in both sub-corpora. For example, the categories animals, incest and prostitution were added since they were frequently used in the corpus. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 1

Table 1. Categorization of sematic fields of English and Arabic swearwords in Alpha Dog

No	Semantic fields	Hits in English corpus	Hits in Arabic subtitles
1.	Religious references	32	180
2.	Naming, addressing, viewing persons	51	62
3.	Diseases, death/killing	51	52
4.	Animals	58	58
5.	Incest	41	----
6.	Prostitution	29	21
7.	Organs & acts of sex	444	14
8.	Body parts & effluvia	18	22

As can be seen from Table 1 above, there is a significant variation in the distribution of English swearwords into the sematic fields they belong to compared with those in the Arabic subtitles. This variation reflects interesting facts of great relevance to the attempts meant to attenuate the obscenity of swearwords. For example, whilst the category 'organs and acts of sex' ranked first in the number of occurrences of swearwords in the English sub-corpus with 444, it was the least in the Arabic sub-corpus with only 14 hits. This goes in line with the opinion that sexual references and blasphemies are among the most objectionable elements to consider when subtitling into Arabic (Gamal, 2008). Consequently, the elimination of this great number of swearwords from this category indicates an inclination towards mitigating the obscenity of such words for the recipients. In addition, incest references such as 'motherfucking', 'motherfucker(s)' and 'motherfuck' in the English sub-corpus were completely removed and replaced by general or archaic words in the Arabic sub-corpus. For instance, 'motherfucker' was rendered into [سافل، ابن] (Lit. villain, son of raffish, son of the damned) and 'motherfuckers' into [حمقى، أبناء] (Lit. idiot, sons of the salacious, cursed) which are devoid of the reference to incest. The reason behind this tendency is that, besides being religiously forbidden, incest is perceived as an obnoxious, gruesome and disgusting act. According to Sagarin (1968, p. 139), incest references have the "ability to incite aggressive anger even among people who have developed an armor defense against the insults derived from obscenity." This feeling is triggered by the fear that "the image of the mother as pure and inviolate is damaged when the tabooed sounds are spoken." Therefore, deleting such references shows that the subtitler is abiding by norms in the target culture. Contrariwise, the 'diseases, death/killing' and 'animals' fields were kept almost intact, maybe because these indicate general activities and universal experiences shared by both cultures or, more importantly, they lack the sexual overtones inducing the highest degree of objection by Arab viewers. Consider the following example:

Example 2

Look at these fucking wannabe motherfuckers

أنظر لهؤلاء الحمقى

(Lit. Look at these idiots.)

As can be seen in example 2, the degree of obscenity relayed by the use of a string of offensive words from the sex and incest semantic fields in the source text (fucking, motherfuckers) has been diluted by deleting the words 'fucking' and 'wannabe' and ameliorating the reference to incest embodied in the word 'motherfuckers' through the use of the word [حمقى] (Lit. idiot), from the mental disorder field.

Finally, it seems that the subtitler found shield in the 'religious' semantic field to attenuate the obscenity of swearwords. This is evidenced from the great variation of occurrences of swearwords from this semantic field between the source and the target texts. To reiterate, whilst in the English sub-corpus there are only 32 hits from the 'religious' field, the Arabic sub-corpus displays 180 hits from this field. Thus, certain swearwords from other fields such as 'organs and acts of sex' or 'body parts and effluvia' were replaced by equivalents from the 'religious' semantic field in Arabic. For example, 'fuck' was rendered into [لعين] (Lit. damned) and 'shit' into [تبا] (Lit. May evil befall). It is also interesting to note that the word [لعين] (Lit. damned) scored 81 hits and the word [تبا] (Lit. May evils befall) scored 80 hits in the target text replacing mainly words such as 'fuck' and 'shit' in the source text. The following is an illustrative example:

Example 3

I don't want to hear any fucking stories.

لا اريد أن اسمع أي قصص

لعينة

(Lit. I don't want to listen to any damned stories.)

In example 3, the sex activity swearword 'fuck' in the source text was replaced by the religious swearword 'laeenah', [damned] in the Arabic subtitles to attenuate obscenity.

Register shift and use of archaic words

As was previously discussed, subtitling implies a shift from the spoken to the written mode of language. In case of subtitling into Arabic, this shift entails another change from the informal colloquial language variety in the movie to the formal standard variety in the subtitles. It is interesting to note that the variety used in subtitling into Arabic is Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) since it is used in the media and educational institutions in the Arab World. According to Gamal (2012, p. 496), the spoken colloquial variety of Arabic is not accepted in translation and/or interpretation and is normally substituted by "the more reserved and respected classical variety of Arabic." Moreover, Mazid (2006) finds a "harmony between modern Standard Arabic (SA) and the written mode of subtitles." (p. 84).

Restrictive as it may appear, this shift in register was exploited as a strategy to attenuate the obscenity of certain swearwords when subtitling into Arabic. For instance, the swearword 'bitch' was rendered into [عاهرة] (Lit. salacious), 'assholes' into [سفلة] (Lit. mean), 'suckers' into [أغبياء] (Lit. fools), 'motherfucker' into [وغد، سافل] (Lit. scoundrel, raffish), 'fuck' into [ضاجع] (Lit. lie with), and 'crap' into [براز] (Lit. excrement), which are standard Arabic lexemes employed to remove much of the vulgar overtones of their counterparts in the original text. To further illustrate this phenomenon, two of the aforementioned instances are discussed below:

Example 4

- Just get us some more fucking drinks.

فقط أجبني لنا المزيد من الشراب اللعين

- Get us some drinks, bitch!

اجلب بعض الشراب أيتها العاهرة

(Lit. Just bring for us some additional damned drink.)

(Bring some drink, you salacious.)

In example 4, the word 'bitch' in the source text could have been translated into the colloquial and more informal yet very close equivalent in Arabic namely the word [قحبة] (Lit. prostitute). Indeed, this word has the same function in informal situations in Arabic as that of the word 'bitch' in English. Nevertheless, the shift in register from the spoken to the written mode necessitated opting for the word [عاهرة] (Lit. salacious) as a MSA word to assist in attenuating obscenity. This strategy is further illustrated by example 5.

Example 5

A big fucking steaming crap.

كمية براز كبيرة جدا
وبرائحة كريهة جدا

(Lit. A very huge amount of excrement with very bad smell.)

In example 5, the English word 'crap' was rendered into [براز] (Lit. excrement,) in the subtitles. The word [براز] is a medical word mainly used in situations whereby a stool test is required for the diagnosis of certain pathogens. Again, the shift to the written mode necessitated the use of the MSA word [براز] which is less obscene in comparison with other informal words such as [khara] (Lit. faeces, waste).

Archaic words are also used for the same purpose whereby swearwords such as 'slut' is rendered into [باغية] (Lit. punk), 'wine' into [نبذ] (Lit. date or currant juice not necessarily intoxicating). Such words originated from classical Arabic, which is alien to a big population of the Arab community who may not understand their connotations. Therefore, their employment represents a translation strategy to water down the obscenity of swearwords to the viewers.

Use of euphemistic expressions

Euphemism was another strategy used by the amateur subtitler to attenuate the obscenity of swearwords. Euphemism refers to cases whereby a vulgar or dysphemistic word is replaced by another preferable one to avoid losing face (Thawabteh, 2012). Examples of euphemism in the corpus included replacing a direct and dysphemistic word by a more euphemized one such as rendering 'fuck' into [يمارس الجنس] (Lit. practice sex), 'pain in the ass' into [مزعج] (Lit. annoying), 'queers' [غريب الاطوار] (Lit. abnormal), 'do not give a fuck' into [لا ابالي] (Lit. do not care) and 'unfucked' into [تفادي هذا] (Lit. avoid this). Consider the following example:

Example 6

You know, I know that
this is a big pain in the ass.

أعرف بأن الأمر كان مزعجا
وأن الأمر برمته كان خاطئا

(Lit. I know that the matter was annoying.)

In example 6, the English idiomatic swearing expression 'pain in the ass' was euphemized in the subtitles through the use of a diluting non-swearing word [مزعجا] (Lit. annoying) which falls short of conveying the deep degree of anger and frustration expressed in the source text. Although the word [مزعج] can be used to express some uncomfortable psychological states particularly that of annoyance, all traces of obscenity in the source text particularly that triggered by the use of the word 'ass' were erased in the Arabic subtitles.

Generalization and linguistic substitution

The amateur subtitler also exploited generalization and linguistic substitution to attenuate the obscenity of swearwords. When it comes to generalization, the subtitler replaced a more specific swearword in the source text with a more general less offensive one in the subtitles. For

instance, the word 'suck cock' was skewed into the general expression [تفعل شيئاً قذراً] (Lit. do something dirty), 'weed' into [اعشاب] (Lit. herbs) and 'shit smell' into [رائحة] (Lit. smell). A discussion of one of these examples will make the point clear.

Example 7

Yeah, yeah. Just make sure

حسننا حسنا تأكد من زوال الرائحة من على

السجاد

you get the shit smell

سافل

out of the carpet, bitch!

(Lit. Ok, ok, make sure to remove the smell from the carpet,

mean.)

In example 7, the swearword 'shit' in the source text, which specifies the source of the smell and describes it, was omitted and the reference was generalized to just a 'smell' (hyponym) in the target text. Of course the intent was to remove much of the obscenity stemming from the use of the word 'shit', but the effect coming from the image when a real 'excrement' can be seen by the audiences is of less help to the subtitler. The same intent of attenuating obscenity has prevented the subtitler from using the adjectival [كريهة] (Lit. bad, stink) as a compromise that coheres with the word [رائحة].

As for linguistic substitution, the subtitler attempted to substitute the direct mention of the swearword by whatever linguistic (deictic) elements as deemed suitable in the context of situation. For example, 'fuck' was sometimes replaced by the word [هذا] (Lit. this) and 'shit' by words like [شيء، هنا، أمور، ذلك] (Lit. thing, here, matters, this). Consider example 8 below.

Example 8

- Mazursky, right?

مازروسكي أليس كذلك؟

- Can you believe that shit?

هل تصدق ذلك؟

(Lit. Mazursky, isn't it?)

(Do you believe this?)

Example (8) illustrates the substitution of the swearword 'shit' in the source text with the demonstrative 'this' in the target text as a strategy to tone down obscenity.

Ambiguous expressions

The use of ambiguous expressions represents another translation strategy which the amateur subtitler exploited to attenuate the obscenity of certain swearwords. Ambiguity in this context refers to the act of replacing a clear and direct swearword in the source text by a more indeterminate and vague word that has nothing to do with the expression of swearing in the target text. For example, the swearword 'fag' used in the movie dialogue was replaced by the ambiguous word [كحيح] (Lit. subdued) as a translation equivalent in the Arabic subtitles resulting in a rendition that is meaningless to the majority of the audiences. Other instances which display ambiguity include the swearing expression 'smack shit out' in the source text which was replaced by the phrase [اركل خارجا] (Lit. kick outside). Consider the following example:

Example 9

Don't make me wonder about you, kid. You sound like half a fucking fag.

أنت تجعلني أتعجب منك يا فتى

يبدو لي صوتك كحيح تباً

(Lit. You make me wonder about you, young

boy!)

(It seems to me that your voice is subdued, damn.)

In example 9, the swearword 'fag' in the source text was replaced by the word 'كحيج' [subdued] in the subtitles, which might not make sense to the majority of young Arab movie fans. The subtitler seemed to have confused the meaning of the word 'sound' in this example. However, because s/he intended to disguise the obscenity of the word 'fag', s/he did his/her best to exploit this equivocation by making the word 'sound' cohere with the word 'كحيج'.

Conclusion

The present study has attempted to identify the attenuating strategies adopted by Arab amateur subtitlers when handling swearwords in English movies. Contrary to what is hypothesized about amateur subtitlers as being source text oriented, the results of analysis highlighted a tendency towards mitigating the obscenity of expressions and words that cause offense. This tendency reflects a target-culture oriented approach whereby subtitlers feel inclined towards active norms in the target culture to abide by the audiences' expectations. It was apparent that the cultural norms were more influential than the technical constraints characteristic of subtitling in determining the adoption of the translation strategy.

The adopted attenuating strategies ranged from complete elimination of the swearword whereby the subtitler did not provide an equivalent in the target text to the use of ambiguous expressions that sometimes yielded an awkward type of translation. In between these two extremes, the amateur subtitler employed changes in semantic field, register shift and archaic words, euphemism and generalization and substitution. It can be argued that the subtitler relied on certain factors to compensate for the loss in translation emanating from adopting these 'corruption' strategies (Nornes, 1999). The first is the polysemiotic nature of the film texture whereby other audio, visual and nonverbal codes can be utilized to assist the audience in comprehending the storyline of the movie. The second is the familiarity of the target audience with a great deal of English swearwords due to the popularity of such words. However, such factors did not always back up the subtitlers whose main intent was to mitigate the obscenity of swearwords to Arab audiences. Nevertheless, whether other connotative nuances of meaning characteristic of the use of swearwords were passed over to the target audience or were adversely affected by the attenuating strategies is an issue that deserves further investigation. Another issue that deserves investigation is a comparison with professional subtitling of swearwords into Arabic.

About the authors:

Mr. Abed Shahooth Khalaf is currently a PhD candidate at the Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia. He obtained his MA in Translation from Yarmouk University, Jordan in 2000. Prior to his enrolment as a PhD candidate, he worked as an Assistant Professor of English/Arabic Translation at the Dept. of English, College of Education, University of Anbar, Iraq. His research interests focus on audiovisual translation, translation problems and impoliteness.

Dr. Sabariah Md Rashid is a Senior Lecturer and currently the Head of English Language Department at the Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia. She obtained her Bachelor's degree from the University of Essex, her Master's degrees from University of Reading, U.K and PhD from UKM. Her research interests and publications are in the areas of language meaning and translation, applied linguistics, semantics and pragmatics.

References

- Al-Bin-Ali, M. A. (2006). *Audio-Visual translation: Subtitling pragmatic features*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). American University of Sharjah, Sharjah, UAE.
- Allan, K. & Brrridge, K. (2006). *Forbidden Words: Taboo and Censoring of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Alpha Dog. (2006). Arabic subtitles. Available at <http://www.subscene.com>
- Alpha Dog. (2006). English scripts. Available at <http://www.opensubtitles.org/en/search>
- Andersson, L. G. & Trudgill, P. (1990). *Bad Language*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Anthony, L. (2013). *Antconc, antlab homepage*. Retrieved November 9, 2014, from <http://www.sci.waseda.ac.jp/>
- Baker, M. (2001). *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*. London: Routledge.
- Bogucki, L. (2009). Amateur subtitling on the internet. In J. Diaz-Cintasa & G. Anderman (Eds.). *Audiovisual Translation: Language Transfer on Screen* (pp. 49-57). Gran Bretana: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bucaria, C. (2009). Translation and censorship on Italian TV: An inevitable love affair? *VIAL, Vigo International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 6, 13-32.
- Chesterman, A. (1997). *Memes of Translation: The Spread of Ideas in Translation Theory* (Vol.22). John Benjamins Publishing.
- Chiaro, D. (2009). Issues in audiovisual translation. In J. Munday (Ed.). *The Routledge Companion to Translation Studies* (pp. 141-165). London: Routledge.
- De Linde, Z. (1995). 'Read my lips' subtitling principles, practices and problems. *Perspectives: Studies in Translatology*. 3 (1), 9-20.
- Diaz-Cintas, J. (2005). Back to the future of subtitling. *Marie Curie Euroconferences MuTra: Challenges of Mutidimensional Translation*. University of Saarland, 200.
- Diaz-Cintas, J. & Sanchez, P. M. (2006). Fansub: Audiovisual translation in an amateur environment. *The Journal of Specialized Translation*, 6(1), 37-52. http://www.jostrans.org/issue06/art_diaz_munoz.pdf.
- Diaz-Cintas, J. & Remael A. (2007). *Audiovisual Translation: Subtitling*. St. Jerome Pub.
- Fawcett, P. (2003). The Manipulation of language and culture in film translation. In M. Calzada-Perez (Ed.), *Apropos of Ideology: Translation Ttudies on Ideology-ideologies in Translation Studies* (pp. 145-163). Manchester: St. Jerome.
- Fernández-Costales s, A. (2012). Collaborative translation revisited: Exploring the rationale and the motivation for volunteer translation. *FORUM*. 10 (1), 115-142.
- Gamal, M. (2008). Egypt's audiovisual translation scene. *Arab Media and Society*. 5 (6), 1-15.
- Gamal, M. (2012). Omar Sharif as an example of change and encounter. Paper presented at *The Asian conference on arts and humanities*. University of Canberra, Canberra, Autralia.
- Gambier, Y. (2009). Challenges in research on audiovisual translation. *Translation Research Projects*. 2, 17-25.
- Garcia-Manchon, P. (2013). A corpus-based analysis of swearwords translation in DVD subtitles and internet fansubs. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Universidad Complutense.
- Gottlieb, H. (2001). Text, translation and subtitling-in theory, and in Denmark. *Translators and Translations*. 149-192.
- Greenspan, S. (2010). *Most used swearwords on U.S.A TV in 2010*. Retrieved November 10, 2014, from

- http://www.11points.com/TV/11_Most_Popular_Swear_Words_On_Network_TV_in_2010
- Hjort, M. (2009). Swearwords in subtitles: A balancing act. in *TRAliea*. online translation journal. http://www.itralinea.it/specials/dialecttrans/eng_more.php.
- Ivarsson J, & Carroll, M. (1998). *Subtitling*. Simrishman: TransEdit.
- Jay, T. (1992). *Cursing in America: A psycholinguistic Study of Dirty Language in the Courts, in the Movies, in the Schoolyards, and on the Streets*. John Benjamins Publishing.
- Katan, D. (1999). *Translating Cultures: An Introduction for Translators, Interpreters*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.
- Kuddro, A. (2000). Subtitling in Arabic. *Turjuman* 9 (1), 31-37.
- La Forge, F. & Raffaella Tonin. (2014). In a quiet weekend of fear, an exorcist flew over the nest: A case study of the intertextual references in subtitling and dubbing Italian and Spanish series supernatural. in *TrAlinea*. online translation journal. http://www.itralinea.it/specials/dialecttrans/eng_more.php.
- Luczaj, K, Magdalena Holy-Luczaj & Karolina Cwiek-Rogalska. (2014). Fansubbers. The case of the Czech Republic and Poland. *Journal of Comparative Research in Anthropology and Sociology* 5 (2), 175-198.
- Luyken, G.-M., Thomas, H., Jo, L. B., Helen, R. & Herman S. (1991). *Overcoming Language Barriers in Television: Dubbing and Subtitling for the European Audience*. (Vol 13). Manchester. The European Institute for the Media.
- Massidda, S. (2013). The Italian fansubbing phenomenon. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Universita degli Studi di Sassari.
- Mazid, B. M. (2006). Arabic subtitles on English movies: Some linguistic, ideological and pedagogic issues. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies* 7, 81-100.
- Moad, Q. (2011). List of movies with the most audible uses of "fuck". Retrieved January 1, 2015 from <http://www.listology.com/quinton-moad/list/list-movies-most-audible-uses-word-fuck>
- Nornes, A. M. (1999). For an abusive subtitling. *Film Quarterly* 52 (3), 17-34.
- Orrego-Carmona, D. (2012). Internal structures and workflows in collaborative subtitling. Paper presented at *First International Conference on Non-professional Interpreting and Translation*. Forli.
- Orrego-Carmona, D. (2014). Where is the audience? Testing the audience reception of non-professional subtitling. *Translation Research Projects* 5, 77-92.
- Parini, I. (2013). Taboo and translation in audiovisual works. In E. N. S. Bayo Belengur (Ed.). *Translation, Right or Wrong* (pp. 149-161). Dublin: Four Courts Press.
- Sagarin, E. (1968). *The Anatomy of Dirty Words*. L. Stuart.
- Thawabteh, M. A. (2012). The translatability of euphemism and dysphemism in Arabic-English subtitling. *Lexis E-Journal in English lexicography*, 145-156.
- Tian, Y. (2011). Fansub cyber in China. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Georgetown University .
- Titford, C. (1982). Sub-titling: Constrained translation. *Lebende Sprachen*, 113-116.
- Toury, G. (1995). *Descriptive Translation Studies and beyond*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Venuti, L. (1995). *The Translator's Invisibility: A History of Translation*. London: Routledge.

Effect of Attitude on Foreign Language Acquisition: Arabic Pronunciation as Case Study

Nasser Saleh AlMansour

Department of Linguistics and Translation Studies
College of Languages and Translation
King Saud University

Abstract

This study aims at investigating how attitude influences foreign language acquisition. In fact, the present study focuses on the relationship between the pronunciation proficiency of some of the American students learning Arabic at the Georgetown University, and their attitude toward Arabic speakers. The study also reveals and points out some fundamentally related elements, such as the exposure to Arabic Language and Arabic environment, to eliminate, or at least to reduce, the students' negative attitudes that may hinder the process of pronunciation acquisition. The sample of the study consisted of 6 students (4 females and 2 males) randomly chosen from Georgetown University. A five-point likert scale attitude questionnaire and an achievement test were used to collect data from the students who participated in this research. Results showed that the students who have good attitudes towards Arabic speakers, and have visited or stayed in an Arabic-speaking country, have the best pronunciation performance, while those who have neither good attitudes nor stayed a long time in an Arabic-speaking country, have the poorest performance.

Key Words: acquisition, Arabic pronunciation, attitudes, foreign language, Georgetown University students, performance, pronunciation

1. Introduction and Background

Pronunciation is the most difficult skill for second language learners to master. Lenneberg (1967) believes that this is the result of a neurologically-based phenomenon. According to Taylor (1974) there is no cognitive reason for justifying that children are better than adults in learning language. Upshur (1968) and Spolsky (1969) provide adequate data, supporting the notion that the second language pronunciation of adults can reach the level of native speakers.

Lambert and Gardner (1972) reject the notion that some people have tonally sensitive hearing. That is to say that some have a natural aptitude for second language learning or even an ear for language. They raise the question "why do people master their native language if the difference in language is due to neurological or cognitive factors?" They also argue that the language learners' beliefs about other ethno linguistic communities should be considered as a case point in language acquisition. In other words, if one accepts some culture specific propensities of a specific people, one may also accept their language which is a part of their culture. Therefore, Lambert and Gardner conclude that mastering a second language at a near native level depends on the willingness of the learner to be associated and integrated with the speakers of the target language. They state that:

We find that an integrative and friendly outlook toward the other group whose language is being learned can differently sensitize the learner to the audio-lingual features of the language, making him more perceptive for the forms of pronunciation and accent than in the case for learners without this open and friendly disposition. If the students' attitude is highly ethnocentric and hostile, we have seen that no progress to speak of will be made in acquiring any aspect of the language. Such a student not only is perceptually insensitive to the language, but apparently is also unable to approximate the new pronunciation responses required in the other language (Lambert & Gardner, 1972: p. 134).

Guiora et al (1972: p. 112) believe that learning a second language is to leave the old world for a new one. Using their words, it is "an act of extending the self so as to take on a new identity", which is significant to second language learning. They have observed that the psychological demands of language learning are related to pronunciation skills. In addition, they argue that pronunciation is the most outstanding expression of language ego, the hardest skill to acquire in a new language, and the most difficult to lose in one's native language.

Furthermore, some linguists, like Rainer (2011) and Edwin (1990) consider pronunciation as consisting of a discrete feature which they call phonemic distinctions, while others like, Perinbanayagam (2010) and Krauss (1997) view it as a manifestation of the interaction of underlying feelings, entities, attitudes, and various psychological rules. In other words, when an individual learns a second language, his/her views and attitudes towards the culture of the target language will result in the way he/she tries to produce the sounds of that language.

Literature Review

With reference to the present research, it becomes precisely inevitable that the word 'attitude', the most relevant concept with which the study is guided, is defined in terms of language learning, in order to eliminate any ambiguities that may occur with its use. The word

can have many contextual meanings and is likely to be associated with words such as 'motivation', 'beliefs', or 'impression'. But for the sake of the present study the word needs to be focused on one single meaning which relates to the concepts of perception, culture, past experiences, assumptions, or beliefs. One of the most quoted definitions for the word is that of Sarnoff (1970: 279), who defines it as "a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects". Based on this definition, attitudes can be either positive or negative.

According to Eagley and Chaiken (1998: p. 269), "An attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour."

Sarnoff, Eagley, and Chaiken (1998) define attitude as possessing dual characteristics. They either have to be positive or negative. According to Bordens and Horowitz (2013: 158), "The concept of attitudes is central to explaining our thoughts, feelings, and actions with regard to other people, situations, and ideas." This definition appears is too general and vague. Allport (1954: 45) comes out with a more elaborate definition. He says that attitudes are "a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response towards all subjects and situations with which it is related." This definition signifies that attitudes can have perceptible influences on the individual's behaviour.

Baker (1992) relates attitudes the external object to which it is denoted, a foreign language for example. He says that it has to do with thoughts and beliefs. Tension between these components can take place, stresses Baker.

According to *Longman's Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1989), attitude is "a way of feeling or thinking about someone or something, especially as this influences one's behavior".

Attitudes play a major role in language teaching and learning. The relationship between the two is very intricate. "Interest in attitude research can also be explained by wide acknowledgement of the relationship between attitudes and successful learning" (Bartram, 2010: p. 33).

It is pertinent here to explicate and define the role of attitude with regard to second language acquisition, which can be termed as the 'linguistic attitude'. The *linguistic attitudes* concept is enlisted and explained in the *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (1992) as follows:

Linguistic attitudes are: the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each other's languages or to their own language. Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitudes towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language . (p.198)

Understanding the effect of attitudes on L2 and foreign languages is not an unexplored area in language teaching enquiries (Bartram, 2010: p. 33). There is certainly a relationship between language proficiency and attitudes towards the language. After having previously

approached the concept of attitudes from different sides, it is clear by now that attitudes are observable behaviors. Though, Gardner (1985: p. 9) believes that “attitudes are related to behaviour, though not necessarily directly”.

Attitude in relation to language learning is defined in details in Chambers' (1999) quote:

Attitude is taken to mean the set of values which a pupil brings to the FLL [1] experience. It is shaped by the pay-offs that she expects; the advantages that she sees in language learning. The values which a pupil has may be determined by different variables, such as the experience of learning the target language, of the target language community, experience of travel, the influence of parents and friends, and the attitudes which they may demonstrate and articulate. (p. 27)

Moreover, Ellis (2000) clarifies that positive attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers can be expected to enhance learning while negative attitudes almost certainly impede it. Learners' attitudes have an impact on the level of L2 proficiency achieved by individual learners. Therefore, learners with positive attitudes, who experience success, will have these attitudes reinforced. Similarly, learners' negative attitudes may be strengthened by the lack of success..

In addition, Baker (1988) suggests that attitudes are complex constraints. There may be both positive and negative feelings attached to a language situation. According to Dittmar (1976) attitudes consist of three major components: cognitive, affective, and conative. The cognitive component refers to an individual's belief structure, the affective component refers to the emotional reactions, and the conative component refers to the tendency to behave in a certain way towards the attitude. Finally, Fasold (1984) asserts that attitudes towards a language are often a reflection of attitudes towards members of various ethnic groups.

The present study will not solely focus on the impact of biology, age aptitude, or intelligence on pronunciation, but rather it will generally discuss the relationship between pronunciation proficiency and attitudes. Moreover, it will shed light on some elements, such as exposure to the Arabic language and Arabic environment, in order to eliminate, or at least reduce, the students' negative attitudes that may hinder the process of pronunciation acquisition.

Statement of the Problem

Because students' attitudes and their effect on foreign language acquisition should be an important part of the university curriculum, and especially because the influence of students' attitudes on foreign language acquisition, namely pronunciation performance, has not been widely studied, this has empowered the researcher to investigate whether students' attitudes have an effect on students' foreign language acquisition. The purpose is to study the relationship between the pronunciation proficiency of some of the Arabic Language Learners from Georgetown University and their attitude toward Arabic speakers.

Significance of the Study

In the current environment of research-based practices, the influence of attitudes on foreign language acquisition has not been fully tackled. The rationale of the present study is to evaluate the significance and efficacy of studying such issue and provide a road map for its successful acquisition. To the best knowledge of the researcher, this is one of the first few studies

undertaken to determine whether or not students' attitudes do affect their foreign language acquisition. Therefore, it is hoped that:

- It will help researchers involved in the educational process gain insights into students' attitudes and their effect on foreign language acquisition and seek to improve it overtime.
- It may encourage further research, which in turn, may lead to the cultivation of positive attitudes among language learners and monitor its influence on foreign language acquisition in general, and foreign language teaching and learning in particular.
- It will help teachers to better understand the issue and integrate it into their classroom routine in general and in the pronunciation class in particular.
- The findings of this study may be able to open the mind of the students towards the importance of their attitudes about foreign language speakers so as to improve their pronunciation performance.
- It is also expected that this study will familiarize foreign language students with the relationship between the pronunciation performance of students who frequently visit Arabic-speaking countries and their attitudes towards Arabic speakers.

Objective of the Study

Lasagabaster and Sierra (2003) believe that researchers should take into consideration the opinions and attitudes of students and language teaching experts on foreign language acquisition. They place more importance, nevertheless, on the attitudes of second language learners because students are potential contributors to the development of the language learning tools. Moreover, Lasagabaster and Sierra state that a strong relationship has been found between students' attitudes and their performance. Therefore, the entire corpus of the present study attempts to examine this unique linguistic phenomenon with regard to second language acquisition. In fact, for the sake of bringing this research into specific and clear focus, and to cohere its findings the researcher has specifically dealt with the issue of the relationship between the pronunciation proficiency of a few Georgetown University students, as a case study, and their attitude toward Arabic speakers.

Questions of the Study

The present study attempts to answer the following two questions:

1. What is the students' attitude towards Arabic speakers?
2. How well is the students' Arabic pronunciation (reading level and vocabulary level)?
3. To what extent do their attitudes towards Arabic speakers influence their pronunciation performance?

Variables of the Study

The variables of the present study include the following:

1. The independent variable is the students' attitudes towards Arabic speakers.
2. The dependent variable is the students' performance in pronunciation.

Limitations of the Study

Although the findings of this study may appear sound and important with reference to the field of foreign language acquisition in general and the influence of their attitudes towards

Arabic speakers, in particular, it has some limitations. In fact, the constancy of the findings of this study may be limited by the following factors:

- This study is restricted to only one group of students learning Arabic at Georgetown University.
- The findings are bound by the time limit for the period in which the study was conducted.
- Another obvious limitation of the present study is the limited sample size.
- The data of the study were collected from only one part of the United States of America; other areas were not involved in the study.

Sample, Instrument and Procedures

The population of the study consisted of a few students of Arabic language from Georgetown University. The sample of the study consisted of 6 male and female students (2 males represented in this study as V and Z and 4 females represented in this study as U, W, X, and Y) who were chosen randomly through the random sampling techniques in the statistical package SPSS. All students are Americans except for student Y who is from Europe. All of them are in their second year of studying Arabic and they were selected on the basis of their performance on their written exams. Each student's pronunciation and his/her attitude towards Arabic speakers were tested to obviously find out whether their attitude has any impact on their L2 pronunciation ability.

In order to collect data of the study, the researcher used two instruments: an attitude questionnaire and two pronunciation tests.

1. The Attitudes Questionnaire

To arrive at an objective understanding of the students' L2 learning propensities and their experiences with and responses to the target language, the researcher adopted Gardner and Lambert's (1972) attitude questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 12 items concerning the general attitude towards Arabic speakers. The items of the attitude questionnaire were set on a five-point Likert scale (5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3= don't know, 2=disagree, and 1=strongly disagree). The means were classified as follows: Strongly disagree between 1 and 1.49, Disagree between 1.5 and 2.49, Undecided between 2.5 and 3.49, Agree between 3.5 and 4.49, and strongly agree between 4.5 and 5. Moreover, some other points such as the students' desire to get involved in Arabic activities are considered in this study as a means of showing, indirectly, the students' attitudes towards Arabic speakers.

To ensure the validity of the instrument, the questionnaire was given to a jury of four professors (two at Georgetown University and two at King Saud University), to elicit their views as to the accuracy, clarity, and appropriateness of it. Then the instrument was reviewed and modified according to their recommendations. Moreover, 20 students were piloted to establish the reliability of the instrument using Cronbach-Alph which was found to be 0.83.

For the sake of objectivity, and providing more freedom to the students, the researcher did not himself go to the classroom which obviously made the students give truthful responses to someone they did not know. The researcher asked one of his American friends to distribute the questionnaire to his students, offer explanations, and answer students' questions, if any, and collect the completed questionnaires in the course of one one-hour class session. Furthermore, to identify and group the students in separate units, each student's paper was numbered according to his/her row and seat numbers. This is to say, the student sitting in the first row on the first seat

(counting from right to left) was given the number 1:1 while the student in the second row on the second seat was given the number 2:2, and so on. To decode the numbers, the names of the students were entered on the response papers. This procedure was taken up in order to group the students in units that can be placed on a five-point Likert scale chosen from the study. The participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire individually and independently in order to give them a space to identify their own choices without any influence from other participants. After that, the data were processed and statistically computed and analyzed using the statistical package SPSS, and then the outcomes were concluded.

2. The Pronunciation Tests

In order to measure the students' Arabic pronunciation, two types of pronunciation (a reading test and a vocabulary test) tests were administered. First of all, four weeks after the distribution of the attitude questionnaire, the researcher asked the same teacher to administer the reading test. Each student was asked to read 10 lines from their textbook, *Elementary Modern Standard Arabic 2*, by Peter Abboud et al (1983). The students' textbook reading, which was conducted in class, was tape-recorded. The students were informed that their Arabic pronunciation would be evaluated and that they would be informed about their deficiencies on an individual basis. They were also informed that proper techniques for overcoming pronunciation errors would be given to each student according to his/her needs. To perform the evaluation, two native Arabic speakers were asked to rate the selected students' readings against a five-point Likert scale: (a) perfectly understandable; (b) mostly understandable; (c) fairly understandable; (d) poorly understandable; and (e) not understandable. Secondly, the vocabulary test consisted of thirty Arabic words with initial, medial, and final sounds that do not exist in the English phonetic inventory. These thirty words were administered to the six students individually. Their vocabulary readings were tape-recorded and rated by the same two Arabic native speakers against three-point Likert scale: (a) completely correct; (b) partially correct; and (c) incorrect.

The usability of the two tests was tested through a pilot study of 20 students who were excluded from the sample. The reliability coefficient of the test was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha and found that it was 0.85.

3. Analysis of the Responses and Discussion

In order to enhance the authenticity of the research and analyze and understand the relationship between the role and influence of learners' attitudes and the acquisition of pronunciation of a second language, it is pertinent to evaluate and explain the responses of the learners and to generate a discussion as to the feasibility and efficacy of the research. This has been achieved through the following process of seeking the learners' responses through asking questions and then embarking on a discussion based on the responses.

The First Question

The first question investigates the students' attitudes towards Arabic speakers. The data were collected through an attitude questionnaire and analyzed via the statistical package SPSS. Table 1 represents the results.

Table 1
Students' Attitudes towards Arabic Speakers

	Students					
Statements	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
Social	5	5	5	4	5	3
Warm-hearted	5	5	5	4	5	3
Creative	5	5	5	4	5	3
Considerate of the feeling of others	5	5	3	4	5	3
Sincere	5	5	4	2	5	3
Honest	5	5	4	2	5	3
Trustworthy	5	5	4	2	5	3
Dependable	5	5	4	2	5	3
Friendly	5	5	5	5	5	3
Hospitable	5	5	3	3	3	3
Kind	5	5	5	4	3	3
Generous	5	5	5	4	3	3
Total	60	60	54	42	54	36

Table .1 shows the students' attitudes towards Arabic speakers. The researcher used a five-point Likert scale in which 5 and 4 show positive attitudes; 2 and 1 show negative attitude; and 3 is a neutral attitude in which the students claim that they do not know whether Arabic speakers have certain attributes or not. Table1, also shows that students U and V got the highest total point of 60. Student X had four negative attitudes towards Arabic speakers. She believes that Arabic speakers are not sincere, honest, trustworthy, and dependable; nevertheless, she has many positive attitudes towards Arabic speakers. Student Z claims that he does not know anything about Arabic speakers. He got all threes. Not knowing a single positive attitude about the native speakers of the target language is a kind of negative attitude. In other words, this student may not be integrated with Arabic speakers because he does not have any positive attitudes towards these people.

When each student's attitude points were summed up, student Z got the lowest results (36 points) which indicate that his attitudes towards Arabic speakers are the worst. The highest score was 60, which was obtained by students U and V. Student W has an overall positive attitude towards Arabic speakers, except for the fact that she is not sure whether Arabic speakers are considerate of the feeling of others. She obtained a score of 54. Student Y is not sure that Arabic speakers are hospitable, kind, or generous. However, the researcher has considered the three-point scale as a negative attitude.

It can be further concluded that student U always likes to speak Arabic with anyone who knows it. She speaks Arabic in school, home, and sometimes at Arabic nightclubs. She enjoys living in Arabic-speaking countries, and has visited and lived in several Arab countries. She greatly enjoys watching Arabic TV programs, attend Arabic plays, and visiting Arabic speaking people. Moreover, she always likes to get acquainted with Arabic speakers. The more she learns

about Arabic-speaking people, the more she likes them. Her parents also help and encourage her to practice her Arabic as much as possible. This is why her attitudes towards Arabic speakers are positive.

Student V has visited three Arabic-speaking countries. His attitude towards Arabic speakers and learning Arabic is highly positive, but he does not want to be always involved in the activities with Arabic speakers. He does not want to attend Arabic Club meetings or speak with Arabic families. His parents feel that he should really try to learn Arabic. They think it is worth his time and they encourage him to study it.

Student W's attitude towards Arabic speakers is generally positive regardless of her lack of experience with Arabic-speaking society. She likes reading Arabic magazines, watching Arabic TV, and going to Arabic plays. Moreover, if there was an Arabic club in her school, she would attend the meetings regularly. Her parents show considerable interest in anything that has to do with her studying Arabic, and they encourage her to pursue her studies thinking that it is worth her time.

Student X is the only member of her family to learn Arabic. Her Arabic is conducted in the environment of her class, i.e. it is spoken neither at home nor outside her home. She has visited one country where Arabic is spoken. However, X has certain negative attitudes towards Arabic speakers and towards learning Arabic as well. She does not try to integrate with Arabic speakers or get involved in the activities of Arabic speakers. She believes that the Arabic-speaking people are not sincere, honest, trustworthy, or dependable. Moreover, she disagrees that some of the best citizens can be from Arabic-speaking families. As far as the Arabic language is concerned, she prefers learning other subjects rather than Arabic. If there were an Arabic Club in her school, she would not join it. She also would not spend much of her time watching Arabic TV or reading Arabic magazines, even if she knew Arabic. She does not want to speak with Arabic families if she has the opportunity to improve and practice her Arabic. Her parents do not encourage or help her in anything related to her Arabic.

Student Y speaks a European language as a native language and she once visited an Arabic-speaking country. Her attitude towards Arabic speakers and learning Arabic is generally positive, but she does not want to be involved in the activities and real life of Arabic speaking people such as joining Arabic clubs or speaking with Arab families, in order to practice her Arabic. It seems that her lack of involvement in Arabic activities is due to the amount of effort she exerts in the participation of these activities. Moreover, she confirms that she does not enjoy hard work. In addition to that, her parents neither show considerable interest in her studying Arabic nor encourage her to practice it.

Student Z lives with his father-in-law, whose native tongue is Arabic. The former speaks with his father-in-law in Arabic while they are at home. Z's parents learned French before they learned any other language, but he learned English as a native language. He has never travelled to any Arabic-speaking country and he does not know a single positive characteristic about Arabic speakers. He does not enjoy being involved in Arabic activities or spending his time with Arabic speakers. He believes that he may not gain any respect for Arabic speakers from his knowledge of Arabic nor does he know about any importance that Arabic will have for him after finishing

his school. His parents do not help him or encourage him in learning Arabic and they do not feel that he should continue studying it.

The researcher suggested that parents' impact on their children's negative attitudes towards the target language needs further investigation. It is not clear in this study whether the students' negative attitudes towards Arabic speakers are inherited from their parents or are only the students' personal creation.

The Second Question

The second question investigates how good the Arabic pronunciation of Georgetown University students is. The data were collected through two pronunciation testes (a reading test (table 2) and vocabulary test (table (3)) and analyzed via the Statistical Package SPSS. Tables (2) and (3) represent the results.

In the text reading test, the students were asked to read a new lesson in their textbook and tape-record their readings. Then, two native speakers of Arabic were asked to play the tape and measure each student's reading against five-point Likert scale: a) perfectly understandable; (b) mostly understandable; (c) fairly understandable; (d) poorly understandable; and (e) not understandable. Table (2) represents the results.

Table 2
Students' Text Reading Measurements

Students	Criterion				
	Perfectly Understandable	Mostly Understandable	Fairly understandable	Poorly understandable	Not understandable
U		X *			
V		X *			
W			X *		
X			X	*	
Y			*	X	
Z				X *	

X = rater 1

* = rater 2

Table 2 shows the measurement of the text readings given by the six students. These students represent different groups of language learners in the class. The selection of these students was made on the basis of their written exam performances. The first two students (U and V) are A students; the second two (W and X) are B students; and the last two students (Y and Z) are C students with regard to their writing grades.

As Table 2 indicates, students U and V were mostly understandable according to both raters; student W was fairly understandable to both raters; and student Z was poorly understandable by both raters. The only disagreement between the two raters lay with students X and Y. They are measured as either fairly understandable or poorly understandable. Moreover, it might have been expected that students representing as X would have attained a score of fairly understandable in order to be on the same level with students representing as W, because they

got B's on their written exam. But X dropped one grade – to be poorly understandable. This degradation, which is shown by the text reading measurement, can be interpreted as a strong evidence of X's negative attitudes towards Arabic speakers. Similarly, Y's relatively positive attitudes towards Arabic-speaking people lifted her from poorly understandable to fairly understandable. That is to say, Y's normal position would have been poorly understandable since she got a C grade in her written exam.

In the vocabulary reading test, the students' pronunciation of the thirty Arabic words were categorized as correct, partially correct, or incorrect. The pronunciation of a word is considered "correct" if the student pronounces it perfectly; it is "partially correct" when the student has some problems in pronouncing the sounds which are not available in the English language; and it is "incorrect" when the rater cannot recognize it at all. Table 3 represents the results.

Table 3
Vocabulary Reading Measurements

Students	Criterion							
	Correct		Partially Correct		Incorrect		Correct %	
	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 1	Rater 2
U	26	26	10	1	4	3	87	87
V	21	21	4	5	4	5	70	70
W	18	18	3	4	9	8	60	60
X	15	14	5	7	10	9	50	47
Y	13	14	4	5	13	11	43	47
Z	11	11	6	7	13	12	37	37

Table 3 shows that both raters gave the highest scores to U and V (26 and 21 respectively). They gave the lowest to Z (11). The score given to by both raters is the same (18). But the discrepancy occurs in the scores assigned to X and Y. student X received a "B" grade in her written exam, while student Y received a "C" in the same exam. Rater 1 has shown that student X's Arabic pronunciation is better than that of student Y, where they correctly pronounced 50 % and 43% of the vocabulary items, respectively. But according to rater 2, each of them corrected 47% of the words. It seems that either student X dropped from level "B" to level "C" or student Y moved from level "C" to level "B".

Furthermore, table 3 shows that student W, who got a "B" in her written exam, was measured by both raters as a "B" student in her vocabulary test. Student W's pronunciation is better than X's because the former's attitude towards Arabic speakers is highly positive, while the latter's attitude towards Arabic speakers is equipped with negative charges. Both students Y and Z obtained a "C" on their written exam. But student Y's pronunciation performance is higher than that of student Z's because of the former's positive attitude towards Arabic speakers.

What is interesting in this study is that the pronunciation test has shown what the written test could not. For instance, students U and V got "A's" in their written exam, but in the

pronunciation test student U corrected 87% of the words, while student V corrected 70% of the words. Similarly, students W and X got "B's" on the they earned 60% and 50%, respectively according to rater 1, and 60% and 47% respectively according to rater 2. Moreover, students Y and Z got "C's" on the written exam, but they earned 43% and 37% respectively according to rater 1, and 47% and 37% respectively according to rater 2.

Although attitudes do have a certain impact on pronunciation performance, there may be other factors such as staying in the country of the target language, which may play an important role in affecting pronunciation performance. For example, both students U and V have positive attitudes towards Arabic speakers, but still the former's pronunciation performance is better than the latter's pronunciation performance. It seems that the difference is due to the frequent visits to the Arabic speaking countries or the length of the period of stay in these countries.

The Third Question

The third question investigates the extent to which the students' attitudes towards Arabic speakers affect their pronunciation performance. Table 4 represents the results.

Table 4
Relationship between Students' Performance, Frequent Visits to Arabic- Speaking Countries and their Attitudes towards Arabic Speakers

Students	Criterion								
	Performance			Attitude			Visit		
	Excellent	Good	poor	Excellent	Good	Poor	Sever al	Single	No
U	X			X			X		
V	X			X			X		
W		X			X				X
X		X				X		X	
Y			X		X			X	
Z			X			X			X

Table 4 shows that students' performance in the Arabic test was affected by either their attitudes towards Arabic-speaking people, the frequency of their visits to Arabic-speaking countries, or the length of their stay in these countries. For instance, the performance of students U and V is "excellent" ("A" students) because their attitude towards Arabic-speaking people is "excellent" and each of them have visited several Arab countries. Student U visited more than seven Arab countries on more than six trips. Student V visited more than four Arab countries in more than two trips. Students W and X's performance is "good". The overall attitude of student W towards Arabic-speaking people is "good", although this student has not visited any Arabic-speaking country. This may have lowered this student's performance to a "B" grade.

Student X's attitude towards Arabic speakers has several negatives. But her visit to an Arabic-speaking country has neutralized her negative attitudes. Although student Y's performance is "poor", her attitude towards Arabic speakers is "good". It seems that her positive attitude towards Arabic speakers has raised her level of performance. Student Y's visit to an

Arabic speaking country did not greatly influence the pronunciation of her Arabic because she stayed for only one month in that country. Student Z's performance is "poor" due to his lack of any positive attitudes towards Arabic speakers and his lack of a visit to any Arabic speaking country.

Although Gardner & Lambert (1972) concluded in their Louisiana study that parents' support and attitudes towards the students' target language played an important role in the students' motivation, it is still apparent from this study that those with negative attitudes did poorly in Arabic.

In conclusion, we can safely predict that those who have good attitudes towards Arabic speaking people and have visited or stayed an adequate period of time in an Arabic-speaking country have the best pronunciation performance, while those who have neither good attitude nor stayed a long time in an Arabic-speaking country have the poorest performance.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In view of the discussions and the data presented, there were some conclusions that were reached regarding the impact of attitude on foreign language acquisition. Arabic learners should be introduced to the Arabic culture before starting their Arabic classes. This culture introduction should be in a position to correct the students' negative attitudes towards L2 speakers. Even when the student cannot swallow certain aspects of the L2 culture, their attention should be drawn to the notion of appreciating different cultures to diminish any biases they may have against those cultures.

If the teacher giving the orientation of L2 culture is himself/herself charged with negative attitudes, he/she would harm the process of pronunciation acquisition rather than heal it. Making all the necessary accommodations and facilitation for the student to visit frequently or live in L2 speaking countries will reduce the students' negative repertoire.

Cross-cultural dialogue is needed to overcome cultural fatigue. That is to say, negative attitudes can be presented with "affective vaccinations". Sensitive and perceptive teachers can play a therapeutic role in helping learners to overcome their negative attitudes towards L2 speakers.

Foreign language teachers can help student learning Arabic as a foreign language in dispelling myths about the Arabic culture and its people, and replacing it with a realistic understanding of the Arabic culture as one that is different from the English culture, and one that has to be respected and valued.

Negative attitudes usually emerge from false stereotyping or from ethnocentrism. In order to resolve this, Bloom (1978) remarks that learners of a foreign language should go through three stages:

Awareness and Responding



Valuing



Understanding and Appreciation

This study represents a preliminary effort to empirically examine the effect of attitude on foreign language learning. For the sake of brevity, precision, and attainment of a tangible and empirical result, a limited number of American students learning Arabic at the Georgetown University, were selected for the study. In spite of the fact that the results achieved in this study are sound and significant, the researcher found many areas of further inquiry within the framework of this study. There were questions still unanswered about this issue which could be answered in further studies. Therefore, further research is needed for a thorough understanding of this issue and for confirming its findings. This is especially true when conducting research with more variables than those in the present study. It is also recommended that this study be replicated with a larger number of participants and over the whole semester or the whole year. In addition, it would be interesting to compare results across levels of proficiency as well as age and social status of the participants. The researcher may study other skills of language that might be affected by attitudes, in addition to studying the implications if experiments were carried out with younger or older school students. The researcher also recommends the clinical application of the attitude questionnaire, developed in this study, on students learning Arabic, to elicit their perceptions towards the Arabic language and Arabic-speaking people. Students learning Arabic as a foreign language should be given a pronunciation test in order to give a fair grade to each student, because written tests customarily taken by students are basically morphological, syntactical, and semantic, and not phonetic or phonological.

Acknowledgement

The researcher would like to thank the Research Center of the College of Languages and Translation – Deanship of Scientific Research – King Saud University for the support offered to this research.

About the Author

Dr. Nasser Saleh Al-Mansour is an associate professor of applied linguistics at the Department of Linguistics and Translation Studies, College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University, Riyadh, Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia.

References

- Abboud, Peter et al. (1983). *Elementary Modern Standard Arabic 2*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Allport, G.W. (1935). In C. M. Murchison (ed.). *Handbook of Social Psychology*. Worcester, Mass: Clark University Press.
- Baker, Colin. (1988). *Key Issues in Bilingualism and Bilingual education*. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.
- Bartram, Brendan (2012). *Attitudes to Modern Foreign Language Learning: Insights from Comparative Education*, Bloomsbury Publishing, New York.
- Battistella, Edwin L. (1990). *Markedness: The Evaluative Superstructure of Language*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Bloom, Lois. (1978). *Reading in language Development*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Bordens, Kenneth S. & Horowitz, Irwin A. (2013). *Social Psychology*, Edition 2 Psychology Press, Hove, U.K.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (1987). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Chambers, Gary N. (1999). *Motivating Language Learners*. Volume 12 of Modern languages in practice. Multilingual Matters, Bristol, U.K.
- Dittmar, Robert. (1976). *Sociolinguistics*. London: Edward Arnold Publishers.
- Edwards, John R. (1982). "Language Attitudes and their Acquisition" in Ryan and Giles: 20-33.
- Eagly, Alice H. & Chaiken, Shelly (2007). *The Advantages of an Inclusive Definition of Attitude*. *Social Cognition*: Vol. 25, Special Issue: What is an Attitude?, pp. 582-602.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford/New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2000). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford/New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fasold, Ralph. (1984). *The sociolinguistics of society*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Gruhn, Rainer E., Menker, Wolfgang, & Nakamura Satoshi (2011). *Statistical Pronunciation Modeling for Non-Native Speech Processing*. London: Springer Heidelberg Dordrecht.
- Gardner, R. C. (1968). *Attitudes and Motivation : Their Role in Second Language Acquisition*. *TESOL*, 2, 141-149.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation*. London: Edward Arnold Ltd.
- Gardner, R. C. & W. Lambert. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Rowley Mass: Newbury House.
- Guiora, A., Beit-Hallahmi, R. Brannon, C. Dull, & T. Scovel. (1972). The Effects of Experimentally Induced Changes in Ego States on Pronunciation Ability in a Second Language: An Exploratory Study. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 13, 421-8.
- Krauss Robert M. & Chi-Yue-Chiu (1997). In Gilbert S. & Lindsay G. (eds.) *Handbook of Social Psychology* (4th ed.), Vol. 2 41-88. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J. (2003). Students' evaluation of CALL software programs. *Educational Media International*, 40(3-4), 293-304. Available at: <http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals>
- Lenneberg, E. (1967). *Biological Foundations of Language*. New York: Wiley and Sons.

- Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. (1989). Longman.
- Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics. (1992). Jack C Richards; John Talbot Platt; Heidi Platt; C N Candlin. Harlow, Essex, England : Longman.
- Mac Namara, M. (1973). *Attitudes and Learning a Second Language*. In Shuy, R. and R. Fasold (eds.) *Language Attitudes: Current Trends and Prospects*. Washington, D.C.36-40.
- Perinbanayagam, Robert S. (2010). *Discursive Acts: Language, Signs, and Selves*. London: Aldine Transaction (transaction Publishers).
- Ryan, Ellen Bouchard & Giles, Howard. (1982). *Attitudes towards Language Variation*. London: Edward Arnold Ltd.
- Sarnoff, I. (1970). *Social Attitudes and the Resolution of Motivational Conflict*, Harmondsworth, Penguin.
- Spolsky, B. (1969). Attitudinal Aspects of Second Language Learning. *Language Learning*, 19, 271-85.
- Svanes, B. (1980). Attitudes and Cultural Distance in Second Language Acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 357-71.
- Taylor, D. eds. (1980). *Ethnicity and Language: A Social Psychological Perspective* in Giles et al (eds.) 1980.
- Triandis, H. (1971). *Attitudes and Attitude Change*. New York: Wiley and Sons.
- Upshur, J. (1968). Four Experiments on the Relation between Foreign Language Teaching and Learning. *Language Learning*, 18, 111-24.
- Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of English Language (2nd ed.). (1996). New York: Gramercy Books.

Evaluating Academic Writing Textbook: Teachers' and Students' Perspectives

M. Ali Ghufon

English Education Department, Post Graduate Program
Semarang State University
Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia
Jl. Panglima Polim No. 46 Bojonegoro, East Java, Indonesia

Mursid Saleh

English Education Department, Post Graduate Program
Semarang State University, Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Abstract

This study attempts to evaluate the Academic Writing textbook used in English Education Study Program of Language and Art Education Faculty of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, East Java Indonesia. The book entitled "Writing Academic English" written by Oshima and Hogue was critically evaluated based on two major points, namely general attributes of the textbook and the learning-teaching content of the textbook. The general attributes of the textbook cover the book in relation to syllabus and curriculum, the methodology, the book's suitability to learners, physical and utilitarian attributes, and efficient outlay of supplementary materials. The learning-teaching content of the textbook covers general elements (move of the tasks, tasks' objectives, etc.), academic writing (specified on research paper writing), vocabulary, grammar, and exercises. The questionnaires developed to evaluate the textbook were adapted from textbook evaluation checklist which was developed by Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, and Hajimohammadi (2011). The results indicate that the lecturers and students were not really satisfied with the book since it does not represent the students' needs and requirements of research paper writing for Writing IV course at the university. The materials provided there are not specified to research paper writing. However, based on the result of evaluation, the textbook is very good in some points such as the methodology, physical and utilitarian attributes, outlay of the book, general elements (move of the tasks, tasks' objectives, etc.), academic writing (from paragraph writing to various essays writing), vocabulary, grammar, and exercises in the area.

Keywords: Academic writing, instructional materials, students' perspectives, teachers' perspectives, textbook evaluation

Introduction

Regardless of their major, university students are required to compose different types of writing, such as term papers or exam answers, throughout their studies. Moreover, the students must write a research paper as their final project at the end of their study in the university. The students will be considered to pass or fail in their study depending on this research paper (Ghufron, 2015, p. 2). The Directorate of Higher Education (DIKTI) always offers many kinds of grants for students every year in order to develop students' ability in expressing their ideas and to write the results of their scientific activity in the form of scientific article based on the criteria or standard of writing scientific journal (Ditlitabmas Dirjen Dikti, 2014, p. 24).

Writing skill in language teaching has accelerated tremendously since 30 years ago. According to Richards (2001), the sequence of activities typically involves in the teaching of writing are (1) familiarization: grammar and vocabulary are studied by learners through a text; (2) controlled writing: the given patterns are imitated by learners; (3) guided writing: model texts are manipulated by learners; and (4) free writing: the patterns they have developed are employed by learners to write a letter, a paragraph, an essay, etc. Writing in a second or foreign language is regarded as one of the most difficult skills for a learner to master, particularly in academic writing. The difficulty is due to the need to generate and organize ideas using an appropriate choice of vocabulary, sentence, and paragraph organization and to turn such ideas into a readable text (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Writing course is a compulsory subject which is taught in English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, East Java, Indonesia. It is, generally, 8 credits which are distributed in 4 semesters, each semester 2 credits. In Writing IV, the teaching and learning process is focused on academic writing to prepare the students to be able to write their final project at the end of their study. The goal of this subject is mainly to make the students to be able to write scientific paper in term of research report with appropriate content, good organization, correct diction, grammar, and mechanics.

According to Ghufron (2015), the students of English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro face difficulties in academic writing. These difficulties were indicated by both the low score of students writing skill, their scores are in range of 37 – 51, while the passing grade is 60; and supported by the result of interview to the students. The students have difficulties in academic writing since there are limited sources of materials which are appropriate to be implemented and challenging materials, and learning activities.

Further, Ghufron (2015) reveals that the teaching materials used in teaching academic writing in the mentioned Study Program are a hundred percent taken from printed books which are available in the market, and these books in some cases are not really relevant to the students. It was also revealed that the students felt bored with the materials used. Besides, there was no challenging activity during the teaching and learning process. The lecturer teaches them by explaining the textbook materials, then, asks the students to write based on instruction in the book. Then, he conducted some analysis dealing with the results found.

At last, Ghufron (2015) concludes that the problems faced by the most of students in English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro in academic writing were caused

by the monotonous teaching material used and the lack of challenging activities that could motivate students during teaching and learning process. He suggested that new teaching materials should be developed to teach academic writing. The new materials should teach students how to write ELT research paper in detail, such as: writing a topic and title; gathering information; writing an introduction; developing main paragraphs; quotations, paraphrasing and summarizing; commenting on data; writing a conclusion; writing a review; writing an abstract; writing references; revising and editing texts. Besides, the new teaching materials should also combine challenging activities and relevant materials with the students' needs and curriculum.

Selecting materials for learning-teaching resources is a great task for English language teachers as they provide a strong platform through which students learn English. Therefore, presentation of developmentally appropriate of students' needs, relevant and engaging materials is the prime responsibility of the material developers and the teachers. Teachers are urged to evaluate teaching materials since they are the users of the materials. Selection of the right materials makes teaching and learning a meaningful activity and an effective classroom environment.

Hutchinson and Torres (1994, p. 315) point out that ELT materials (textbooks) play a vital role in innovation. They state that textbooks can support teachers through potentially disturbing and threatening change processes, demonstrate new and/or untried methodologies, introduce change gradually, and create scaffolding upon which teachers can build a more creative methodology of their own. Textbooks are considered as central to teaching and learning, as their quality is a determining factor in enhancing or diminishing the quality of a language program.

Furthermore, Cunningsworth (1995, p. 7) explains that instructional material developments (course books) have multiple role in English Language Teaching and can serve as: (1) a resource for presentation materials; (2) a resource for activities of learners' practice and communicative interaction; (3) a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation; (4) a resource of stimulation and ideas for classroom language activities; (5) a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives which have already been determined; (6) a source for self-directed learning or self-access work; and (7) a support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence.

Additionally, Richards (2001) explains that textbooks are the key component of language teaching serving as the basis for much of the language input learners receive when learning a language. Textbook is a device to help students to get not only familiar with the linguistics aspects of the language but also with social and cultural aspects embedded in language.

Making the existed knowledge available and apparent to the learners in a selected, easy and organized way is one of the basic functions of textbooks. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue that any textbook has a very important and positive part to play in teaching and learning of English. They assert that textbooks provide the necessary input into classroom lessons through different activities, readings and explanations. Thus, textbooks will always survive on the grounds that they meet certain needs. Richards (2001) explains that any learning program may have no impact if it does not have textbooks as they provide structure and a syllabus. Besides,

the use of a textbook can guarantee that students in different classes will receive a similar content and therefore, can be evaluated in the same way. Textbooks also provide the standards of instruction. Moreover, they include a variety of learning resources such as workbooks, CDs, cassettes, and videos, etc., which make learners enjoy and easy to learn. Textbooks do not only provide a framework for teachers in achieving the aims and objectives of the course, but also serve as a guide to the teacher when conducting lessons. The content of English language textbooks influences what teachers teach and learners learn.

Teaching materials are also regarded as a key factor in most language programs (Richards, 2001). For teachers, textbooks or course books either required or supplementary provide content and teaching-learning activities, which shape much of what happens in the classroom (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Furthermore, Wright (cited in Lee, 2003, p. 165) says that teaching materials (e.g. textbooks) assist to define the goals of the syllabus and the roles of teachers and learners within the instructional process.

According to Richards (2005, p. 1) effective instructional materials in language teaching are shaped by consideration of a number of factors including teacher, learner, and contextual variables. Teacher factors include the teacher language proficiency, training and experience, cultural background, and preferred teaching style. Learner factors include learner's learning style preferences, their language learning needs, interests, and motivations. Contextual factors include the school culture, classroom condition, class size, and availability of teaching resources in situation where the materials will be used.

Since the choice of language teaching materials can determine the quality of learning-teaching procedure, there should be appropriate materials by considering (1) teacher factors, such as: teacher language proficiency, training and experience, cultural background, and preferred teaching style; (2) learner factors, such as: learning learner style preferences, their language learning needs, interests, and motivations; and (3) contextual factors, such as: school culture, classroom condition, class size, and availability of teaching resources. As a part of the materials used in the language classroom, textbook, therefore, can often play a crucial role in students' success or failure. Therefore, particular attention must be paid to evaluate such textbook materials to suits those three factors and learning outcomes.

Based on this condition and needs, to fill the gap, the researcher aimed at designing a model of instructional materials in the form of textbook prototype that discusses the ELT research paper writing. There must be textbook materials that are mainly focused on teaching students of how to write ELT research paper. Because of the importance in its implementation, the development of textbook materials which cover some topics dealing with ELT research paper will give much contribution in improving students' writing skill in research paper. Besides, textbook materials can be used wherever and whenever, even without any teachers. It means that the students can learn the materials independently in order to improve their writing skills as far as the materials are available. Therefore, this research will focus on the development of a model of research paper instructional materials for academic writing course that will be used by the fourth semester students in English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro. Since this is research and development and is the part of the researcher's dissertation, the results presented in this study were only the results of exploration phase.

Literature Review

Academic writing is a general term that refers to all writing created for the purpose of study (Chin, Khoizumi, Reid, Wray, & Yamazaki, 2012). University students are evaluated largely based on their writing, so writing skill is essential for academic success. Chin et al. (2012) state that academic writing is different from other types of writing in several ways, they are: (1) purpose: academic writing is mainly purposed to demonstrate knowledge of a topic; (2) audience: it refers to the reader of the writing; (3) evidence; (4) style; and (5) the process of writing.

There are two forms of instructional materials: printed forms, such as textbook, workbook, teacher's guide, etc.; and non-printed forms, such as videotapes, audiotapes, and computer-based materials. Instructional materials are considered as main component in TEFL programs, which is very essential for both teachers and learners. Especially, textbooks are the mostly used teaching and learning materials for both teachers and the learners. They do not only provide a framework for teachers in achieving the aims and objectives of the course, but also serve as a guide to the teacher when conducting lessons. On behalf of the learners, a textbook truly affects their attitudes and performance to the lesson throughout the course. It is a fact that when learners like their textbooks, they like the course as well and become active participants to the lesson. The textbook is an important source of input and a great opportunity for EFL learners to communicate in the target language, which is realized only in classroom settings in most public schools (Tok, 2010).

Sheldon (1988) points out that textbook evaluation is done for two reasons. First, the evaluation will help the teacher or program developer in making decisions on selecting the appropriate textbook. Furthermore, evaluation of the merits and demerits of a textbook will familiarize the teacher with its probable weaknesses and strengths. This will enable teachers to make appropriate adaptations to the material in their future instruction. In this line, Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) propose that textbook evaluation can be of three types, namely "pre-use", "in-use", and "post-use" evaluations. Evaluation of textbooks for pre-use, or predictive, purposes helps teachers in selecting the most appropriate textbook for a given language classroom by considering its prospective performance. The second type of evaluation aids the teacher to explore the weaknesses or strengths of the textbook while it is being used. Finally, post-use, or retrospective evaluation helps the teacher reflect on the quality of the textbook after it has been used in a particular learning-teaching situation.

Methodology

Method

This research was designed by using descriptive research model. The data about the assessment of the academic writing textbook used in English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro were taken from the results of the data collection instrument (Teacher Textbook Evaluation Form).

Participants

The study was carried out with 3 academic writing teachers (2 males, 1 female) at English Education Study Program of Language and Art Education Faculty of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro. All of participants have 2-5 years experience in teaching English. Besides, this study also involved

10 students of the fifth semester of the mentioned program. The ten students were chosen purposively. The students chosen to be involved in this study were those who have the highest score in their academic writing (Writing IV).

Instrument

The data collection instrument consists of two parts. The first part is about the subjects' personal information; the second part is the Textbook Evaluation Checklist, which elicits the criteria of a textbook for English course. "Textbook Evaluation Checklist" was adapted from textbook evaluation checklist developed by Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, and Hajimohammadi (2011). This textbook evaluation checklist cover two major points, namely general attributes and learning-content. From the two major points, there were 31 questions dealing the textbook which is going to be evaluated. For the statements in the "Textbook Evaluation Checklist" a Likert-type of equal-range was used. The statements in the inventory have been labelled as; "Completely Agree (5)", "Agree (4)", "Partly Agree (3)", "Disagree (2)", "Completely Disagree (1)". In order to guarantee the reliability of the data, Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was also done among the respondents and the researcher.

Limitations

This study is limited to Academic Writing teachers in English Education Study Program of Language and Art Education Faculty of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro. Therefore, conclusions need to be verified by conducting similar studies across different universities. It is assumed that teachers and students answered the questions honestly and with seriousness. Another limitation of this study is that the present study is a micro level evaluation study, however, it can be complemented with a macro evaluation study, which is on the task level.

Findings and Discussions

The data of this study were gotten from questionnaires distribution to 3 academic writing teachers and 10 fifth semester students of English Education Study Program of Language and Art Education Faculty of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, East Java, Indonesia. The results are presented as follows:

Table 1. The Results of Textbook Evaluation Checklist

No.	Criteria	Score					Total N (%)
		5 (%)	4 (%)	3 (%)	2 (%)	1 (%)	
General Attributes							
A.	The book in relation to syllabus and curriculum						
1	It matches with the specifications of the syllabus	-	-	-	4 (31%)	9 (69%)	13 (100%)
B.	Methodology						
2	The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT	13 (100%)	-	-	-	-	13 (100%)
3	Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT	13 (100%)	-	-	-	-	13 (100%)

C.	Suitability to learners						
4	It is compatible with background knowledge and level of students	-	10 (77%)	3 (33%)	-	-	13 (100%)
5	It is culturally accessible to the learners	-	-	8 (62%)	5 (38%)	-	13 (100%)
6	It is compatible to the needs of the learners	-	-	-	13 (100%)	-	13 (100%)
7	It is compatible to the interests of the learners	-	-	-	13 (100%)	-	13 (100%)
D.	Physical and utilitarian attributes						
8	Its layout is attractive	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	-	-	-	13 (100%)
9	It indicates efficient use of text and visuals	-	6 (46%)	7 (54%)	-	-	13 (100%)
E.	Efficient outlay of supplementary materials						
10	There is a teacher's guide to aid the teacher	-	-	-	13 (100%)	-	13 (100%)
Learning-teaching content							
A.	General						
1	Most of the tasks in the book are interesting	-	7 (54%)	6 (46%)	-	-	13 (100%)
2	Tasks move from simple to complex	13 (100%)	-	-	-	-	13 (100%)
3	Task objectives are achievable	5 (38%)	8 (62%)	-	-	-	13 (100%)
4	Cultural sensitivities have been considered	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	-	-	-	13 (100%)
5	The language in the book is natural and real	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	-	-	-	13 (100%)
6	The material is up-to-date	-	4 (31%)	9 (69%)	-	-	13 (100%)
7	It covers a variety of topics in ELT	-	-	-	8 (62%)	5 (38%)	13 (100%)
8	The book contain materials taken from ELT research findings	-	-	-	13 (100%)	-	13 (100%)
9	The book covers materials of writing research paper	-	-	-	13 (100%)	-	13 (100%)
B.	Academic Writing						

10	Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration of learner	-	10 (77%)	3 (33%)	-	-	13 (100%)
11	Models are provided for different genres	13 (100%)	-	-	-	-	13 (100%)
C. Vocabulary							
12	The load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	-	-	-	13 (100%)
13	There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book	-	8 (62%)	5 (38%)	-	-	13 (100%)
14	Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book	-	8 (62%)	5 (38%)	-	-	13 (100%)
D. Grammar							
15	The spread of grammar is achievable	5 (38%)	8 (62%)	-	-	-	13 (100%)
16	The grammar is contextualized	-	-	7 (54%)	6 (46%)	-	13 (100%)
17	Examples are interesting	-	-	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	-	13 (100%)
18	Grammar are introduced explicitly	-	-	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	-	13 (100%)
E. Exercises							
19	They have clear instructions	13 (100%)	-	-	-	-	13 (100%)
20	They are adequate	13 (100%)	-	-	-	-	13 (100%)
21	They help students who are under/over-achievers	-	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	-	-	13 (100%)

Adapted from checklist which was developed by Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, and Hajimohammadi (2011)

From the table, it is known that questions in the textbook evaluation checklist were divided into two major points: general attributes and learning-teaching content. The general attributes cover the book in relation to syllabus and curriculum, methodology, suitability to learners, physical and utilitarian attributes, and supplementary materials. The learning-teaching content covers general aspects (such as move of the task, etc.), academic writing aspects, vocabulary, grammar, and exercise.

General Attributes

The first major point that was evaluated from the textbook entitled "Writing Academic English" written by Oshima and Hogue (2006) is general attributes. In this part, there are 5 aspects that were evaluated. The first aspect is the book in relation to syllabus and curriculum.

From the table 1 above, it is clearly seen that 31% of respondents disagree with the statement that says about the suitability of the textbook with the syllabus and curriculum, while 69% of respondents completely disagree. Therefore, it is concluded that the textbook does not match with the syllabus and curriculum of academic writing course in the program. The curriculum there mandates the materials that should be taught in Writing IV must deal with the ELT research paper writing.

The second aspect is methodology. There are two statements dealing with this aspect. The statements deal with the activities in the textbook whether or not can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT; and activities can work well with methodologies in ELT. In both of the first and the second statements, 100% of respondents completely agree with the statements. It means that in this point (methodology), the textbook is excellent.

The third aspect is the textbook suitability to learners. This aspect covers four statements, i.e. the compatibility of the textbook with the students' background knowledge and students' level, the textbook accessibility of the culture to the learners, the textbook compatibility to the needs of learners, and the textbook compatibility to the interests of learners. The results show that 77% of respondents agree with the first statement, and 33% of them partly agree. Then, for the second statement, 62% of respondents partly agree with the statement and 38% of them do not. For the third and the fourth statements, 100% of respondents disagree with the statement. Therefore, the conclusion is the aspect of textbook suitability to learners still does not have good suitability to learners, since there are still some parts that do not fulfill the students' needs.

The fourth aspect is the physical and utilitarian attributes. This aspect involves two statements. The first statement is whether or not its layout is attractive and the second one is whether or not it indicates efficient use of texts and visuals. The results reveal that 69% of respondents completely agree and 31% of them agree with the first statement. While for the second statement, it is seen that 46% of respondents agree and 54% of them partly agree with the second statement. In conclusion, it can be said that the textbook has good enough physical and utilitarian attributes especially its layout.

The last or the fifth aspect of the general attributes is supplementary materials. There is only one statement proposed to the respondents dealing with this aspect. The statement is whether or not the textbook provides teacher's guide to help the teacher in using the textbook. 100% of respondents answered that there is no teacher's guide provided.

The Learning-Teaching Content

The second major point that was evaluated from the textbook (Oshima and Hogue, 2006) is learning-teaching content. In this part, there are also 5 aspects that were evaluated. They are general aspects (such as move of the task, etc.), academic writing aspects, vocabulary, grammar, and exercise.

The first aspect that was evaluated from this part is general aspects. They deal with whether or not (1) most of the tasks in the book are interesting; (2) tasks move from simple to complex; (3) task objectives are achievable; (4) cultural sensitivities have been considered; (5) the language in the book is natural and real; (6) the material is up-to-date; (7) it covers a variety of topics in ELT; (8) the book contain materials taken from ELT research findings; and (9) the

book covers materials of writing research paper. The results show that 54% of respondents agree and 46% of them partly agree with the first statement. For the second statement, it seen that 100% of respondents completely agree. The third statement was answer by respondents with the results that 38% of respondents completely agree and 62% of them agree with the statement. The next is the fourth statement which was answered by respondents with the results that 69% of respondents completely agree and 31% of them agree with the statement. Then, the fifth statement was answered and results the same percentage with the fourth statement, it is 69% of respondents completely agree and 31% of them agree with the statement. The next is the sixth statement which deals with the novelty of the materials. The results show that 31% of respondents agree and 69% of them partly agree with the statement. The seventh statement deals with textbook's topics variety in ELT. 62% of respondents disagree and 38% of them completely disagree with the statement. The eighth statement deals with the materials which are taken from ELT research findings. The respondents answered that 100% of them disagree with the statement. The last is the statement dealing with the materials of writing research paper. The answer from respondents is the same as the eighth statement. It is 100% of them disagree with the statement. Finally, it can be concluded that the textbook is good enough in terms of general attributes. However, if it is used for teaching and learning of academic writing course (Writing IV) in English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro is still not relevant with the students' needs and curriculum. This is caused by the inexistence of the materials in the textbook which cover ELT research findings and research paper writing in which the two of them are in line with the students' needs and curriculum for Writing IV course. If it is analyzed further, this textbook is relevant with the curriculum if it is used to teach academic writing course in the terms of sentences, paragraph and essay writing (Writing I, Writing II, and Writing III courses). According to Richards (2005, p. 1) effective instructional materials in language teaching are shaped by consideration of a number of factors including teacher, learner, and contextual variables. Teacher factors include the teacher language proficiency, training and experience, cultural background, and preferred teaching style. Learner factors include learner's learning style preferences, their language learning needs, interests, and motivations. Contextual factors include the school culture, classroom condition, class size, and availability of teaching resources in situation where the materials will be used. Therefore, in order to fulfill the students' needs and adjust the curriculum, there should be new instructional materials which cover ELT research findings and research paper writing.

The second aspect that was evaluated from the textbook is academic writing. This aspect covers two statements. The first statement deals with achievable goals of the tasks and whether or not it has been taken into consideration of learners. The results show that 77% of respondents agree and 33% of them partly agree with the statement. The second statement deals with models of different genres provided by the textbook. The results reveal that 100% of respondents completely agree with the statement. Therefore, it can be concluded that the textbook is very good in terms of academic writing aspects.

The third is vocabulary aspect. There are 3 statements dealing with this aspect. The first statement is whether or not the load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level. 69% of respondents completely agree and 31% of them agree with this statement. The second statement is whether or not there is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book. The answers show that 62% of respondents agree and

38% of them partly agree with the statement. The last statement is whether or not words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book. The answers show that 62% of respondents agree and 38% of them partly agree with the statement. Then, it is concluded that the textbook is very good in vocabulary aspects.

The fourth is grammatical aspect. There are 4 statements dealing with this aspect. The first statement is whether or not the spread of grammar is achievable. The answers of respondents show that 38% of them completely agree and 62% of them agree with the statement. The second statement is whether or not the grammar is contextualized. The results reveal that 54% of respondents partly agree and 46% of them disagree with the statement. The third statement is whether or not examples are interesting. The answers show that 69% of respondents partly agree and 31% of them disagree with the statement. The fourth statement is whether or not grammars are introduced explicitly. The answers show the same results as the third statement. The 69% of respondents partly agree and 31% of them disagree with the statement. Then, from the results above, it is concluded that the respondents are not satisfied enough with grammatical aspects in the textbook.

The last aspect that was evaluated from the point of teaching-learning content is exercises. It covers 3 statements. They are whether or not (1) the exercises help students who are under/over-achievers; (2) they are adequate; and (3) they have clear instructions. For the first and the second statements, 100% of respondents completely agree with those two statements. Then, for the last statement, 69% of respondents agree and 31% of them partly agree with the statement. The conclusion is the textbook provides very good exercise for every single topic discussed there. However, some of them do not have a very clear instruction.

Conclusion

After analyzing the textbook entitled "Writing Academic English" written by Oshima and Hogue by using textbook evaluation checklist developed by Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, and Hajimohammadi (2011), it is concluded that the lecturers and students were not really satisfied with the book since it does not represent the students' needs and curriculum (the curriculum of English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro mandated to teach research paper writing for Writing IV course). The materials provided there are not specified to research paper writing. However, the textbook is very good in some points such as the methodology, physical and utilitarian attributes, outlay of the book, general elements (move of the tasks, tasks' objectives, etc.), academic writing (from paragraph writing to various essays writing), vocabulary, grammar, and exercises in the area. Besides, if it is used for teaching and learning of academic writing course (Writing IV) in English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro is still not relevant with the students' needs and curriculum. This is caused by the inexistence of the materials in the textbook which cover ELT research findings and research paper writing in which the two of them are in line with the students' needs and curriculum for Writing IV course. If it is analyzed further, this textbook is relevant with the curriculum if it is used to teach academic writing course in the terms of sentences, paragraph and essay writing (Writing I, Writing II, and Writing III courses).

Based on the conclusion above, it is highly recommended that there will be a model of teaching materials of academic writing course that focuses on research paper writing which is

appropriate with students' needs, curriculum, and also the purposes of English education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, East Java, Indonesia.

About the Authors:

M. Ali Ghufron is a Post-Graduate Student of English Education Department of Semarang State University, Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia. He has special interest in English Language Teaching Materials Development and English Language Teaching Methodology. He has published some articles in journals in the area. He has also presented some of his research results in international seminar such as TEFLIN, ELTTLT, and ICTTE.

Prof. Mursid Saleh, M.A., Ph.D is a professor in English Department of Semarang State University. He has special interest in Language Teaching Methodology and Language Teaching Materials Development. His research entitled "The Teachers' Selection of Materials and Methods in EFL Teacher Education Classes" has brought him to get Ph.D. He has published articles in reputable journals in the area. He has also presented his research results in international seminar such as RELC.

References

- Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). *Teaching English as second or foreign language (3rd edition)*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Chin, P., Koizumi, Y., Reid, S., Wray, S., & Yamazaki, Y. (2012). *Academic writing skill: students' book 1*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your coursebook*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Ditlitabmas Dirjen Dikti. (2014). *Pedoman kreativitas mahasiswa*. Jakarta: Ditlitabmas Dikti.
- Ellis, R. (1997). The Empirical Evaluation of Language Teaching Materials. *ELT Journal*, 51(1). 36 – 42.
- Ghufron, M. A. (2015). Enhancing Students' Academic Writing Skill by Using Research Paper Writing Instructional Materials. *LENSA Journal*, 5(2). 1 – 9.
- Hutchinson, T. And Torres (1994). 'The textbook as agent of change' [in:] *ELT Journal* 48(4).
- Lee, Y. (2003). A package for an English paragraph: An evaluation of the coursebook used in two EFL writing courses. *English Teaching Journal*, 58(3). 165 – 188.
- Mukundan, J., Nimehchisalem, V., & Hajimohammadi, R. (2011). Developing an English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist: A Focus Group Study. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 1(12). 100 – 106.
- Oshima, A., & Hogue, Ann. (2006). *Writing academic english: fourth edition*. New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2005). Materials Development and Research-Making the Connection. *Paper Presented at a Colloquium on Research and Materials Development, at the TESOL Convention, San Antonio*.
- Richards, J.C. & W. A. Renandya. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sheldon, L. (1988). Evaluating ELT Textbooks and Materials. *ELT Journal*, 42(4). 237 – 246.
- Tok, H. (2010). TEFL textbook evaluation: From teachers' perspectives. *Educational Research and Review*, 5(9). 508 – 517.

Appendix A**Questionnaire for Academic Writing Lecturers****A Checklist for Textbook Evaluation**

(Adapted from textbook evaluation checklist developed by Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, and Hajimohammadi, 2011)

Evaluator :

Evaluator		Score				
No.	Criteria	5	4	3	2	1
General Attributes						
A.	The book in relation to syllabus and curriculum					
1	It matches with the specifications of the syllabus					
B.	Methodology					
2	The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT					
3	Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT					
C.	Suitability to learners					
4	It is compatible with background knowledge and level of students					
5	It is culturally accessible to the learners					
6	It is compatible to the needs of the learners					
7	It is compatible to the interests of the learners					
D.	Physical and utilitarian attributes					
8	Its layout is attractive					
9	It indicates efficient use of text and visuals					
E.	Efficient outlay of supplementary materials					
10	There is a teacher's guide to aid the teacher					
Learning-teaching content						
A.	General					
1	Most of the tasks in the book are interesting					
2	Tasks move from simple to complex					
3	Task objectives are achievable					
4	Cultural sensitivities have been considered					
5	The language in the book is natural and real					
6	The material is up-to-date					
7	It covers a variety of topics in ELT					
8	The book contain materials taken from ELT research findings					
9	The book covers materials of writing research paper					
B.	Academic Writing					
10	Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration of learner					
11	Models are provided for different genres					
C.	Vocabulary					
12	The load (number of new words in each lesson) is					

	appropriate to the level					
13	There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book					
14	Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book					
D.	Grammar					
15	The spread of grammar is achievable					
16	The grammar is contextualized					
17	Examples are interesting					
18	Grammar are introduced explicitly					
E.	Exercises					
19	They have clear instructions					
20	They are adequate					
21	They help students who are under/over-achievers					

If you want to add any idea, suggestion or comment related to the study, feel free to add it here!

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix B

Students' Questionnaires for Textbook Evaluation

A Checklist for Textbook Evaluation

Name of Student:

Name of Student.....		Score				
No.	Criteria	5	4	3	2	1
General Attributes						
A.	The book in relation to syllabus and curriculum					
1	It matches with the specifications of the syllabus					
B.	Methodology					
2	The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT					
3	Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT					
C.	Suitability to learners					
4	It is compatible with background knowledge and level of students					
5	It is culturally accessible to the learners					
6	It is compatible to the needs of the learners					
7	It is compatible to the interests of the learners					
D.	Physical and utilitarian attributes					
8	Its layout is attractive					
9	It indicates efficient use of text and visuals					
E.	Efficient outlay of supplementary materials					

10	There is a teacher's guide to aid the teacher					
Learning-teaching content						
A.	General					
1	Most of the tasks in the book are interesting					
2	Tasks move from simple to complex					
3	Task objectives are achievable					
4	Cultural sensitivities have been considered					
5	The language in the book is natural and real					
6	The material is up-to-date					
7	It covers a variety of topics in ELT					
8	The book contain materials taken from ELT research findings					
9	The book covers materials of writing research paper					
B.	Academic Writing					
10	Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration of learner					
11	Models are provided for different genres					
C.	Vocabulary					
12	The load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level					
13	There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book					
14	Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book					
D.	Grammar					
15	The spread of grammar is achievable					
16	The grammar is contextualized					
17	Examples are interesting					
18	Grammar are introduced explicitly					
E.	Exercises					
19	They have clear instructions					
20	They are adequate					
21	They help students who are under/over-achievers					

If you want to add any idea, suggestion or comment related to the study, feel free to add it here!

.....

.....

.....

.....

Teachers' Perceptions of Self-observation As An Appraisal Tool

Samira Boukadi Haj Sassi

English Faculty

CERT/ Higher Colleges of Technology

Abu Dhabi, UAE

Abstract

This study explores teachers' beliefs about self-observation on practice as one alternative for the appraisal process. In this study, teachers were interviewed about how they viewed self-observation and how well it served them in developing their teaching on the one hand, and enhancing reflective practice on the other one. The findings in this paper are based on a qualitative research that employed an interpretivist /constructivist theory, in which qualitative data was gathered primarily through interviews with a view to clarifying teachers' perceptions and understanding the beliefs and practices behind them. The study attempted to answer mainly the following question. "What do teachers understand by self-observation and how do they perceive its role in professional development?" The findings of the study revolve around two main themes; the benefits and the drawbacks of self-observation theory. While, the first one describes self- observation as an opportunity for reflection, awareness and professional growth, the second view claims that such practices depend on personality and attitudes, and is limited by various constraints.

Key words: appraisal, Arabian Gulf, performance enhancement, professional development, reflective practice, self-observation

1. Introduction

The Performance Enhancement Program (PEP) is a faculty appraisal system used in the Higher Colleges of Technology (HCT) - a tertiary institution in the Gulf. It is a yearly process; teachers have to write a reflective statement about their teaching philosophy, set teaching goals for the academic year, map a professional development plan, and have a classroom observation report. The PEP is a standard system; it encourages reflection and is regarded as an opportunity for professional development within a structured program. The process is qualitative in nature; it relies on principles such as reflection and quality. Observation is one main component of the process, and the faculty member is expected to be observed at least once every academic year. Generally, observation is conducted by the department supervisor in the first year of their contract, and then teachers can either have a peer observation or a self-observation report for the PEP. But teachers mainly choose peer observation rather than self-observation. In order to understand better the teachers' perceptions and the beliefs about self-observation, the author decided to investigate this practice.

2. Literature review

Currently, teachers are facing an array of complex challenges such as, among many others, working with a diverse population of students, integrating new technology in the classroom, and meeting rigorous academic standards and goals. However, teachers are aware that professional development exists to enhance their instructional knowledge.

Professional development in the educational field refers to ongoing learning opportunities available to teachers, and effective professional development is seen as increasingly vital to both the success of the learning process and to the teachers' satisfaction. Richards and Farrell (2005) state that professional development is "an awareness of what the teacher's current knowledge, skills, and attitudes are and the use of such information as the basis for self-appraisal" (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.34), and in order to demonstrate such awareness, teachers need to observe and reflect on their own practices. Notably, a review of the relevant literature reveals that limited research has been conducted in the area of self-observation.

Self-observation is an approach towards reflective teaching; it gives teachers an additional opportunity to reflect on teaching techniques and activities used in class. According to Richards and Farrell (2005), self-observation or self-monitoring, which are used interchangeably in the literature, is "a systematic approach to the observation, evaluation, and management of one's own behavior in order to achieve a better understanding and control over the behavior". (p.34) Therefore, self-observation and reflection on practice help teachers move from a philosophy of teaching and learning to a philosophy of teaching consistent with their emerging understandings of language learning and teaching processes. Additionally, Borg (2003), argues that the teacher's practical knowledge is shaped by various background sources, such as teaching experience, apprenticeship of observation, frequency and nature of reflection.

Brinko (1993) argues that the most effective feedback is from oneself as it is "more valued, better recalled and more credible." (Brinko, 1993, p.577) Moreover, self-monitoring is based on the view that "in order to better understand one's teaching and one's own strengths and weaknesses as a teacher, it is necessary to collect information about teaching behavior and practices objectively and systematically and use this information as a basis for making decisions

about whether there is anything that should be changed” (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.34). Furthermore, Stanley (1998) believes that self-observation is one of the most powerful tools for a teacher to practice reflective teaching. In this regard, a teacher can look at what she or he did in the classroom, think about why she or he did it, and reflect upon if it worked or not. Self-observation, therefore, can provide a language teacher with an opportunity for undertaking reflection. Schon (1983), describes reflection in two main ways: reflection *on* action and reflection *in* action. Reflection *on* action is retrospect, after the lesson, whilst reflection *in* action takes place during the lesson. Thus, through self-observation, teachers can explore their teaching in order to understand better their own teaching practices, and change bad practices they were unaware of.

Richards and Lockhart (1996) see observation in general as “a way of gathering information about teaching, rather than a way of evaluating teaching”. (p.11) Therefore, it seems logical that adequate techniques and strategies be put in place to collect data through observation. Danielson (2008) states that direct observation can provide evidence of reflective practice and self-report. Richards and Farrell (2005), for example, suggest three approaches to self-monitoring of language lessons so as to collect suitable: *1-lesson reports, 2-audio-recording a lesson, and 3- video-recording a lesson.*

The first approach, *lesson reports*, is when teachers write a description of their lesson after delivering it. Richards and Farrell state that “a lesson report tries to record what actually happened in the lesson, can be carried as a narrative account for the lesson or using a checklist or a questionnaire” (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.38).

For the second approach, *audio-recording a lesson*, Richards and Farrell argue that “The purpose of making a recording of a lesson is to identify aspects of one’s lesson that can only be identified through real-time-recording” (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.42). However, this approach seems to be ignored these days, or more specifically replaced by the next approach.

The third one is *video-recording a lesson*, which Richards and Farrell think is “The best record of a lesson is a video because it provides a much more accurate and complete record than a written or audio-recording” (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.44). However, it is also believed by many to be time consuming and disruptive in class. Richards and Lockhart agree with this view and believe that “The advantage of the preceding procedures is that they are relatively easy to carry out”. (p.11) Indeed, many teachers would think of video recording rather than tape recording if they were ever asked about recording. Moreover, as described in Richards and Lockhart (1996, p.11) Schratz (1992) agrees that audio-visual recordings are prevailing instruments in the development of a teacher’s self-reflective competence. He said, it is mirror like, an objective view of what goes on in class.

However, Richards and Lockhart (1996) believe that observation has disadvantages because it helps obtain “subjective impressions of teaching and by their nature can capture only recollections and interpretations of events and not the actual events themselves”. (p.11)

In addition, self-observation is known to be a useful tool for practicing teachers to explore and gain a critical self-awareness of their own teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practices.

Richards and Farrell (2005) elaborate that self-observation enables a teacher to record her or his own teaching practices, by providing an objective, descriptive, and critical account of it. Such feedback can only be effective and constructive, because information is gathered from trusted sources - video and audio -and contains accurate data and irrefutable evidence. Therefore, it obviously leads to more reflective practices.

Undoubtedly, reflection is a major aspect of professional development because it is an immediate way for teachers to increase their awareness of how they teach. Conscious reflection upon one's practice is highly recommended by the tenets of continuing professional development of educators (such as Biggs, 2003; Boud et al., 1985; Lyons, 2002) as it has the power to increase educators' knowledge of academic content and teaching skills. Dewey (1933), among others, argues that reflection is an active cognitive process; it is a deliberate act, which involves sequences of interconnected ideas and takes account of underlying beliefs and knowledge. Dewey believes that reflective thinking, which is a special form of problem solving, addresses practical problems allowing for doubt and perplexity before possible solutions are reached.

Additionally, reflection is a complex process and moves through different cognitive levels. For instance, Grimmer et al. (1990), propose four modes of thinking while reflecting on teaching practices: (1) *Technological*, which demand a prescribed set of solutions, (2) *Situational*, which refers making decisions while focusing only on information embedded in a specific context at a specific time. (3) *Deliberate*, which is when an educator seeks more information than the immediate context provides. (4) *Dialectical*, which relies on the teacher's ability to think beyond the repertoire of pedagogical strategies and to avoid displaying judgments; this mode goes beyond simple solutions to actual problem solving. Danielson (2008) believes that at the dialectical stage, teachers' beliefs and behaviors change as new understandings initiate new actions.

Grimmett et al. (1990), claim that using one mode or the other is generally an unconscious act, unless teachers are expert and move deliberately across the modes relative to the complexity of the situation. However, all the modes are complementary and represent useful steps for decision making and problem solving processes, and require conscious analysis and data seeking at all times.

3. Methodology

The current study is based on a mixed-method approach, but mainly qualitative, seeking narrative information in order to understand better teachers' perceptions about self-observation. It is therefore about collecting and analyzing narrative data, while focusing on teachers' attitudes and beliefs.

3.1. Research question

The main research question in this study is, "What do teachers understand by self-observation and how do they perceive its role in professional development?"

Sub-questions addressed were as follow:

- Why do teachers conduct self-observation?
- How is self-observation conducted in the college?

- What are the benefits and the drawbacks of self-observation?
- How could the process be improved?

3.2. Theoretical framework

Underpinning the research question is the assumption that knowledge is socially constructed. For instance, teachers have different beliefs and perceptions about self-observation, and these beliefs reflect teachers' attitudes and practices as noted by Richards and Lockhart (1996) "what teachers do is a reflection of what they know and believe". (p.29)

A paradigmatic assumption behind this question is that Interpretivist/Constructivist theory can deepen our understanding of teachers' beliefs and attitudes, which is constructed through a combination of individual and social processes (Vygotsky, 1998).

It is therefore important to acknowledge that potential differences about how teachers perceive self-observation are possible and recognized. The current study seeks to shed light on perceptions and views about self-observation; the information gathered is mainly for deeper understanding therefore cannot be generalized.

3.3. Participants

The study involved three phases, each phase had different participants but they all belong to the same department. The population of the study - sixty teachers and one supervisor - is represented mainly by eight teachers who participated in the Focus Group Interview (FGI). Recruiting participants for the FGI was a big challenge! The researcher recruited eight willing colleagues who called – Sam, John, Sally, Sandy, Lily, Mike, Phil, and Joe. The author was very careful while selecting the informants, making sure they all have good relations and trusted each other to avoid any potential problems, and mainly to ensure openness. Because, as Creswell (2002) notes that the FGI is more likely to yield the best information when the group is highly cooperative and familiar with one another. Richards (2003), among others, recommends investing time and effort into selecting members of the group. Krueger and Casey (2000) suggest that FGI should involve between six and eight participants, as smaller groups show greater potentials. However, the researcher thought eight participants were manageable and a larger group would help me gain a variety of perspectives. The informants have been working together in the same department for several years so far. They are used to speaking with each other, and this style of interview would definitely elicit the best results.

3.4. Ethics

The paper used the established ethical research procedures, at both institutional and individual levels. A research proposal was submitted for approval. Then, the informants were asked to sign a consent form beforehand. They all agreed that the data would be used for research purposes and did not mind recording the interview.

3.5. Interview protocol

Following suggestions made in (Creswell, 2002; Richards, 2003), an interview protocol was created. The participants were informed of the study's aim, and were guaranteed anonymity. The researcher suggested pseudonyms that were used in the report in order to protect the identities of the participants as suggested in (Cohen, Manion, and Morisson, 2000).

The meeting occurred over a cup of coffee and cookies to break the ice and engage in informal conversations in order to make sure that the members of the group felt comfortable with each other and to engage in open discussion. The informants were given an overview of the questions and the time needed for the task, and then they were informed about starting the recorder in order to ensure their awareness of the formality of the task.

4. Procedures and methods

This study was designed following a mixed-method approach, which allowed a wide range of data to be gathered and interpreted. It was planned for three phases by using three different tools in the data collection process; a one-to-one interview, and a Focus-Group Interview (FGI), which are both qualitative tools. And then a short survey, which is quantitative in design was used but served to clarify the participants' background, rather than for a statistical check.

4.1. Phase 1: Informal Interview with the supervisor

The first one-to-one interview with the supervisor helped set the ground for the research, and identify the population for the study. Kvale (1996) states that interviews are a step towards regarding knowledge as generated between humans. Thus the social situation of the research data will be more emphasised (Cohen et al., 2001).

Firstly, the author informed the supervisor about the intended study, and discussed with him self-observation as a general practice in the department. The supervisor found the topic interesting and encouraged the researcher to conduct research and investigate this area. Secondly, the supervisor was asked by the researcher a few questions about figures, types and modes of observation that teachers conducted.

4.2. Phase 2: Survey

The second phase of the study is quantitative in nature; it comprised a quick survey that was circulated among colleagues in the department via the supervisor. The aim was to collect more background data and to select willing informants for the third phase. The information sought was about gender, years of teaching experience, preferred type and mode of observation, and finally whether they agree to take part in the planned FGI in order to enlighten the study.

4.3. Phase 3: Semi-structured focus-group interviews

The third phase of the study comprised the main method chosen to explore participants' views, which is the FGI. It is qualitative in nature, and has recently gained popularity amongst professionals in the educational research field, mainly for its ability to generate large amounts of data in a relatively short time. Indeed, FGI helps explore informants' beliefs and views, enlightening their attitudes and behaviours. The main aim of FGI is to collect data, understand meanings, and explain beliefs and those cultures that affect individuals' feelings, attitudes and behaviours. Richards (2003) suggests then a semi-structured interview, which is one possibility of gaining an important view of participants' feelings and perceptions while maintaining a focus on the main research questions. The researcher thinks that a semi-structured focus group interview is ideally suited for this current research, which is aiming at exploring the complexity surrounding teachers' beliefs and behaviours within the context of actual teaching experience.

On the one hand, FGI provide an important range of information; on the other hand, it illuminates the differences in perspective between groups of informants.

The interview, which was audio-recorded, began with general questions, and then continued with additional questions to expand the study and to seek further details. Additionally, and to address ethical matters, the purpose of the study was reiterated, participants were guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity, and they were promised the opportunity to review the interview transcripts if needed. While the interview protocol provided a common framework for addressing the overall research questions, participants were permitted to express ideas and opinions beyond the bounds of the questions asked. This approach served to reach a broader understanding of teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards self-observation. The FGI concluded with a validity check. The transcript was shared with those participants, who requested to see it, with a view to correcting or adding missing information.

5. Data analysis

5.1. Phase 1: Analysis of the supervisor interview

Notes were taken and figures were compiled during the interview. The purpose of analyzing the interview notes was to gain a general idea about the practice of self-observation in the department, and to determine the population involved in the study. The data was tabulated and results represented into charts to be read better; therefore, the picture on the population for the study became clearer.

5.2. Phase 2: Analysis of the survey

Drawing on the analysis of the data provided in the previous interview, a short survey was constructed, and then given to all the teachers in the department. The purpose of this tool was to gain a clearer picture of the background of the population, to construct meaning, and to identify participants for the FGI rather than to have a statistical check. The data was read across, tabulated, and the participants for the following stage were identified. The aim of the background information included in the survey was to know better the participants, and to make sense of the FGI data.

5.3. Phase 3: Analysis of Focus-Group Interview

The aim of the interview was to engage study participants in a reflective dialogue with the researcher (Cresswell, 2002; Richards, 2003). The FGI recording was one hour in length. Several major categories were identified as they emerged in the recordings, and following Krueger and Casey (2000) concept irrelevant information was ignored by the researcher and the remaining relevant parts were transcribed bearing in mind that the process of qualitative analysis, which aims to bring meaning to a situation rather than the search for truth.

Analysis of data followed Cresswell's (2002) guidelines and Yin's (1989) suggested stages as he points out that data analysis consists of a number of stages, i.e. examining, categorizing and tabulating or otherwise recombining the evidence, in order to address the initial goal of a study.

Given the author's with the context, institution and teachers under scrutiny, she sought to minimize the impact of her views on the analysis of the data. She therefore attempted to use a

“strategic and technical detachment” approach to both data collection and analysis (Holliday, 2001, p. 178). To avoid imposing personal views on the data and it was analysed using exploratory content analysis. Therefore the information was categorized and codified to identify the emerging themes and then compared them with the whole set of data using a constant comparison method that included reading and rereading within and across the responses of the participants (Lalik & Potts, 2001). Finally, a few participants and several other colleagues read the analysis to validate the themes that emerged.

5. Findings

Strauss and Corbin (1998) describe the analysis phase as ‘the interplay between researchers and data’, acknowledging that there is an extent of subjective selection and interpretation of the generated data. It is important to note that no claim is made to be an objective observer in this study. This is in line with the Vygotskian combination, of individual and social meaning making, which will provide a framework to better consider the effectiveness of the current study.

6.1. Phase 1: Analysis of the interview with the supervisor

Interviewing the supervisor helped set a clear context for the study, the results revealed details and clarified the practice of self-observation in the department involved in the study. It showed that 85% of the teachers conducted self-observation as shown in figure 1.

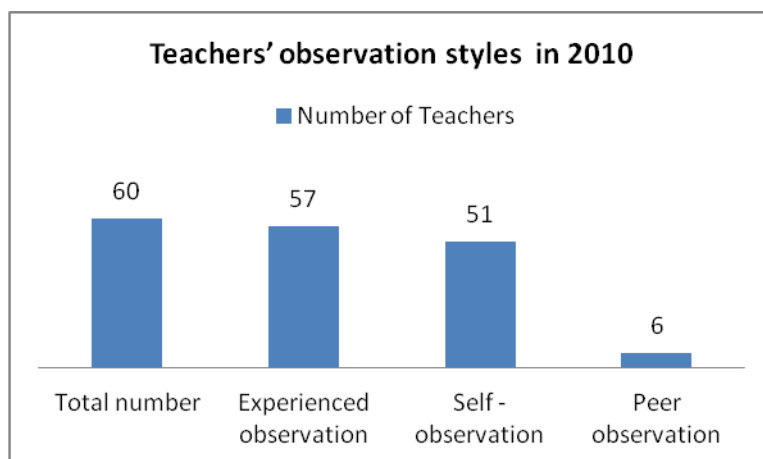


Figure 1 Teachers' observation styles in 2010

The data analysis also revealed that 94% of the teachers who conducted self-observation wrote a lesson report, 0% of them used the audio-recording approach, and 6% used video-recording as shown in the chart:

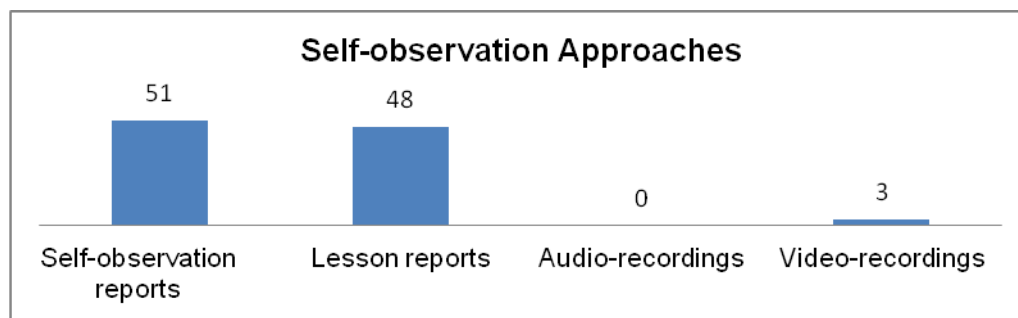


Figure 2 Self-observation Approaches

6.2. Phase 2: Analysis of the teachers' survey: Background of the research population

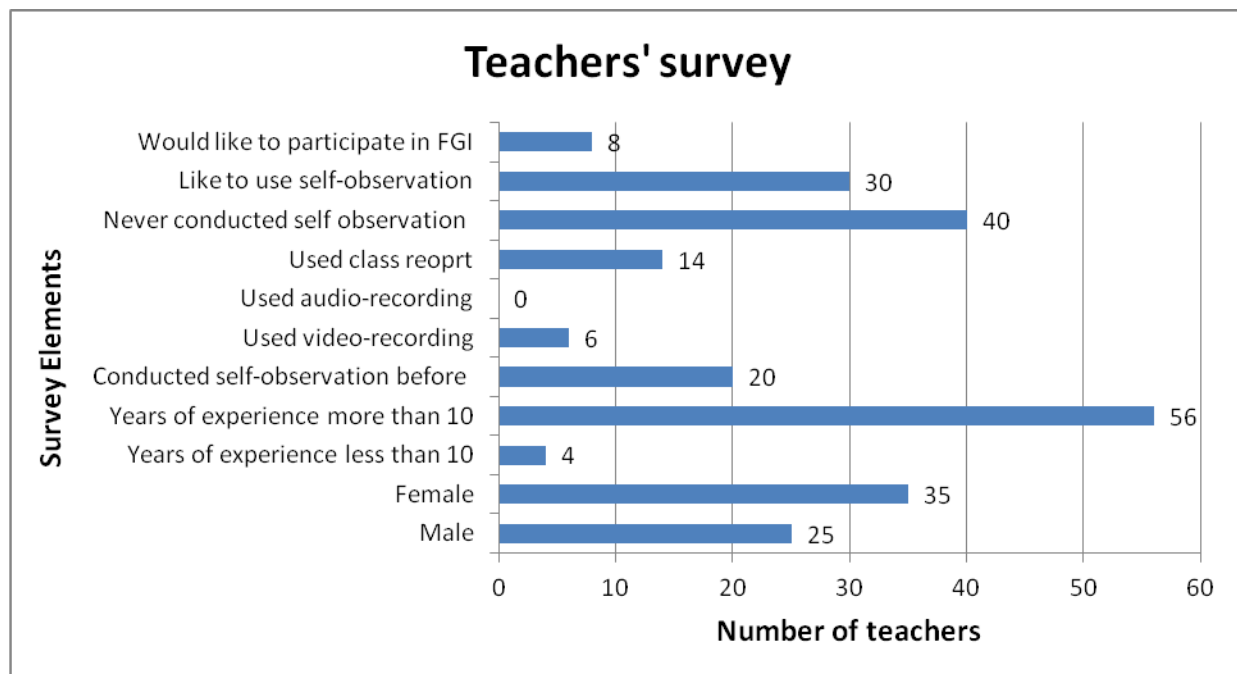


Figure 3 Teachers' survey same

The analysis of the survey provided an ample view about the population of the current study; it revealed that 66% never conducted self-observation in their classes, and that 0% used the audio- recording approach in observation, which is consistent with the previous results. 10% considered video-recording their lessons. The survey showed that 8 participants were willing to participate in the FGI; these participants have also left their contact information for follow-up. It was interesting to find out that 42% of the participants were male and 58% were female, which means that both genders are well represented in the study. Additionally the data revealed that the majority of the teachers - 93% -have more than ten years of experience.

6.3. Phase 3: Analysis of Focus-Group Interview

The participants expressed a number of varied personal views and attitudes toward self-observation as a learning practice. The analysis revealed two major categories; *benefits* and *drawbacks* of self-observation, and then sub-categories, which were called recurrent themes. The findings are presented in the participants' own voices and organized into nine themes; five themes under *Benefits of self-observation*: source of information, opportunity for reflection, awareness and objectiveness, opportunity for professional development, and alternative for unwanted peer or supervisor presence. And four themes under the second category; *Drawbacks of self-observation*: Personality and attitudes, time constraints, technology problems, and structured framework.

6.3.1. Benefits of self-observation

1) Source of information

The interview revealed that seven participants have experienced different approaches of self-observation. Indeed two out of eight – Lilly and Sam - *video-recorded* their classes and reflected on the videos. And five teachers – John, Mike, Phil, Sally and Peter – wrote *lesson reports*. Sandy never conducted self-observation. But none of the informants practiced *audio-recording*. Although the participants referred to different approaches of self-observation in the interview, they all agreed that self-observation is a generous source of information. Because they believe that it equips teachers with an ample view on their teaching practices and habits in the classroom as they stated. Lilly for instance said:

“I never thought I could use the word “ok” a hundred times in class, until I counted them in a videotaped lesson. This is a new piece of information for my records.”

Sam could not agree more, he added:

“I have been teaching this class for seven months so far, and I thought I knew all my students very well until I discovered some attitudes in the videotape that I never noticed in class. Ali, for example, was constantly chatting with his blackberry under the table while looking at me and pretending to participate.”

2) Opportunity for Reflection

Once teachers have access to this ample information about their practices in the classroom, they start reflecting on their actions. According to the participants, reflection leads to change. One of the participants, Lilly, who used videotaping for self-observation, said:

“I would never give a well-planned class activity a second thought if I didn't face a problem in class. But when I videotaped my class last year, I discovered that group work does not always work. And a group of six is very big; there are always passive or lazy students who rely on their partners to do the work.”

Lilly, therefore, reflected on her observation and decided to change her strategies to enhance learning and ensure all students' involvement. Sam agreed on this point, he thought it was very important and shared a personal experience:

“When I saw myself on that video, I constantly corrected students’ errors while they speak, I barely let them speak, oh my GOD!”

Sally thinks that some practices become daily routines and habits though they should be changed, she added:

“There is worse, sometimes you believe that the strategies you are using are common sense, and can’t be wrong. It becomes a taken for granted routine, this is hard to change.”

John added:

“I wrote a class report because it was time to reflect for the appraisal process; otherwise I never feel the need to write one.”

Phil disagreed with this point, and argued:

“Reflection is very important; I think teachers should reflect on their classes on a daily basis to see what went right and what went wrong.”

Jo added:

“We often reflect on daily practices, so reflection does not always need pre-planning, it becomes a habit, but sometimes it is a more complex task. Reflecting on the seating plan in the classroom for example is different from reflecting on students’ learning difficulties.”

3) Awareness and objectiveness

The participants therefore talked about awareness of different aspects in teaching practices that can either be enhanced or need review and change. They agreed that sound reflection leads to objectiveness and the ability to judge practices fairly, detaching themselves from emotions and self-rightness. Mike, for example, said in this respect:

“I always thought I am right, and I still do... (giggling)...However, I can’t forget that I did not like Peter’s way of presenting a new concept in is class, which I always use myself in my lessons . How come I saw that wrong, and I never questioned my own teaching before? Observation, either peer or self, is a good tool for self-correctness.”

Sally agreed on this point and added

“Self-observation is like a mirror, it reflects what is there, and it shows you what you don’t see while teaching. Sometimes, you are not aware of your mistakes until you step back and watch yourself performing.”

But Sandy seemed to disagree with these views, and has a different perception:

“I don't think there is a big deal of objectiveness with self-observation, you are on your own taking notes and reflecting on your image as teacher to send it to your supervisor for the PEP, come on guys....let's be objective here....to what extent are you going to say ...err ...I was wrong!”

4) Opportunity for professional growth

All the participants therefore agreed that self-observation is an opportunity for professional development; they think that self-monitoring and objective reflection lead to professional growth. Mike thought that all teachers should practice self-observation:

“Observing yourself is stress free, therefore you can always criticize yourself if needed at least you don’t feel embarrassed, on the contrary this contributes to your learning and professional growth.”

Sam added on this topic:

“Every teacher is responsible for his own professional growth and I think starting by self-monitoring is a big step toward becoming professional.”

5) **Alternative for unwanted peer/ supervisor presence in class**

The analysis revealed that a few participants favor self-observation just because it is an alternative to inviting a peer or the supervisor to class, many teachers do not like being observed. Lilly said:

“I would happily conduct self-observation if it spares me the visit of the supervisor.”

Peter added:

“Self-observation is not an easy task, but it is better than peer observation, I hate being observed.”

Sam agreed saying:

“Oh yes, I am different when someone is watching me, I feel like it is not me performing.”

6.3.2. **Drawbacks of self-observation**

1) **Personality and attitudes**

The participants discussed the element of stress; they agreed that if observations become a source of stress for the teacher they can be counter-productive. Self-observation requires mental and affective readiness. Sandy for instance said:

“I hate being observed even if the observer is me. This creates a funny feeling.”

John agreed and added:

“Oh, yes I hate videotaping myself; I never liked my videos or my pictures. It is hideous and inappropriate.”

Peter then summed it all, he said:

“Does anybody like his/her voice in a recorder, or a video? I always wonder: is that me? The first thing you think of: how do I look? Oh awful picture, weird voice...”

2) **Time constraints**

The participants also talked about time constraints saying that while they all agreed self-observation is a good practice it is time consuming and needs a lot of energy and effort

Lilly said:

"I don't have time for that, the workload; preparations, curriculum, and tests don't leave space for these practices."

Sandy agreed with Lilly:

"I don't think we can afford such a luxury in class, recording, reflecting....we are in a constant race with the curriculum and we are always late. I think the management should understand our concerns and give us time to care about professional development and good practices."

3) Technology problems

The majority of participants mentioned the difficulty of implementation when talking about video-recording a lesson, they agreed that resorting to a technician or a peer to record the class is not favorable. Phil said:

"The camera-man is an intruder in class, so you are still observed. And this removes the element of natural setting for a lesson."

Sam and two other participants thought that it is difficult for teachers to video-record a lesson while teaching.

Sam said:

"Even if we place a camera on a stand, it will not capture all the class. It is a pain."

4) Structured framework

Again all the participants agreed that self-observation tasks need to be structured, and that there should be a framework for the activity. John and Lilly both agreed that teachers are asked to conduct self-observation, but they are not shown how to do it. Sandy said:

"I never conducted self-observation, and I was never shown how to do it, there is no set framework to follow. I prefer to have a peer one for the yearly appraisal, a colleague does the work, and he/she writes the report. All I have to do is respond to his/her reflections. It is much easier."

Phil had similar concerns, he said:

There should be more guidance in the college, self-observation looks an easy task but it needs mentoring, and we need to have a format to fill or guidelines to follow. I think this task should be standardized in order to be popular.

7. Discussion

The participants revealed that self-observation equips teachers with a great deal of information about their classes as well as the learners, and that is consistent with Yip, (2006) as he said that self-observation is a powerful source of information in teaching practice. Teachers should, perhaps, step back sometimes and observe themselves performing in class to identify weaknesses and implement change if needed.

Moreover, and as explicitly stated by the participants self-observing and reflecting on their own classes is a way to professional maturity and that is consistent with Richards as he says "Self-monitoring is a key ingredient in a teacher's continuing growth and development as a professional" (Richards, 1990, p.119) Additionally, the participants confirmed that self-monitoring emphasize teachers' awareness as it provides opportunities for objective evaluation and enhances self-critiquing. To this end, Richards argues that "Self-monitoring can help narrow the gap between teacher's imagined view of their own teaching and reality – a gap that is often considerable". (Richards, 1990, p.119) He also says that teachers reflect critically on their teaching and move from a level where their actions are guided largely by impulse, intuition, or routine to a level where their actions are guided by reflection and critical thinking.

The participants mentioned on several occasions' professionalism and competency, these factors are more felt than seen. For instance a teacher, who volunteers to observe and write a report of peer-observation, should be competent and self-confident. Therefore, self-observation prepares teachers for this stage. This is in line with Smith, (1991) as he states that teachers who engage in self-observation become competent peer observers. Therefore, self-observation does not only affect professional aspects, it also touches teachers' image and personality. In this respect Yip (2006) argues that self-observation is an opportunity for teachers to monitor their personality, identity and competence.

A further important aspect that was highlighted by the participants is that teachers who engage in self-observation become responsible for their own development; again this point is consistent with Richards' view when he says "Self-monitoring shifts responsibility for initiating improvement in teaching practices from an outsider, such as supervisors, to teachers themselves. It enables teachers to arrive at their own judgments as to what works and what does not work in their classrooms." (Richards, 1990, p.119)

Richards and Lockart (1996) also share this view and think that teachers are in the best position to examine their own teaching. However, teachers do so not only because they insist on being responsible for their learning, but also because, as they mentioned in the FGI, they do not prefer the presence of a supervisor or a peer for this mission. Moreover, the participants agreed with Richards and Farrell's view (2005) in that they all think self-observation provides teachers with a safe, reflective environment where they can monitor themselves in privacy; they become responsible for their own teaching and make their own judgment about it. This a strong argument for teachers to favor self- observation to any other mode of observation. In fact, if observations become a source of stress for teachers, it will make them counter-productive.

However, in addition to mental and affective readiness, the self-observation process needs enough time and encouragement from managers and stakeholders, this is not contradictory with Yip (2006) who thinks that there should be sufficient time and a reasonable workload to assist positive attitudes towards the capability of self-observation.

The participant also mentioned the difficulty in implementing video-recording as an approach to self-observation; teachers are challenged by this and need easier approaches to follow. This problem can be solved if the college devotes a special room for video-recording, the venue BEING equipped with few cameras and a good sound system that can capture the different aspects of a lesson on the one hand, and easy to use on the other one. So teachers walk in with a

blank video tape, insert the tape in the recorder and press record. At the end of the lesson, they press stop and take their tape. Therefore, it will be really personal and a stress-free process.

Additionally, the participants were right when they requested a structured framework for the self-observation process. For peer-observation, for example, there is a form available in the system that teachers use to reflect on each other's' lessons. The form is clear and well organized. It consists of three columns: the first column is for tasks or activities being observed, which is a descriptive part of the process, whereas the second and the third columns are reflective parts. One is for observers' comments and the other one is for the observed comments. This form is not suitable for self-observation; however teachers are encouraged to use it.

Moreover, most of the reflection cases that were mentioned in the FGI were at the technical level, and very few cases moved to the situational level, and barely any case moved to the dialectical level. The analysis of the results with reference to levels of reflection is beyond the scope of the current research, but it needs attention and further investigation.

Finally, it is advised that teachers should be advised on best approaches to practice self-observation, and should be provided with practical tools, rather than depending on availability and convenience.

8. Recommendations

Teachers agreed that the various approaches used to self-observation are all valuable tools and saw the intrinsic value of self-observation for professional growth. However, action research, which is a developmental activity, was not mentioned in the discussion.

The researcher thinks that an important approach to intensive self-observation would be action research, which is a means of reflecting thoroughly on one's personal performance. Self-observation is to help teachers become more aware of their strengths and weaknesses, and helps them become more self-directed. This could, therefore, be investigated through action research, which employs a long-term frame work and would ensure, in the researcher's point of view, consistency and sound decisions.

A reflective cycle that could be used for a long-term process for self-monitoring through action research is also suggested. This cycle is adapted from McTaggart and Kemmis (1983). The reflective cycle leads teachers to questions about their practices through different stages, starting from the planning phase, which is before the actual teaching, until after the lesson is delivered.

Additionally, Schon (1983) suggests two types of reflection: *in-action* and *on-action*. A third type could be employed, it is called: *pre-action* in order to enhance reflective practices. She thinks teachers should reflect at three stages: before the lesson *pre-action*, while teaching *in-action* and after class *on-action*. Teachers could also benefit from reflecting on the following questions:

1. What will I do? How will I plan to achieve my objectives? (*Planning*)
2. What really happened in class? (*Informing*)
3. How well did I do? (*Contesting*)
4. How could I do things differently? (*Appraisal*)

5. What and how shall I teach now? (*Acting*)

The greatest achievement of self-monitoring is to become more reflective practitioners; therefore reflection would become a deliberate daily activity and a consistent part of the learning process. Finally the researcher designed the following diagram to represent the suggested plan for on-going reflection.

9. Conclusion

The study was enlightening and of great value to the reform plan. It demonstrated that the teachers involved were aware that self-observation is a valuable tool for the learning process, and they definitely saw the intrinsic value of self-observation for professional growth. However, action research, which is a developmental activity, was not still not perceived as an essential tool in daily practices. This might be due to time constraints, motivation and teachers' workload, which should be revised for the benefits of the educational system.

About the Author:

Dr. Samira Boukadi Haj Sassi is a graduate of the University of Tunisia, Aston University in the UK, USQ in Australia and Exeter University where she obtained a doctorate degree in TESOL. She is currently working at the Higher Colleges of Technology, Abu Dhabi. Her research interests include language policy, classroom instruction, professional development, blended learning, mobile learning and Information Communication Technology.

References

- Biggs, J. (2003). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University*. Camberwell: ACER.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81-109.
- Boud, D. K. (1985). *Reflection: turning experience into learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Brinko, K. (1993). The practice of giving feedback to improve teaching: what is effective? , . *Journal of Higher Education*, 64 (5): 574-593.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2001). *Research Methods in Education*. New York: Routledge.
- Cresswell, J. W. (2002). *Educational Research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Columbus: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Danielson, L. (2008). Making Reflective Practice More Concrete Through Reflective Decision Making. *The Educational Forum*, 72 (2), 129 - 137.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How We Think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. Boston: D.C. Heath.
- Grimmett, P. P. (1990). *Reflective practice in teacher education*. In *Encouraging reflective practice in education: An analysis of issues and programs*, ed. R. T. Clift, W. R. Houston, and M. C. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Holliday. (2001). *Doing and Writing Qualitative Research (Second Edition)*. . London: Sage Publications, .
- Kemmis, S. a. (1988). *The Action Research Planner*. Melbourne: Deakin University.

- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. London: Sage Publications.
- Lalik, R. &. (2001). *Social reconstructionism as a framework for lite*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Lyons, N., & LaBoskey, V. (2002). *Narrative Inquiry in Practice: Advancing the Knowledge of Teaching*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- MA, K. R. (2000). *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research, 3rd ed.* Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage Publications.
- Pring, R. (2000). *Philosophy of Educational Research*. London: Continuum.
- Richards, J. C. (1990). *The teacher as self-observer*. In Jack C. Richards, *The Language Teaching Matrix*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J., & Farrell, T. (2005). *Professional Development for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J., & Farrell, T. S. (2005). *Professional Development for Language Teachers*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
- RK, Y. (1989). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods, 2nd ed.* London: Sage Publications.
- Schon. (1983). *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. New York: Basic Books. .
- Smith, D. (1991). *Educating the Reflective Practitioner in Curriculum*. *Curriculum* 12 (2), 115-124.
- Stanely, C. (1998). A framework for teacher reflectivity . *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 584-91.
- Strauss, C. &. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research, Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory, 2nd ed.* Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage Publications.
- Thomas L, M. J. (1995). Comparison of focus group and individual interview methodology in examining patient satisfaction with nursing. *Social Sciences in Health* 1, (1), 206–219.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1998). *Mind in Society: the development of higher psychological processes* (A. Kozulin, Trans. Rev. Ed). Cambridge: MA: Harvard University Press.
- Yip, K. (2006). Self-reflection in reflective practice: a note of caution. *British Journal of Social Work*, 36: 777-88.

The Effect of EFL Large classes on Yarmouk University Students' Achievement

Manar M. Asqalan

Language Center

Yarmouk University, Irbid-Jordan

Abstract:

The primary goal of this research is to determine the effect of large classes on students' achievement at Yarmouk University. The research addresses two questions: What is the effect of class size on Yarmouk University students' achievement in the English language (101)? Is there any statistically significant differences between the large and small group treatment on the achievement test? Large class is defined in this paper as a class of more than 45 students. The researcher used a grammar test as the study instrument. The questions were designed based on the grammar curriculum. The subjects of the study were Yarmouk University EFL students who were learning English as a university requirement. Two classes taught by the researcher, one composed of 45 students and the other of 103 students, took the test. The results revealed a relationship between performance and class size. The experimental group (the smaller class) performed better on the test than the control group (the large class). The results of this study highlight to educators the effect of large class on students' achievement. Also, this may help in developing a curriculum that caters for large classes. In addition, this may draw the attention of university administrators to limit student numbers in English classes. Finally, this study may encourage the government to increase the university budget which would increase the number of classes.

Keywords; achievement, EFL, Jordan, large class, university education

Introduction

The importance of the English language cannot be ignored, as it is the most widely spoken language in the world. It is used in international affairs, science, technology, and finance. Its acquisition can guarantee more opportunities of employment, traveling, higher education, and a better life (Crystal, 1997). Graddol (2001) states that the British Council estimated that English is spoken as a second language by about 375 million speakers and as a foreign language by about 750 million speakers.

Teaching English as a global language is growing in the Arab world. Arab countries have made the effort to facilitate the use of English among their citizens in this globalization era (Al-Khatib, 2000). The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, like all Arab countries, recognizes the importance of English language. Therefore, since the early days of its independence, the education system in Jordan has focused on teaching English as a foreign language from the earliest stages of education in both private and public education sectors.

At Yarmouk University, where the medium of instruction for most disciplines is English, all newly enrolled students are required to sit for a placement test to determine their level of proficiency in English. Based on their scores in the placement exam, the lower scoring students are required to do remedial English language skills (99) while the higher scoring students (50 or over out of 100) are required to do the more advanced English course (101). The objective of the two courses is to equip students with general knowledge and the basic skills of English language. Indeed, these basic English language courses provide a platform for these students' future careers within their chosen majors as they enter the global community.

In fact, students in Jordan face difficulties while learning English. They learn English through formal instructions and there is a little chance to learn it through interaction, which is only possible when students encounter tourists coming to visit the country (Rabab'ah, 2005). The fact that, in Jordan, as well as in most Arab countries using English only as an academic subject or a university requirement makes it difficult to be acquired if not practiced more often as practice is the most economical way of learning a language (Halliday et al 1984). Many researchers have investigated the reasons why Arab learners have difficulties while learning the language. Zughoul (1983), Mukattash (1983), and Suleiman (1983) summarize these problems as the lack of personal motivation, the inappropriateness of the English language curricula in academic institutions and the lack of the proper target language environment. In addition, there are other reasons that lead to difficulties in learning English by university students such as large classes. Class size is a crucial issue and concerns faculty members and students as well. That is why a lot of research on class size has been conducted all over the world for some time now.

But what is the definition of a large class?

The literature has not shown an agreement on an exact definition of a large class. Indeed, the definition varies between countries, institutes and even between lecturers. For example, the average of large classes in Lancaster University is around 50 and in China 50-100 is normally called large.

The definition of a large class varies also across disciplines and teaching contexts. It is often said that a large class is a class that a student or the lecturer perceives to be large. Qiang & Ning (2011), define a large class is the one that includes more students than the teacher can manage and prepare for.

However, Hayes (1997) suggests that 30 students or less is the ideal size of a language class. At such number, he added, students have a good opportunity to communicate with each other. In conclusion, Class size between 40-60 was considered large in most studies (Watson Todd, 2006).

For the purpose of this paper, a large class refers to a class with a number of students exceeding 45.

Statement of the problem

Class size and its effects have been researched repeatedly but most of these studies concerned elementary and secondary schools rather than university level teaching. Moreover, the literature review reveals that the number of research about class size in the developed countries far exceeds this number in the developing countries. Therefore, more studies are needed to investigate the issue of class size in developing countries such as Saudi Arabia, Oman, Egypt and Jordan (Bahanshal, 2013).

Recent statistics published in Al-Rai daily newspaper has revealed the number of students enrolled in public universities in Jordan. The number of students enrolled in the ten universities in the first semester of this year 2014. Six out of the ten public universities have 55000 more students than they can provide for. Yarmouk University, which is a public university, is no exception.

In the academic year 2014/2015, 45000 students enrolled in undergraduate program at Yarmouk University alone. This exceeds the university's current capacity by 15548 students. The increase in students' enrollment without a parallel and proportionate increase in manpower, resources, and space has resulted in an increase in the number of students in classes. Inevitably, this increase has an effect on teaching methods where the teachers do most of the talking, which may or may not have an effect on student achievement and performance. This is the question the researcher plans to answer within the scope of this paper.

The researcher, who is also an instructor at Yarmouk University Language Center, felt the urging need to conduct this research concerning the effect of large classes on achievement if such a relationship exists. The fact that class size is spiraling upwards makes the researcher believe that Yarmouk University is an ideal situation to conduct this research into large classes.

Questions of the Study

The aim of this study is to answer the following questions:

- 1-What is the effect of large classes on Yarmouk University students' achievement in the English language (101)?
- 2- Are there any statically significant differences between the large and small group treatments on the achievement test?

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the effect of EFL large classes on Yarmouk University students' achievement in the English language (101) in the second semester of the academic year 2015-2014.

Importance of the study

Previous research, as most literature reveals have supported the idea that class size significantly affects student achievement while other studies have revealed the effect was trivial or does not exist. These mixed results made it difficult to determine the effect of large class size. The purpose is to provide some useful data and recommendations to educators, researchers and administrators about the effect of large class on student achievement if the findings concluded that smaller is better.

The results of this study may help in developing adequate future curriculum, taking into consideration the effect of large classes on student achievement. They also may attract the attention of policy makers to increase the fund to the university. Furthermore, it may interest the university administrators to decide on the number of students in classes.

Besides, they may interest students who have to choose among universities with different students/teacher ratio.

Finally, the findings will add to the existing literature on university education in Jordan.

Limitation of the study

The generalization of the results of this study is limited to the students of English language (101) taught at Yarmouk University.

Review of related literature

Eight studies on the effect of class size on student achievement were studied by Toth & Montagna. They studied the research published on this topic between 1990 and 2000. Most of these studies consider course grades to gauge students' achievement. Of the eight studies, two report no relationship between class size and students' achievement (Hancock 1996; Kennedy & Seigfried 1997). Three of these studies report that large classes negatively affected students' achievement (Borden & Burton, 1999; Gibbs et al., 1996; Raimondo et al., 1990). Two report mixed results (Hofman, Postcrano & Preszo 1994; Kopeika, 1990). One study reports a positive impact of large class size on students' achievement, (Toth & Montagna, 2002).

Kickbusch (2000) states that reduction in class size to 20 students without changes in instructional methods doesn't lead to a better achievement and that class size has more influence on students' attitudes and motivation than on their achievement. Some research also reveals that what affect learning process is the teacher's quality and methodology, not class size, (Maged, 1997; nakabugo, 2003 and O'Sullivan, 2006).

Hoxby (2000) studies the effect of class size on achievement and shows that smaller classes have either insignificant or no effect on student achievement. Milesi and Gamoran (2006) similarly report in their study that there was no evidence of class size impact on student achievement.

Richard Light (2001), on the other hand, finds a consistent correlation between the number of students in a class and their overall grades (GPA) and concludes that most of the time smaller is better with stronger students engagement. Resnick (2003) favors small class size in his research. He suggests that teachers in small classes pay greater attention to each individual student and so students feel a greater pressure to get engaged in class, and thus affects students' achievement positively.

Moreover, Dillon, Kokkelenberg, and Christy (2002) find that students' average grade points decline as class size increases. The chance of getting a B-plus or over decreases from 0.9 in small class size to about 0.5 in a class size of 120, and nearly 0.4 for a class size of 400. The three researchers again conduct a study of 760,000 observations over four years. The results show that grades are negatively affected in large classes. The effect of class size on students grades was very noticeable in larger classes when controlling variables such as peer effects, student ability, student level, course level, gender, and minority status, (Kokkelenberg, Dillon, & Christy, 2008).

In addition, (Joe Cuseo, 2007) reports that academic achievement (learning) and academic performance (grades) are lowered in courses with large classes in addition to other negative aspects of large class size; for example, large class size reduces students active involvement and depth and breadth of thinking and reduces the quality and frequency of instructor interaction with students as well as feedback to students.

Also, Arias and Walker (2004) compare total exam scores for two large classes (90 students) and two small classes (25 students) and find out that students in small classes perform 3% higher on the exams.

Bandiera et . al, (2009) examine records from a leading UK university and find a negative non-linear effect of class size on students' scores. Class size has a high impact on students 'performance only at the very top and bottom of the class size distribution. They also conclude that students at the top of the grade distribution are affected the most.

Moreover, Bahanshal (2013) studies the effect of large classes on English teaching and learning. According to the teachers interviewed, the results of the study indicate that the outcome of the students is unsatisfactory due to the large number of students in one class. Her study also suggests some effective strategies to be applied while teaching large classes. Nguyen et. al, (2014) conduct observations of classrooms at HUTECH University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam to study the factors affecting English teaching and learning. The common theme was the crowded classes. The number of students enrolled in each class was higher than 50. According to them, classrooms in general, and in language classrooms in particular, small class size enhances the quality of education They state that crowded classes can be a demotivation factor as it may hinder the students' active participation. Of course as many studies have demonstrated that correlation between motivation and language achievement is highly positive, (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003).

Once again, Nguyen et. Al, (2015) study the factors affecting teaching and learning English as a foreign language at HUTECH University from the teachers' prospective. The majority of teachers complain that the number of student in English classes is 50-55 students

which is considered large. This large number of students reduce the quality of teaching and learning as it makes it difficult for teacher to manage the class and to conduct communicative activities. The teachers said that it was impossible to achieve maximum benefits and effectiveness.

After this brief account of the review of the literature on the effect of class size on students' achievement, it is clear that the results were inconclusive. However, this research is specific is conducted to examine the effect of large classes on Yarmouk University students' achievement in English (101).

Method and procedure

This section presents the methodology followed in this study. It includes the study design, the population and sample of the study, the instrument, the validity of the instrument, the statistical analysis used to analyze the results and the procedures of the study.

Procedure

To test students' achievement, the students enrolled in English (101) were given a multiple-choice question test on the grammar items covered during the second semester of 2014-2015. The test took approximately 20 minutes with all participants finishing within the allotted time. The possibility of grading bias is minimal since the multiple-choice method of testing is objective. The control group consisted of a class of 45 students. The experimental group consisted of 45 students randomly chosen from a class of 105 students. Both classes were taught by the researcher who controlled the variations in instruction, lecture material, topic coverage, and tests. Absences are generally low as students are required to attend at least 85% of a course and so absences are not related to class size. This research design is different from previous studies on class size reduction, where the teacher variable was not controlled (Blatchford, 2003; Galton and Pell, 2010).

The study methodology

The researcher used the quasi-experimental method by applying the tool to study two groups of students enrolling in English (101) at Yarmouk University.

Population of the study

The population of the study consisted of Yarmouk University students studying English (101) during the second semester of the academic year 2014-2015.

Sample of the Study

The sample of the study is composed of Yarmouk University students who study English as a university requirement in two different classes. Both classes were taught by the same instructor using the same strategy of instruction and covered the same material throughout the semester. The control group consisted of a small class of 45 students. The experimental group consisted of 45 students chosen randomly from a large class of 103 students. Table (1) shows that.

Table 1
The distribution of the study sample

Group	Number
Experimental	45
Control	45
Total	90

To ensure equal study groups before applying the study, the researcher applied a pre-test on the sample of the study. For the experimental and control group, Means, standard deviations, and (t-test) were calculated to measure their achievement. This is presented in table 2.

Table 2
Achievement of Yarmouk University students in English language pre-test .

Group	Number	mean	Std deviation	t	D f	sig
Control	45	12.09	2.39	1.783	42	0.082
Experimental	45	13.64	3.29			
Total	90					

Table 2 shows that there are no statistically significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) of the average achievement of students in the English language (101) at Yarmouk University pre-test. The mean of the experimental group students' achievement is (13.64) compared to (12.09) for the mean of the students' achievement in the control group.

Instrument of the test:

The researcher, who is also an exam coordinator at the Language center, chose a sample of questions from the question bank used for English (101) students' coordinated exam. The items of the test were carefully chosen so as to reflect Bloom's Taxonomy of learning domains. The final draft of the test consisted of (20) multiple-choice questions taken from the material covered during the semester, (8) items covered recalling, (7) items covered comprehension, and (5) covered application.

Validity of the test

To ensure the test validity, a jury of five instructors at the Language Center and the English department were kindly asked to judge whether the items were appropriate. They added some items and deleted others and suggested some modifications on some items. The researcher modified the items in the test in response to the jury's suggestions.

Reliability of the test

The reliability of the test was measured by administering it on a pilot sample of (20) Yarmouk University students who were chosen from outside the sample of the study. The researcher marked the test and gave one point for each correct answer and zero point for each incorrect answer. The following was conducted:

1. Difficulty coefficient and discrimination coefficient were calculated for each item in the test. The difficulty coefficient ranged between (0.33-0.78) while the discrimination coefficient ranged between (0.33-0.68).

2. Reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alfa) was calculated. It was found (.86) which was good for the purpose of the study.

The study variables:

The independent variable is the size of the class, one class having a large number of students and another having a small number of students.

The dependent variable: achievement in the English language (101) measured by final test grades.

Procedures of the study:

- Getting the approval of Yarmouk University to conduct the test.
- Reviewing related literature to enrich the theoretical part of the study and to build the test.
- Preparing the test and establishing its reliability and validity.
- Administering the test during the final class period of the academic semester in January.
- Collecting and grading the test and analyzing the results in light of the study.
- Drawing conclusions according to the results of the study.

Statistical treatments:

The research questions of this study were tackled according to the following statistical treatments:

1. Means and standard deviations.
2. Cronbach's alpha coefficient.
3. Test (T- test).

Findings Of the Study

The purpose of this study is to find the effect of class size on students' achievement in the English language (101) at Yarmouk University, by answering the following question:

- Is there a statistically significant effect ($\alpha = 0.05$) of the class size on the achievement of Yarmouk University students in the English language (101)?

To answer this question means and standard deviations were calculated, and (t-test) was conducted for the experimental and controlled groups to measure the achievement of Yarmouk University students in the English language (101). The results are presented in table 3.

Table 3

Means, standard deviations, and (t-test) for the experimental and controlled groups of Yarmouk University students on the achievement post-test.

Group	Number	mean	std deviation	t	D f	sig
control	45	13.32	2.15	4.233	42	*0.000
experimental	45	18.82	5.70			

Total	90

* Statistically significant at the level of statistical significance ($\alpha = 0.05$)

Table 3 shows that there is a statistically significant difference at $\alpha=0.05$ between the experimental and control groups. The mean of the experimental group was (18.82), compared with the mean of the control group which was (13.32). This shows the impact of class size on the achievement: the smaller the class size, the higher the achievement. Figure (1) demonstrates that.

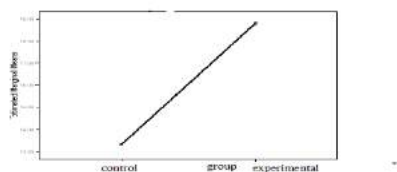


Figure1 The performance of the experimental and control groups on the post-test

Discussion of the Results

The findings show that the high correlation between small class size and students test achievement clearly suggest that smaller classes contribute to students' achievement in EFL. The findings suggest that large classes affect students' achievement negatively.

Conclusion

This study adds to the literature by providing results of a quantitative research on class size and achievement. There is no doubt that small class size brings lasting benefits, especially for EFL students. Reducing class size to lower than 45 leads to better achievement. The attention the instructor gives to each individual student and consequently the students' interest, engagement and attention that occur in small classes could account for the result of this study. In addition, the instructor may utilize more effective teaching methods to encourage student interaction, in small classes. In large classes, the method of teaching is mainly lecture-centered. This method usually neglects effective instructor-student interaction. In small classes, the instructor could have the ability to detect when a student is in need of help and to provide them with the necessary feedback.

Recommendations

In light of the findings of this study, the researcher recommends the following:

- The university should seek more financial support from the government so as to stop relying on tuition fees alone.
- The university should reconsider the number of students in introductory courses and appoint more lectures.
- Instructors should adopt group methods of teaching instead of teacher-centered lectures to address the problem of large classes.

- Further studies should be carried out to find some suggested solutions to deal with the problem of large classes, especially with regard to effective teaching methods and assessment instruments that contribute to effective instruction and student learning.
- These results suggest avenues for further research to examine the relationship between class size and students achievement in other universities.

About the Author:

Manar M. Asqalan is an instructor at Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan where she has been teaching courses in English as a second language to undergraduate students for fifteen years. She has a master's degree in translation. She is interested in research on major issues concerning English as a second language.

References

- Al-Abbadi, H. (2015, March 30th). Public Universities in Numbers. *Al-Rai*, pp.6
- Al-Khatib, M.A. (2000). The Arab World: Language and Cultural Issues. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 13. No.2:121-125.
- Arias, J., & Walker, D. (2004). Additional evidence on the relationship between class size and student performance. *Journal of Economic Education*, 4(3), 311-329
- Brown, B.J. (1994). Making Connections with Individual Learners in Large Introductory Geology Courses. *Journal of Geology*, 93(3), 132-135.
- Bahanshal, D. A. (2013). The effect of large classes on English teaching and learning in Saudi secondary schools. *English Language Teaching*, 6(11), 49-59.
- Bandiera, Oriana; Larcinese, Valentino; Rasul, & Imran (2009). "Heterogeneous Class Size Effects: New Evidence from a Panel of University Students." C.E.P.R. Discussion Papers, #7512, 2009.
- Blatchford, P. (2003). The class size debate: Is small better? Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.
- Blatchford, P. & Mortimore, P. (1994) The Issue of class Size for Young Children in schools: What Can We Learn from Research? *Oxford Review of Education*, 20(4), 411-428.
- Borden, V., & Burton, K. (1999, June). *The impact of class size on student performance in introductory courses*. Paper presented at the 39th Annual Conference of the Association for Institutional Research, Seattle, WA
- Costello, P. (1992). The Effectiveness of Class Size on Reading Achievement (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED400035).
- D. Crystal, (1997) English as a Global Language. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Dillon, M., Kokkelenberg, E. & Christy, S. (2002). The effects of class size on student achievement in higher education: Applying an earnings function. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED482389.
- Galton, M., & Pell, T. (2010) Study on Small Class Teaching in Primary Schools in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: Education Bureau and Cambridge University.
- Reproduction Service No. ED482389. RGraddol, D. (2001) the Future of English? London: British Council <http://www.britishcouncil.de/pdf/2000.pdf>
- Gibbs, G., Lucas, L., & Simonite, V. (1996). Class size and student performance: 1984-94. *Studies in Higher Education*, 21(3), 261-273.
- Goettler-Sopko, S. (1990). The effect of class size on reading achievement. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED325826

- Halliday, M., A. McIntosh & P. Stevens. (1972/1984) (8th impression) 'Learning foreign languages. In R. Nasr (ed.), *teaching and learning English*. Harlow: Longman.
- Hancock, T. (1996). Effects of class size on college student achievement. *College Student Journal*, 30(2), 479-481.
- Hayes, D. 1997. Helping teachers to cope with large classes. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 51(2), Oxford University Press.
- Hoxby, C.M. (2000). The Effect of Class Size on Student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115, 1239-1285.
- Jarvis, T. J. (2000). Class size and teacher effects on student achievement and dropout rates in university-level calculus. Preprint. Retrieved from <http://www.math.byu.edu/~jarvis/classsize/class-size.html>
- Joe Cuseo. (2007). "The Empirical case Against Large Class Size: Adverse Effects on the Teaching, Learning, and Retention of First-Year Students. In *Journal of faculty Development*. January 2007.
- Kichbusch, K., "Class Size", (Verified 12 Jan 2001), <http://www.weac.org/sage/research/clasize>
- Kennedy, P., & Siegfried, J. (1997). Class size and achievement in introductory economics: Evidence from the TUCE III data. *Economics of Education Review*, 16(4), 385-394.
- Kokkelenberg, Dillon, & Christy (2008). The Effects of Class Size on Student Grades at a Public University. *Economics of Education Review*, 27(2), 221-233.
- Light, R. J. (2001). *Making the most of college: Students speak their minds*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Maged, S. (1997). *The pedagogy of large classes: Challenging the "large class equals gutter education" myth*. M. Phil dissertation. University of Cape Town, South Africa
- Masgoret, A.M., & R.C. Gardner. 2003. Attitude, Motivation, and Second Language Learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, 53, (1) 167-210.
- McKeachie W.J. (1980) "Class Size, Large Classes and Multiple Sections" *Academe* (2): pp24-28
- McKeachie W.J., Asghar Iran-Nejad, & David C. Berliner. (1990) "The Multi-source nature of learning: An Introduction", *Review of education research*. 60(4) pp509-516.
- Milesi, C., & Gamoran, A. (2006). Effects of class size and instruction on kindergarten achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 28, 287-313.
- Mixon, F.G., & Hsing, Y. (1994). college Student Migration and Human Capital Theory: A Research Note. *Educational economics*, 2(1), 65-73.
- Mukattash, L. (1983) "The problem of difficulty in foreign language learning", in: Dahiyat, E./Ibrahim, M. (eds.) *Papers from the First Conference on the Problems of Teaching English Language and Literature at Arab Universities*, Amman, University of Jordan.
- Mutch, C.A. 2005. *Doing Educational Research: A practitioner's guide to getting started*. Wellington: Nzcer Press.
- Nakabugo, M. G. (2003). Closing the gap? Continuous assessment in primary education in Uganda. Thesis presented for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, graduate School of Humanities, University of Cape town.
- Nguyen, H. T., Warren, W., & Fehring, H. (2014) Factors Affecting English Language Teaching and Learning in Higher Education. *English language Teaching*, 7 (8), 94-105.
- Nguyen, H.T., Fehring, H. & Warren, W. (2015). EFL Teaching and Learning at a Vietnamese

- University: what Do teachers Say? *English Language Teaching*, 8 (2), 31-43
- O'Sullivan, M. C. (2006). Teaching large classes: the international evidence and a discussion of some good practices in Uganda primary schools. *International journal of Educational Development*, 26, 24-37.
- Qiang, W. & Ning, Z. (2011). Teaching Large Classes in China-English as a Foreign Language. Beijing Normal University, China
- Rabab'ah, G. (2005). Communication problems facing Arab learners of English, *journal of faculty of education*. 22 (1-17).
- Resnick, L. (Ed.) (2003). Class size: Counting kids can count. *American Educational Research Association*, 1(2), 1-4.
- Rice, J. K. (1999). "The Impact of Class Size on Instructional Strategies and the Use of Time in High School Mathematics and Science Courses", *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21(2), 215-229.
- Smith, D. H., & Malec, M. A. (1995). Learning Students' Names in sociology Classes: Interactive Tactics, Who uses Them and When. *Teaching Sociology*, 23(3), 280-286
- Suleiman, S (1983), "Teaching English to Arab students at the university level", In Dihayat and Ibrahim (eds.), Papers from the First Conference on the Problems of Teaching English Language and Literature at Arab Universities, University of Jordan, Amman-Jordan.
- Watson Todd, R. (2006). Why investigate large classes?. *Reflections*. 9(2), 1-12.
- Toth, L., & Montagna, L. (2002). Class size and achievement in higher education: A summary of current research. *College Student Journal*, 36(2), 253-261.
- Zughoul, M (1983), "The unbalanced program of the English department in the Arab world", In Dihayat and Ibrahim (eds.), Papers from the First Conference on the Problems of Teaching English Language and Literature at Arab Universities, University of Jordan, Amman-Jordan.

Testing Collocational Knowledge of Yemeni EFL University Students at Universiti Utara Malaysia

Nabil Mohammed S. Banboua

College of Arts and Sciences, School of Education and Modern Languages
UUM/Malaysia

Abstract

It is commonly acknowledged that collocations play an important role in the field of ESL/EFL acquisition. Previous seminal studies have reported students' development of collocational knowledge and use of collocations regardless the difficulties students may encounter in learning collocations, specifically, Arab students. The present study focuses on students' collocational knowledge, particularly, Yemeni EFL university students who were attending an Intensive English Course (IEC) at UUM/Malaysia. The data was collected from only five Yemeni students (two postgraduate and three undergraduate). Those were the only Yemeni students who were attending the IEC. All of the participants were male students. The participants' collocational knowledge was tested by a Multiple-choice Collocational Test (MCT). The results of the statistical analysis revealed that participants' collocational knowledge was less than the expected. Moreover, the results concluded that students' lack of knowledge of collocations was due to the fact that collocations were not of a focus in teaching English as a foreign language in schools. The study also ended up with recommendations for future research.

Keywords: collocational knowledge, collocations, EFL students, English as a foreign language

Introduction

Collocations play a significant role in the learning process of a second or a foreign language (Mohammed, 2015; Khodadady & Shamsaee, 2012; Wood, 2007). Therefore, they are increasingly becoming a more essential element in learning and in using language as there are convergent evidences that collocations may sustain students' lexicon (Jackendoff, 1995; Melčuk, 1995). The importance of learning word combinations such as collocations are obviously highlighted by studies that emphasized they are easily taught and retrieved by learners (Wray, 2002). Moreover, the relationship between components of the collocational knowledge and the use of collocations is regarded as an important topic among linguists to improve students' language abilities (Granger & Meunier, 2008; Fellbaum, 2007; Carter, 2004; Wray, 2002; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992).

Research Objectives

To examine how well the Yemeni EFL university students' collocational knowledge, *who are attending an Intensive English Course at UUM*, increases their ability to collocate words.

Research Question

How well does the Yemeni EFL university students' collocational knowledge, *who are attending an Intensive English Course at UUM*, increase their ability to collocate words?

Significance of the Study

In Yemen, studies on the teaching and learning of vocabulary are very fewer (Al-Sohbani, 2013; Bataineh et al., 2008; Ali, 2007), collocations in particular. To the best knowledge of the researcher, there are no previous studies that have been conducted investigating university Yemeni EFL students' collocational knowledge and their ability to collocate words appropriately, specifically, students who are attending their higher studies abroad in an EFL setting such as in Malaysia.

Literature Review

In general, linguists have not agreed on a common description of what a collocation entails (Bartsch, 2004). McIntosh et al, (2009) define collocations as being "the way words combine in a language to produce natural sounding speech and writing" (p. v). Fontenelle (1998) asserts that "there does not seem to be any clear-cut, non-controversial definition of the term collocation" (p. 191). In order to provide a clearer clarification of the concept, there is a need for a common distinction, particularly taking into consideration Sinclair's (1991) distinction between the *open-choice principle* and the *idiom principle*. Sinclair (1991) proposes these two principles that a speaker alternates when producing language. These two principles are incorporating the usage of complex items into language production. The *open-choice principle* corresponds to the traditional way of looking at language production, that single lexical items are combined using a restricted set of syntactic rules, whereas the *idiom principle* accounts for the usage of more complex items. According to Sinclair (1991), the *open-choice principle* (*a terminological tendency*) refers to "a way of seeing language text as the result of a very large number of complex choices. At each point where a unit is completed (a word or phrase or clause), a large range of choice opens up and the only restraint is grammaticalness" (p. 109). The *idiom principle* (*the phraseological tendency*), on the other hand, refers to "the principle of idiom is that a language user has available to him/her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases

that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analysable into segments” (Sinclair, 1991, p. 110).

Collocations Facilitate Language Use

Hymes’s (1972) argumentation on communicative competence involves knowing not only what it is possible to be said, but also what is most likely to be said. Pawley and Syder (1983) call this latter facet as competence native-like selection. Moreover, they note that native speakers “do not exercise the creative potential of syntactic rules to anything like their full extent - if they did do so they would not be accepted as exhibiting native-like control of the language” (Pawley & Syder, 1983, p. 193). Choosing the most natural option from a wide range of grammatically possible sentences in a given situation will require more than knowledge of syntax. Lewis (2008) argues that a part of the extra knowledge that required is to store of what he calls *lexical phrases* “in general, the more de-lexicalised a word is, and the wider its collocational range, the more important it is to meet, acquire and record it in a collocation or expression” (Lewis, 2008, p. 48) where he refers to strings of language which are completely or partially pre-specified, recognized as standard expressions. However, Kjellmer (1990), who looks broadly at the concept of high frequency collocation, believes that lexical phrases have a much more central role in oral production. He argues that phrases are naturally existed in native language emphasizing that a large part of native speakers’ vocabulary is systematized in terms of string words (*e.g. collocations*). Moreover, he claims that in producing discourses, speakers “very largely make use of chunks of prefabricated matter” (Kjellmer, 1990, p. 123). Kjellmer (1990) stresses the need for “a new approach to the teaching and learning of foreign languages” (p. 125) in which the emphasis shifts from individual words to word combination.

Collocations Promote Proficiency

Researchers have suggested that native use of collocations may be partly motivated by what Sinclair (1987) calls “a natural tendency to economy of effort” (p. 320). Calling on memorized collocations is to be less cognitively to demanding constructing new utterances from scratch, and so it is believed that words taught in combination will assist speakers to familiarize with the demands of a real-time language production and comprehension while maintaining proficiency (Kuiper, 2004; Sung, 2003). Others such as Ellis (2001), Newell (1990) and Anderson (1983), suggest that *chunking* may be a key to automatic skill performance. Gobet and Lane (2012) argue that the capacity of short-term memory is not tied to the amount of information in a message, but to the number of *chunks* of information. By recoding more simple items into more complex phrases, we can increase the amount of information our memory handles. Handl (2008) argues that collocations play a key role in the acquisition process, while Ellis (2001) suggests that the same principle might lie behind other types of word combinations as well. Therefore, two or more words that frequently co-occur are recoded as a collocation (O’Dell & McCarthy, 2010) and henceforth treated as a single entity. Lewis (2000) defines collocations as “two or more words that tend to occur together” (p. 73). Therefore, it is important to note that Lewis’s (2000) definition is also coinciding with O’Dell and McCarthy’s (2008) position that collocations are “a combination of two or more words which frequently occur together” (p. 4) and that of Biber’s et al, (2002) concept that collocations are “sequence of three or four words” (p. 444). This process is recursive, with collocations themselves subsequently available for combination into still larger units, enabling language users to encode progressively greater amounts of information which increase the efficiency of communication (Ellis, 2001).

Acquisition of Collocations among Arab Students

Arab students of English are acknowledged to have difficulties with the acquisition of English lexical collocations (Al-Zahrani, 1998). For example, Hussein (1990) attributes the poor collocational knowledge or competence to different factors such as: students' unfamiliarity with English collocational structure and negative transfer from L1 into English. Other studies such as Farghal and Obiedat, (1995), Al-Zahrani (1998) and Shehata (2008) have shown that the common sources of collocational errors among Arab students are related to the overgeneralization and shortage of collocational knowledge among Arab students. Given that most Arabic-speaking students have fewer opportunities to encounter the English language in their daily input, including Yemeni students. Therefore, studies emphasized that Arab students alternatively resort to their L1 whenever they lack the English collocational knowledge (El-Banna et al., 2014; Al-Zahrani, 1998; Hussein, 1990). Indeed, Arab students typically find it difficult when learning collocations (Farghal & Obiedat, 1995) given that they are more familiarized to learn words individually in classrooms rather than in phrases (Shehata, 2008). In a study aimed at finding the relationship between students' collocational knowledge and language proficiency, Al-Zahrani (1998) examines the relationship between Saudi students' knowledge of lexical collocations and their general language proficiency. The results showed that there was a positive "relationship between students' language proficiency and their knowledge of lexical collocations" (Al-Zahrani, 1998, p. 129). In other words, highly proficient English students had high collocational knowledge and low proficient students had low knowledge of collocations. In addition, Al-Zahrani (1998) found that there were significant difficulties in students' knowledge of lexical collocations when he compared their academic levels. Among such difficulties were those culturally loaded collocations which do not have Arabic equivalents. Al-Zahrani (1998) asserts that this "difficulty was due to semantic factors" (p. 135). In a related work, Hussein (1990) conducts an experimental study to measure the collocational knowledge of Jordanian EFL Arabic-speaking students to collocate words correctly in English. The results showed that students' collocational knowledge was low and that their performance was not satisfactory in light of the "low rate of collocations answered correctly" (Hussein, 1990, p. 129). Hussein (1990) finds out that overgeneralization was one of the communication strategies that students adopted in their attempt to reduce the syntactic and lexical aspects of the language to another easier system that is simple and more regular. Moreover, Hussein (1990) also indicates that some of the correct answers were due to the students' preference to transfer collocations from Arabic L1 to L2 when they were not sure of the correct L2 collocational forms because of their lack of awareness of the collocational restrictions. Therefore, the lack of collocational competence negatively impacted students' performance to gain proficiency.

In their study, Farghal and Obiedat (1995) test students' knowledge of 22 common English collocations. The results revealed that the subjects' knowledge of collocations was deficient than it was earlier expected. Furthermore, since the subjects lack the collocational knowledge, they resorted to lexical simplification strategies like synonymy, paraphrasing, avoidance and transfer to avoid the missing words. Farghal and Obiedat (1995) conclude that lexical collocations must be given a higher priority in language instructions due to their crucial importance in communication and to raise students' awareness of the existence of the nature of the collocations. In studying the extent to which Arab students of English can use English collocations properly, Zughouli and Abdul-Fattah (2003) investigate three dimensions of

collocational knowledge: the use of collocations as an indicator of language proficiency, the strategies Arab students of English use to produce proper collocations and, how equivalent Arabic and English words combine differently. The results revealed that even advanced level students use distinct communicative strategies when translating the collocation *khasara* into English. Twelve distinct communicative strategies were identified such as avoidance, paraphrasing, literal translation, assumed synonymity, overgeneralizations, substitutions and imitation of literary style (Zughoul & Hussein, 2001). Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) conclude that even advanced L1 Arabic students of English “still have difficulty with English collocational sequences” (p. 14). Nonetheless, they suggest more studies focusing on the phenomenon of collocations at both school and university levels need to be conducted. Al-Amro (2006) measures the lexical and grammatical collocations and the productive and receptive collocational knowledge of Saudi advanced English male students. The results showed that students lack the collocational knowledge and that such a lack can be clearly manifested in their poor performance on the collocational test. The data also revealed a relationship between students’ receptive and productive knowledge of collocations. However, students performed better on the productive test than on the receptive test, a finding that was paradoxical regarding the evidence that receptive knowledge was typically much broader than productive knowledge. Al-Amro (2006) attributes it to the fact that the target collocations in the receptive test were of lower frequency than the productive test. Moreover, Al-Amro (2006) reports that there was no significant correlation between the students’ overall collocational knowledge and their actual collocational usage. In other words, the collocational knowledge from the collocational test did not correlate with the use of collocations in the essay writing task. Al-Amro (2006) concludes that EFL Arab students’ lack of collocational use was the direct result of neglecting of Lewis’s (1993) *The Lexical Approach* in teaching English as a foreign language.

Shehata (2008) examines the influence of L1 on the productive and receptive collocational knowledge among two groups of Arab students in ESL and EFL learning settings. The findings of the study showed a significant difference between female and male students on the productive and the receptive collocational knowledge. Shehata (2008) finds out that female students outstripped the male students in the productive test (female $M=20.71$ /male $M=9.31$) and the receptive test (female $M=38.80$ /male $M=36.24$). Additionally, the results showed that L1 interference strongly affected students’ collocational knowledge. Another interesting finding was that all students performed better on the *verb-noun collocation test* rather than on the *adjective-noun collocation test*. Shehata (2008) claims that this might be an indication that *verb-noun* collocations were easier to acquire by Arab students than *adjective-noun* collocations. Overall, the study showed that Arabic-speaking students proved to have a poor knowledge of collocations. This can be attributed to the influence of the learning environment (El-Banna et al., 2014). However, Shehata (2008) emphasizes that the use of authentic materials in teaching collocations should be included in the teaching process which in return will provide students with opportunities to experience a natural language that assists them in developing their proficiency skill. Moreover, Shehata (2008) encourages teachers to pay more attention to the teaching of collocations, specifically, the collocations that do not have a translation equivalent in L1. Shehata (2008) concludes that the English textbooks should include a bilingual glossary of collocations to help students be more familiar with the similarities and differences between L1 and L2. Al-Sulayyi (2015) investigates the production of English grammatical collocations among two groups of Saudi students in ESL and EFL learning contexts. The results revealed that

students' grammatical collocation errors in an ESL environment were less than the students who learned English in an EFL context. Additionally, the results showed that the highest number of errors in both groups was recorded on the grammatical collocation patterns such as *noun-preposition* and *adjective-preposition*. Al-Sulayyi (2015) attributes the students' erroneous responses to the L1 interference role, especially those which contain a preposition. For instance, the majority of *noun-preposition*, *adjective-preposition* and *preposition-noun* were used incorrectly throughout the essays that students performed. Moreover, students inclined to avoid using some grammatical collocation categories such as *adjective-that+clause* and *noun-that+clause* since they were beyond their English proficiency level. Al-Sulayyi (2015) includes that students lack of knowledge of grammatical collocations was another possible reason behind various limitations in curriculum and teaching of collocations in classrooms where he recommends teachers to focus on teaching the different types of collocations, especially in Saudi Arabia where the curriculum did not pay a great deal of attention to grammatical collocations.

To investigate the problematic aspects that collocations play in translation in relation to cultural and sociolinguistics issues related to collocation order in English and Arabic, providing equivalent and religious collocations in the target language, Beni-Younes (2015) conducts a study to find out the problems Arab students face in translating English-Arabic collocations. The data was collected through a questionnaire that consisted of two parts. In the first part of the questionnaire, students were asked to identify the types of the dictionaries that students refer to whenever they want to find the translation of a collocation into Arabic. In the second part of the questionnaire, students were asked to provide the translation of the equivalent collocations into L1. The results showed that students mainly depended on using bilingual dictionaries when they pick out the meanings of collocations. Beni-Younes (2015) claims that "dictionaries cannot give the appropriate cultural translation in all language contexts" (p. 57) which may cause culturally inconvenient translation if students depend on bilingual dictionaries as the only source for translation. He asserts that monolingual dictionaries should be recommended to Arab students in order to better understand the cultural and sociolinguistic background of collocations. As for translation of the equivalent collocation into L1, the results showed that it was difficult for students to find the correct equivalent collocations. Moreover, the results revealed a good number of students who even did not answer the questions, claiming that they did not have any ideas about how to translate such collocations into L1. Beni-Younes (2015) concludes that this is an indication that students were not familiar with English collocations and that students at university level should have at least two courses of teaching English collocations in order to familiarize with collocations and enable them to overcome such translational problems.

Summary

Studies reviewed show the poor collocational knowledge state among EFL Arab students of the English collocations. While there were few studies on collocations with Arab students conducted in an ESL settings, most of these studies were conducted in an EFL settings. However, in light of the previous reviewed studies the following assumptions can be established. First, collocations present a challenge for students in EFL and ESL settings. Second, like other EFL students, Arab students of English proved to have poor collocational knowledge, which studies attributed to factors, such as unfamiliarity with collocational structures (Shehata, 2008), overgeneralization (Zughoul & Abdul-Fattah, 2003) and negative transfer (Hussein, 1990), which they attributed to the lack of teaching collocations in classrooms and curriculum

limitations. Therefore, in such cases, students were assumed to rely on their L1 collocational knowledge to find an equivalent when using collocations in L2. According to Wray (2002) “collocations can only be learned if they are encountered” (p. 183).

Method

The purpose of this study was to test Yemeni EFL university students' collocational knowledge on collocating words correctly. Therefore, the current study is mainly qualitative in nature, thus, data is descriptively analyzed to calculate frequencies and percentages and seeking narrative information in order to better understand students' collocational knowledge of the given collocations and to identify the specific collocations that were asked to collocate in the collocational test.

Participants

The participants involved in the study were five male Yemeni EFL university students who were attending an IEC at UUM/Malaysia. The IEC lasts for one full semester as a requirement before students start their academic programs and it offers only to students who fail to pass the English Language Placement Test (ELPT) that is conducted by UUM compulsorily among all international students who do not meet the English language requirement set by the university. However, since the participants failed in the ELPT, they were the only Yemeni students who were attending the IEC in the first semester, 2014/2015, at the time when this study was conducted. Moreover, the participants studied English in Yemen as a foreign language for six years in the governmental schools before they come to Malaysia. Additionally, a few number of the participants had some kind of English courses in different private institutions in Malaysia before they having the ELPT test and attending the IEC. Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Table 1. Demographic Information of the Participants

No	Learning English at other Institutes in Malaysia	Current Qualification	Program to take at UUM
1	-	Bachelor	Master
2	-	Bachelor	Master
3	1 Year High School	Bachelor	
4	4 Months	High School	Bachelor
5	1 Year High School	Bachelor	

Instrumentation

The data for the research question of this study was elicited through a *collocational test*. This test was intended to examine Yemeni EFL university students' collocational knowledge and their ability to collocate words correctly, particularly, Yemeni male students who were attending an IEC at UUM. For this purpose, a collocational test in a form of *multiple-choice* was conducted (see Appendix A). The test consisted of 20 questions selected out of 60 questions from a collocational test adopted from Al-Sibai (2009). The reason for choosing only 20 questions out of

60 was because of the test was long and for time consuming. Therefore, the selected questions targeted different types of collocational categories. Each question had four optional items from which students were instructed to select the appropriate item as the correct answer. All of the items were synonymous words that should be familiar to students as the goal of the test was not to test students' ability in vocabulary, but rather to test their collocational knowledge. In other words, the test aimed at examining students' knowledge and ability to collocate words appropriately according to the context.

Results of the Collocational Test

The results revealed that students' level of performance was not satisfactory as they were studying an IEC and some other courses at different institutions before starting to pursue their academic studies at UUM. However, only 47 items (49%) were answered correctly which was considered far below the half percentage that was anticipated. However, the response to the questions showed a very interesting result. For instance, in item 13, the frequency of correct responses was 5 (100%) for the collocation '*going to movies*', but in item 1, there were no correct answers, to collocate a correct collocation, provided. The reason for such a misinterpretation was due to the fact that students were commonly familiar with the former because it was widely used while the latter was barely used in their context. Therefore, answers such as '*going to take*' were substituted incorrectly.

It would be helpful to list collocations which were collocated appropriately as correct answers, frequencies and percentages and attempting to explain why some collocations were easier to answer correctly more than others. Table 2 shows that the frequency of the correct collocations was 47 out of an ideal score 95. Meanwhile the percentage was obviously showed only 49% of the total number of the collocations that were answered correctly. However, the results showed that students relatively answered the collocations. The high frequency of the correct responses of this category did not come as a surprise, since terms in this category were frequently used and encountered in everyday situations. The results showed that several of the correct collocations answered by students gained a high frequency and percentage as well. For instance, item 13 '*go to movies*' was answered correctly and gained the highest percentage (100%) and the highest frequency of the correct responses was 5 correct responses. While the remaining items had shown varied frequencies and percentages such as '*furious with*', '*let's change*' and '*keep an eye*' which were frequently answered more correctly and gained a percentage of (80%). Moreover, other collocations gained medium frequency with low correct responses and a percentage rated (60%) such as in '*say that to his face*', '*fire alarm*', '*a health spa*', '*put on your seat belt*' and '*bedroom window*'. Others gained lower frequency that gained 2 correct answers only and gained a percentage of (40%) such as '*the tennis court*', '*felt utterly*', '*pulling my leg*', '*walking stick*' and '*frying pan*'. However, collocations '*pick on*', '*how long were you on*', '*surprised at*', '*famous for*' and '*can barely*' gained the lowest percentage of (20%). Predictably, the several items of the correct collocations were gained a high-frequency and percentage as well, while the other items had shown a medium-frequency. This kind of positive transfer may was due to students' reliance on their LI as such collocations can be found and read commonly and had equivalents in students' LI such as '*go to*' (100%), '*keep an eye*' (80%), '*furious with*' (80%), '*let's change*' (80%) and '*put on your seat belt*' (60%).

Table 2. Correct Collocations According to their Frequency and Percentage

Item No.	Correct Collocations	Frequency	%
2	<i>furious with</i>	4	80%
3	<i>the tennis court</i>	2	40%
4	<i>felt utterly</i>	2	40%
5	<i>Let's change</i>	4	80%
6	<i>keep an eye</i>	4	80%
7	<i>can barely</i>	1	20%
8	<i>say that to his face</i>	3	60%
9	<i>pulling my leg</i>	2	40%
10	<i>famous for</i>	1	20%
11	<i>surprised at</i>	1	20%
12	<i>put on your seat belt</i>	3	60%
13	<i>go to movies</i>	5	100%
14	<i>how long were you on</i>	1	20%
15	<i>fire alarm</i>	3	60%
16	<i>walking stick</i>	2	40%
17	<i>pick on</i>	1	20%
18	<i>frying pan</i>	2	40%
19	<i>a health spa</i>	3	60%
20	<i>bedroom window</i>	3	60%
		47/95	49%

However, Table 3 shows that the frequency of the incorrect collocations was 53 out of an ideal score 95. Meanwhile the percentage was declined to 55% of the total number of the collocations that were answered incorrectly. This high percentage of incorrect answers was due to the negative transfer as a result of the influence of the translation process that employed by students. For example, in item 1 a high percentage 100% of incorrect answering was provided and incorrect collocations such as '*going to take*' which was used in analogy with an expression that found in Arabic. Besides, in the following items, the percentage of incorrect answers ranged between 80% as in items 7, 10, 11, 14 and 17 and (60%) as in items 3, 4, 9, 16 and 18. Meanwhile a medium percentage (40%) of the incorrect answers was noticed in items 8, 15, 19, 12 and 20. However, the lowest percentage (20%) of the incorrect answers was noticed in items 2, 5 and 6.

In Arabic language the terms, '*going to run*', '*the tennis court*', '*frying ban*', '*say that to his face*' and '*keep an eye*' are not used; however, their equivalents in Arabic were '*going to take*', '*the tennis land*', '*keep a look*', '*say that to his eyes*' and '*frying bowl*'. Familiarity in structure was another concept that negatively influenced the students' collocational knowledge development. Moreover, as can be seen in several items, the incorrect collocations were not attributed to negative transfer from LI, but rather to the lack of knowledge of the English language structure, specifically, the negative use of the prepositions. In this group, the category

verb+preposition and *verb+adverb* gained a high percentage of incorrect responses ranged between 80% for the items 10 and 11 '*famous of*' and '*surprised for*' and 40% for the items 4 and 17 '*felt quickly/ felt keenly*' and '*put by/ pick away*'. Other incorrect collocations can be attributed to students' strategy of overgeneralization. The percentage of incorrect responses due to overgeneralizations ranged between (60%) such as in item 9 '*pulling my foot/pulling my thigh*' and item 16 '*walking bar/walking hook*', and (40%) such as in item 15 '*fire tool*' in which students substituted a generic term with which they were familiar for a specific term with which students were unfamiliar.

Table 3. *Incorrect Collocations According to their Frequency and Percentage*

Item No.	Incorrect Collocations	Frequency	Frequency
1	<i>going to take</i>	5	100%
2	<i>furious for</i>	1	20%
3	<i>the tennis land</i>	3	60%
	<i>the tennis place</i>		
4	<i>felt quickly</i>	3	60%
	<i>felt keenly</i>		
5	<i>Let's turn</i>	1	20%
6	<i>keep a look</i>	1	20%
7	<i>can blindly</i>	4	80%
	<i>can really</i>		
8	<i>say that to his eyes</i>	2	40%
9	<i>pulling my foot</i>	3	60%
	<i>pulling my thigh</i>		
10	<i>famous of</i>	4	80%
11	<i>surprised for</i>	4	80%
12	<i>put on your mental</i>	2	40%
	<i>put on your fasten</i>		
14	<i>how long were you for</i>	4	80%
	<i>how long were you till</i>		
	<i>how long were you over</i>		
15	<i>fire tool</i>	2	40%
16	<i>walking bar</i>	3	60%
	<i>walking hook</i>		
17	<i>pick off</i>	4	80%
	<i>pick by</i>		
	<i>pick away</i>		
18	<i>frying bowl</i>	3	60%
	<i>frying dish</i>		
19	<i>a health place</i>	2	40%
	<i>a health area</i>		
20	<i>bedroom ceiling</i>	2	40%
	<i>bedroom gate</i>		
		53/95	55%

Summary

The overall students' performance in this test was not satisfactory in light of the low percentage of collocations that answered correctly (49%). Besides, the percentage of the incorrect collocations that achieved by the students (55%) was also another sign of their insufficient awareness of the collocational knowledge. Students' low achievement may be attributed to several factors such as teachers' inappropriate way of teaching of vocabulary. In other words, vocabulary learning in classrooms was not centering in teaching vocabulary in word combination but rather individually. Another reason related to the students' collocational knowledge weakness and collocating words inappropriately, though the participants involved in this part were high school and bachelor students who were intending to pursue their higher education, may be students' lacking experience language skills such as speaking and reading which will contribute in providing them with enough knowledge of vocabulary and how to combine words correctly.

Discussion and Conclusion

This section discusses the summary of findings of the research question of the study: *How well does Yemeni EFL university students' collocational knowledge, who are attending an Intensive English Course at UUM, increase their ability to collocate words?*. The collocational test was meant to examine students' collocational knowledge of Yemeni EFL university students who were attending an IEC at UUM.

As for the findings of the collocational test, although studies in the field of ESL and EFL acquisition among Arab learners highlighted the fact that collocations play an essential role in the construction of language (Zughoul & Abdul-Fattah, 2003; Al-Zahrani, 1998; Hussein, 1990). However, the results of the collocational test indicated that students lack the knowledge of collocating words appropriately. The results were consistent to several studies measuring Arab learners' collocational knowledge and their overall language usage. These studies found that students' knowledge of collocations were limited (Farghal & Obiedat 1995; AL-Amro 2006; Shehata 2008). In addition to the lack of knowledge of collocations, all of these studies indicated that Arab learners are encountering difficulties in collocations due to the neglect of instructions in classrooms. Other studies, such as Howarth (1996) and Brown (1974) confirmed that some language teachers were unaware of the concept of collocations. Thus they could not direct their learners' attention to collocations when they are introduced in teaching materials.

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on data analysis and discussion in this study, several recommendations may be made for further research. Firstly, in order to solidify the findings of the study, a replication of the study should be extended not only to the university students, it would be also interesting to have students from the other educational levels such as high school level with longer period of time in order to report more accurate and comprehensive results of the instructional process. In addition, more variables such as writing or reading proficiency need to be examined in relation to collocations acquisition. By involving more students from different levels and more variables, a better understanding of knowledge of collocations among Yemeni students would be reached. Secondly, it is hoped that the insights provided in this study may inspire more researches into students' collocational knowledge performance, which is of crucial importance to ESL/EFL

students' overall language oral performance and which is shown to be a problematic issue for the Arab learners of English.

Conclusion

The current study found that students' collocational knowledge was less than expected. However, the conclusion that can be drawn, therefore, is that students' lack knowledge of collocations might be due to the fact that collocations have differently collocated inconsistently with Arabic language structure. This conclusion became even more significant when taking in consideration that collocations are not taught explicitly at the Yemeni schools and even at UUM where the participants were attending a 6-month IEC.

Mr Nabil Mohammed S. Banboua is a PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics at UUM/Malaysia. The author also obtained a master degree in Applied Linguistics In 2009 from UUM and BA in English from University of Aden /Yemen. His research interest includes vocabulary studies, specifically, formulaic sequences and collocations.

References

- Adelian, M., Nemati, A., & Reza, M. F. (2015). the effect of iranian advanced EFL learners' knowledge of collocation on their writing ability. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5 (5), 974-980.
- Al-Amro, M. (2006). *Saudi learners' knowledge and its relationship to their vocabulary size and writing quality*. MA Thesis: Colorado State University, Colorado.
- Al-Sibai, D. (2009). *Testing Saudi English collocational competence and its development*. King Saud. Retrieved from <http://www.readbag.com/faculty-ksu-sa-dinaalsibai-research-papers-04-collocation-review>.
- Al-Sohbani, Y. A. (2013). An exploration of English language teaching pedagogy in secondary Yemeni education: A case study. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, 1 (3), 41-57.
- Al-Sulayyi, M. N. (2015). The use of grammatical collocations by advanced Saudi EFL learners in the UK and KSA. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 5 (1), 32-43.
- Al-Zahrani, M. S. (1998). *Knowledge of English lexical collocations among male Saudi college students majoring in English at a Saudi university*. Doctoral Dissertation: Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania.
- Ali, S. E. (2007). Problems and prospects of English language teaching in Yemen. *South Asian Language review*, 17 (2), 39-48.
- Anderson, J. R. (1983). *The architecture of cognition*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bartsch, S. (2004). *Structural and functional properties of collocations in English*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.
- Bataineh, R. F., Thabet, S. S., & Bataineh, R. F. (2008). Obstacles of using communicative techniques in Yemeni EFL classes. *Lagos Papers in English Studies*, 3, 14-27.
- Beni-Younes, M. A. (2015). Cultural and sociolinguistic issues in English-Arabic translation of collocations. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 10 (6), 53-58.

- Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Leech, G. (2002). *Longman student grammar of spoken and written English*. Essex: Pearson Education Longman.
- Carter, R. (2004). *Language and creativity: The art of common talk*. London: New York: Routledge.
- El-Banna, H., Gaballa, M., & Al-Khayri, A. (2014). Testing collocational knowledge of Taif University English seniors. *Humanities And Social Science Journal*, 19 (11), 63-90.
- Ellis, N. C. (2001). Memory for language. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp.33-68). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Farghal, M., & Obiedat, H. (1995). Collocations: A neglected variable in EFL. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33 (4), 315-331.
- Farrokh, P. (2012). Raising awareness of collocation in ESL/EFL classrooms. *Journal of Studies in Education*, 2 (3), 55-74.
- Fellbaum, C. (2007). *Idioms and collocations: Corpus-based linguistic and lexicographic studies*. London: Continuum.
- Fontenelle, T. (1998). Discovering significant lexical functions in dictionary entries. In A. P. Cowie (Ed.), *Phraseology: Theory, analysis and applications* (pp.189-207). Oxford: Oxford University.
- Gitzaki, C. (1996). *The development of ESL collocational knowledge*. Doctoral Dissertation: The University of Queensland, Brisbane.
- Gobet, F., & Lane, P. C. R. (2012) Chunking mechanisms and learning. In N. M. Seel (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of the sciences of learning*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Granger, S., & Meunier, F. (2008b). Phraseology in language learning and teaching: Where to from here? In F. Meunier & S. Granger (Eds.), *Phraseology in foreign language learning and teaching* (pp.247-252). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Handl, S. (2008). Essential collocations for learners of English: The role of collocational direction and weight. In F. Meunier & S. Granger (Eds.), *Phraseology in foreign language learning and teaching* (pp.43-65). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Hussein, R. F. (1990). Collocations: The missing link in vocabulary acquisition amongst EFL learners. *Papers and Studies in Contrastive Linguistics*, 26 (26), 123-136.
- Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Jackendoff, R. (1995). The boundaries of the lexicon. In M. Everaert., E. Van Der Linden., A. Schenk., & R. Schreuder (Eds.), *Idioms: Structural and psychological perspectives* (pp.133-166). Hillsdale NJ: Erlbaum.
- Khodadady, E., & Shamsaee, S. (2012) Formulaic sequences and their relationship with speaking and listening abilities. *English Language Teaching*, 5 (2), 39-49.
- Kjellmer, G. (1990). A mint of phrases. In K. Aijmer & B. Altenberg (Eds.), *English corpus linguistics: Studies in honour of Jan Svartvik* (pp. 111-127). London: Longman.
- Kuiper, K. (2004). Formulaic performance in conventionalized varieties of speech. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic sequences: Acquisition, processing and use* (pp.37-54). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach: The state of ELT and a way forward*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.

- Lewis, M. (2000). Language in the lexical approach. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp.133-134). London: Language Teaching Publications.
- Lewis, M. (2008). *Implementing the lexical approach: Putting theory into practice*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
- McIntosh, C., Poole, R., & Francis, B. (2009). *Oxford collocations dictionary for students of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Melčuk, I. (1995). Phrasemes in language and phraseology in linguistics. in M. Everaert., E. van der Linden., A. Schenk., & R. Schreuder (Eds.), *Idioms: Structural and psychological perspectives* (pp.167-232). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Nattinger, J. R., & DeCarrico, J. (1992) *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mohammed, H. G. (2015). Rendering collocations in Arabic/English simultaneous interpreting. *European Academic Research*, 2 (12), 15709- 15732.
- Newell, A. (1990). *Unified theories of cognition*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- O'Dell, F., & McCarthy, M. (2008). *English collocations in advanced use: How words work together for fluent and natural English self-study and classroom use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Dell, F., & McCarthy, M. (2010). *English idioms in use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Pawley, A., & Syder, F. H. (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Nativelike selection and nativelike fluency. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp.191-226). New York: Longman.
- Shehata, A. (2008). *L1 influence on the reception and production of collocations by advanced ESL/EFL Arabic learners of English*. MA Thesis: The College of Arts and Sciences of Ohio University, Ohio.
- Sinclair, J. M. (1987). Collocation: A progress report. In R. Steele & T. Threadgold (Eds.), *Language topics: Essays in honour of Michael Halliday* (pp. 319-331). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Sinclair, J. M. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sung, J. (2003). *English lexical collocations and their relation to spoken fluency of adult non-native speakers*. Doctoral Dissertation: Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania.
- Thornbury, S. (1998). The lexical approach: A journey without maps. *Modern English Teacher*, 7 (4), 7-13.
- Wang, Y. P (2008). *Effects of awareness-raising instruction of chunking on collocation acquisition and reading comprehension of senior high EFL students*. MA Thesis: National Kaohsiung Normal University, Taiwan.
- Wood, D. (2007b). Mastering the English formula: Fluency development of Japanese learners in a study abroad context. *JALT Journal*, 29 (2), 209-230.
- Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic language and the lexicon*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Zughoul, M. R., & Abdul-Fattah, H. S. (2003). Translational collocational strategies of Arab learners of English: A study in lexical semantics. *Babel*, 49 (1), 59-81.

Zughoul, M. R., & Hussein, A. S. (2001). Collocational competence of Arab speaking learners of English: A study in lexical semantics. http://eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?_nfpb=true&_&ERICExtSearch_SearchValue_0=ED479650&ERICExtSearch_SearchSearchType_0=no&accno=ED479650.

Appendix A The Collocational Test Instructions

In the following collocational test, one or more words are left out of each sentence. Under each sentence you will see four words or phrases. Choose the correct word or phrase to fill in the blank by shading the correct circle.

Example:

When she's cold, she really loves to drink _____ tea.

- ☒ Strong
- ☐ Heavy
- ☐ Tough
- ☐ Hard

1- We're going to _____ some tests on your mother to see if the accident affected her brain.

- ☐ take
- ☐ add
- ☐ make
- ☐ run

2- She's furious _____ her son's grades in school.

- ☐ for
- ☐ with
- ☐ without
- ☐ below

3- Oh look! The neighbours are having a garage sale right out there on the tennis _____.

- ☐ court
- ☐ area
- ☐ place
- ☐ land

4- Lama said that she felt so _____ alone and isolated because even her sister couldn't help.

- ☐ utterly
- ☐ readily
- ☐ quickly
- ☐ keenly

5- Let's _____ the subject. I don't want to talk about it anymore.

- ☐ transfer
- ☐ turn
- ☐ change
- ☐ fix

6- Go ahead and take a break. I'll keep _____ on the kids.

- ☐ an eye
- ☐ an arm
- ☐ a stare
- ☐ a look

7- There's so much fog outside. I can _____ see the car in front of me.

- ☐ blindly
- ☐ really
- ☐ barely
- ☐ politely

8- I dare you to say that to his _____.

- ☐ head
- ☐ face
- ☐ eyes
- ☐ eye

9- You must be pulling my _____. That can't be true.

- ☐ foot
- ☐ thigh
- ☐ toe
- ☐ leg

10- Picasso is famous _____ his paintings.

- ☐ For
- ☐ Of
- ☐ From
- ☐ Off

11- They were surprised _____ their good fortune.

☐ Toward

☐ For

☐ At

☐ Till

12- Please put on your _____ belts. We're about to take off.

☐ Seat

☐ Leather

☐ Fasten

☐ Metal

13- Why don't we go _____ the movies tonight?

☐ Into

☐ Upon

☐ Around

☐ To

14- How long were you _____ the phone for? Don't you get tired of talking so much?

☐ Over

☐ Till

☐ On

☐ For

15- When the fire ____ went off everybody left the building.

☐ Number

☐ Machine

☐ Tool

☐ Alarm

16- He's still quite active, although he walks with the aid of a walking _____.

☐ Stick

☐ Pole

☐ Bar

☐ Hook

17- Other kids always pick _____ her because she's so overweight.

☐ By

☐ Away

☐ On

☐ Off

18- Put a little oil into the frying _____ and quickly fry the vegetables.

☐ Pot

☐ Bowl

☐ Pan

☐ Dish

19- On the seashore there is a new hotel with two pools, a health ____ and playground.

☐ Place

☐ Area

☐ Spa

☐ Court

20- The boys were playing ball outside, then suddenly the ball came flying through my bedroom_____.

☐ Frame

☐ Window

☐ Gate

☐ Ceiling

Good Luck

Mobile-Mediated Communication a Tool for Language Exposure in EFL Informal Learning Settings

Sultan Saleh Ahmed Almekhlafy

Department of English, Preparatory Year Deanship
Najran University, Najran, Saudi Arabia

Ali Abbas Falah Alzubi

Department of English, Preparatory Year Deanship
Najran University, Najran, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

This paper investigates the role of WhatsApp, a widely used application in cell phones, in providing EFL learners with appropriate learning settings to use English language freely and effectively. To achieve the goal of the study, the researchers chose four native speakers of English and forty students from Preparatory Year, Najran University, Saudi Arabia to share a series of activities, ideas and information via a mobile application namely WhatsApp. Various methods associated with social science research were used at different stages of the study. These methods were triangulated to make the study more reliable and result-oriented. First, the postings and comments of the participants were analyzed and studied using Content Analysis. Then a questionnaire of 15 items was administered amongst the participants targeting their attitudes towards the use of MMC in English Language Education (ELE). Finally, a semi-structured interview was used with 10 participants and the native speakers. Based on the results, EFL learners enjoyed more exposure to the language via WhatsApp, where they could communicate with native speakers and interact appropriately. In addition, the questionnaire and the interviews showed positive attitudes towards using mobile in reinforcing language learning. The researchers provide recommendations and suggestions for future research .**Keywords:** language exposure, mobile-assisted language learning, mobile learning, whatsapp

1. Introduction

One of the problems that face learners in EFL contexts, such as the Arab World, is the lack of an appropriate exposure to use English language effectively. There is almost no or little exposure to the target language outside the classroom. Traditional classrooms are the only settings where learners receive and learn English. In addition, whatever is taught inside the classroom does not get reinforced outside the classroom. In such a context, most of learners have minimal need to speak English on a daily basis, so English is instructed as a foreign language (EFL) and learning happens without immediate opportunities to use English for actual communication functions (Lan, 2007; Liton, 2012; Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009). Moreover, teachers often continue to use outdated lecture/ memorization methodologies. This environment rarely includes meaningful interaction with native speakers of English or authentic materials that relate to the target language (Marek & Wu, V. 2007; Su, 2008; Yon, 2003) which may result in lower proficiency. It is, therefore, gainful to EFL learners if exposed to authentic experiences related to the target language especially conversation with native speakers (Fujii & Mackey, 2009; Gilmore, 2007). Thus, providing a good English language interaction, which is feasible with mobile-mediated communication (MMC), can help learners and educators to compensate the lack in their disadvantaged context. WhatsApp can be used to bridge the gap between the need of EFL learners for more language exposure to interact with native speakers for successful language learning and the geographical distance of EFL settings. In the Saudi context, there are very limited attempts to investigate the role of mobile social networks in having a virtual society for language exposure (Amry, 2014; Alsaleem, 2013; Alshehri, 2011; Mahdi & Elnaim, 2012). In accordance, this study adapted a conceptual framework of language exposure in an EFL context to examine the role of using mobile social networks, WhatsApp, outside classroom on students at Preparatory Year in Najran University, Saudi Arabia. The study tries to answer the following questions: *to what extent, can the MMC (WhatsApp) provide EFL learners with an exposure to English language? And what are the participants' attitudes towards the use of MMC in Learning English?*

2. Literature Review

2.1 Exposure to Language

Various rudiments affect the learning of language. One of them is exposure to the language itself. Learners with more exposure to the target language are expected to acquire greater familiarity with the target language (TL). Language exposure is, therefore, essential to language learning and the type and level of language proficiency that stems from the language learning process is almost entirely determined by language exposure (Kasper, 1997; Larsari, 2011; Lubega, 1979; Morford, 2003). Likewise, a major point of agreement among most theories of language acquisition is the need for exposure before language can be acquired, and insufficient access to TL certainly is an obstacle to foster EFL learners' language proficiency (MacLeod, & Larsson, 2011). These learners generally do not have passable access to the TL outside the classroom. They return to the real world speaking their mother tongue as soon as they leave classroom (Campbell, 2004). Thus, it becomes an urgent need to increase exposure and use of English language in such context.

There are many forms of exposure to English language. One of them is authentic interactions in English language (Ajileye, 1998; Lightbown and Spada, 2013; MacLeod, & Larsson, 2011). Lightbown and Spada, (2013) crystalize the concept of language exposure as an

informal setting in which language is delivered naturally, i.e., on the job or in the streets, through informal conversations and interactions with native speakers of the TL. In fact, to engage learners in authentic social interactions does not only expose learners to English language but also enables them to practice what they have learned in the classroom (Blake, 2000; Campbell, 2004; Leh, 1999; Spada, and Lightbown, 1999). The learners can also have more opportunities to take part in the authentic interaction and use language effectively.

2.2 *MMC as a Learning Setting*

In connection, mobile can mediate and create informal learning settings for language exposure. With the rapid advances of technology, the learning settings of English language learning are developing. They are no more confined to traditional learning settings (Chen, 2007). The propagation of technological devices such as mobile technology and social networking, particularly, have the potential to establish the change in the learning settings of English that go beyond the classroom. Many researches on mobile learning emphasize the effectiveness of mobile technology in creating contextually meaningful and authentic learning settings (Alshehri, 2011; Gasmi, 2014; Hung & Yuen, 2010; Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2007; Mar Gutierrez-Colon Plana, 2013; Ngaleka, & Uys, 2013; Susilo, 2014).

Previous research on the use of mobile social networks in providing EFL learners with informal learning settings for language exposure has received very little attention in the Saudi context. Amry, (2014) claims that WhatsApp provides better learning settings that are favoured on traditional classroom settings. Al-Shehri, (2011) gives students the opportunity to create and build their own learning material. Similarly, Mahdi & Elnaim, (2012) examine the informal use of Facebook on students' interactions. Alsaleem, (2013) implements WhatsApp to improve writing vocabulary word choice and voice of EFL learners.

MMC can help students to express themselves, communicate, and collect profiles that highlight their talents and experience (Ewur, 2014; Plana, Escofet, Figueras, Gimeno Appel, & Hopkins, 2013; Rambe & Bere, 2013). Recently, it is used in academic settings to promote student engagement and facilitate better student learning (Bouhnik & Deshen, 2014; Kabilan & Abidin, 2010; Mahdi & Elnaim, 2012; Susilo, 2014). This advantage can be exploited in EFL context where the need for a learning setting outside the traditional one is desirable.

2.3 *WhatsApp as an Effective Tool*

WhatsApp as a mobile communication social network, if exploited in learning appropriately, could benefit both learners and educators (Abulela & Walter, 2013; Barhoumi, 2015; Kajornboon, 2013; Wildner, 2005). Since this application is a social platform for communication and interaction, it has captured the interest of many researchers in English Language Education (ELE) because of its plethora features (Castrillo, Martín-Monje, & Bárcena, 2014). Bouhnik & Deshen, (2014) summarize some of these features to technical, educational and academic ones. The technical characteristics are simple operation, low costs, availability and immediacy. The educational ones are creation of a pleasant environment and in-depth acquaintance with fellow students, which have a positive influence upon the manner of conversation. The academic ones are the accessibility of learning materials, teacher availability, and the continuation of learning beyond class hours. These advantages underline the appropriateness of such app to be exploited in EFL context. The creation of a pleasant

environment and continuation of learning beyond class hours are most needed in EFL context such as the Arab World.

However, some researchers highlight the negative side of WhatsApp, they finally conclude that if WhatsApp used carefully results could create an appropriate context for learners to communicate effectively in the target language (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). Furthermore, this application enables learners to interact with a large number of people anytime anywhere (Al Jarf, 2004; Anderson, 2005; Kolb, 2008; Torii-Williams, 2004). It provides a potential channel for interaction among people who speak different languages, live in different countries, and reside in different cultures; however, educators must be willing to take advantage of WhatsApp to use such interaction as a learning tool (Chipunza, 2012; Rambe & Webb, 2013; Susilo, 2014; Wu & Marek, 2011).

To sum up, the above review of literature has been undertaken to show the importance of English language exposure to language learning, and how mobile devices and applications, particularly WhatsApp, are being used to support English language learning by providing an informal authentic and meaningful learning setting. Therefore, language exposure within mobile-mediated communication can be operationalized in this study as the ways students use mobile social networks, WhatsApp, to practice and use the language in a natural way through having conversations and interactions with native speakers outside classroom regardless time and place barriers in an on-going virtual society.

3. Methodology

Seeking a more comprehensive research, the study implemented empirically a triadic research tool: WhatsApp group observation, a questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview. While the observation was after the answers for question 1, 'To what extent, can MMC (WhatsApp) provide EFL learners with exposure to English language?', the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were busy digging deep for 'What are the participants' attitudes towards the use of MMC in learning English?' After that, the data were collected and analyzed for the teacher-researcher to decide on future actions (Harmer, 1991).

3.1 Participants

40 undergraduate students enrolled in Preparatory Year Deanship in Najran University participated in this research. The sample was homogeneous in terms of majors because all students are required to pass the preparatory year in which they are supposed to study English, math, computer, and communication skills, before they are specialized in medicine, engineering, computer sciences, and business management. There were 40 males with an average age of 19 years. All participants are male as Saudi Arabia does not support coeducation in its educational system. Moreover, 4 native speakers from Britain, America, and South African participated in the research. Based on the results of the diagnostic test conducted at the beginning of the first semester, their level of English can be categorized as intermediate. The students, who participated, were chosen based on their voluntary desire and familiarity with mobile communication networks such as WhatsApp in the study. They were oriented about the nature and purposes of the study, so they agreed to take the experiment as they expressed that it would be a great benefit to learn English language. All students are experienced in using mobile social

networks. They have access to the internet mostly anywhere anytime. Data were collected via three instruments: WhatsApp group observation, a questionnaire, and an interview.

3.2 *WhatsApp Group*

A group of 40 students and 4 native speakers was created on WhatsApp, titled '*PYP English Community*'. Some guidelines and instructions were delivered for the medium of communication, topics, flow of conversations, etc. WhatsApp messenger is a cross-platform instant messaging application for smartphones. In addition to text messaging, users can send each other images, video, and audio media messages (Castrillo, et al. 2014). WhatsApp continues to grow in popularity, with the revelation that its user base has crossed 900-million members. A big reason for the popularity of such an application is that it allows users to text, call, share pictures and videos to each other without paying any fees. Furthermore, Petersen, Divitini, & Chabert, (2008) highlight that mobile blogs could facilitate the communication and interaction among students in almost any language setting, and learners had the chance to communicate authentically with the native speakers of the language.

The chat sessions can be done in a one-on-one conversation as well as in a group conversation, in which users can talk to up to 100 members at the same time. To stay in touch via the WhatsApp application, people need each other's numbers and must have downloaded the application on their smart phones. Other advantages for choosing WhatsApp are that; members can communicate synchronously or asynchronously, and they all receive notifications for each activity done in the group. The postings by either the natives or students vary; no topic restrictions were there except those against religion and culture. The participants' postings and comments were observed and analyzed qualitatively in depth, tracing the amount of exposure of language aspects, thus resulting in the students' developments and improvements.

The participants and teacher interactions on a topic for one day are considered one segment for the data analysis. A coding system for a native speaker participation (WND-1), for example, and for a student participation (WSD-1), for example, are used; where WND stands for the abbreviated form of WhatsApp Native Day and WSD for WhatsApp Student Day.

3.3 *Questionnaire*

A five-point Likert scale questionnaire was administered to the participants by the end of the period limited for the WhatsApp group interaction. The questionnaire sought to read the participants' attitudes towards the use of mobile social networks for English language learning (ELL). The questionnaire included 15 items to deal with the students' attitudes towards using WhatsApp for language Learning; advantages, disadvantages, and capabilities of mobile in learning. Other items targeted the participants' confidence, motivation and anxiety.

3.4 *Semi- structured Interview*

An interview, which was prepared by the researchers and reviewed by two experts of English: Dr. Hawuas and Dr. Yaqoub, English language professors at Najran University, was conducted at the end of the semester with ten participants who were chosen randomly out of the 40 participants. The semi-structured interviews were meant to dig deeper in the participants' attitudes using WhatsApp for the language learning purposes. They were to probe what they liked and disliked when participated, aspects of language improvement, and issues of difficulties and enjoyment. Another semi-structured interview was conducted with the participating native

speakers of English to inspect the conductivity of mobile to learning, students' interaction in comparison with traditional classrooms, capability of mobile to improve language skills, and how much enough effective in learning it is.

3.5 Procedures for Data Analysis

The student-participants' answers to the questionnaire were quantitatively analyzed using SPSS. The frequencies, percentages and means of each item were the target of the analysis. The number of participants, postings and comments were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively based on Content Analysis Approach (CAA). Later, the results of the analysis were compared and thoroughly discussed. Ten student-participants were interviewed after the WhatsApp group was done that was analyzed qualitatively.

Content analysis is used to reveal the improvement of communicative skills in this empirical study through analyzing the product of the mobile WhatsApp by the participants quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitatively, the analysis started with words, topic frequencies, space, measurement, time counts and key word frequencies. In other words, the large amounts of data were reduced into smaller groups of information for a more general view. However, this analysis could be extended beyond figures and frequencies. Qualitatively, building up frequencies and percentages could lead to make inferences the study is set for just right from the beginning when the questions of the study were stated (Weber, 1990; Holsti, 1969).

4. Data Analysis

The participants-students' participations, questionnaire sections and semi-structured interviews were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively to answer the main questions of the study.

The data analysis in the table below provides a quantitative answer for the first research question 'To what extent, can MMC (WhatsApp) provide EFL learners with exposure to English language?'

Table 1. *Student-participants, postings, comments and words*

Group	Participants		Postings		Comments		Words	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
40	34	85	96	3	2460	26	20.000	8

Table 1 summarizes statistically the total participation of the WhatsApp group. 34 students out of 40 participated actively, which comprises a big fraction (85 %) that is positively reflected in the postings and comments of the participants. During the four months, 96 postings were added by the participants with a percentage of 3 % per student. The participants contributed 2460 comments with average of 26% for each posting in connection with participants. It can be generalized that the participation represented in the postings and comments as well as the number of the words, is successful to some degree and shows that students' interaction is plausible.

These results of exposure are very expected as all of the students had smart phones, free internet access on the campus, free charge WhatsApp application, and were free in time, place, topic, and technology engagement. In addition, students needed to keep in touch with teachers

and college affairs. Four native speakers participated in the group. Moreover, the participation is a non-grade course, so students were pushed to express themselves and communicate neglecting the idea of committing mistakes.

As for the qualitative answer, the whole participation of the students' postings and comments was scanned and analyzed thoroughly for the impact of informal use of MMC in producing a virtual language exposure platform in a larger outside classroom environment. In connection with the answer for question number one, the observation was in two perspectives. As for the first side, it can be noticed that participants interacted and shared materials from their surrounding context (*university affairs, football sports events, areas, weather, war, social affairs, plans for vacation, nature, areas, religion affairs, etc.*). They posted pictures and videos on mountains, green plains, heavy rains, fog, mist, and sand storms. Thanks to mass media, that establishes the ground for any topic. As a result, students could have more information about any news, which in turn gave them a chance to interact in the group actively and independently. The data analysis shows that participants were free to express and suggest what they want as evident in the following:

- WSD-1: *What about 5 words everyday or more than 5*
- WSD-1: *Absolutely difficult words*
- WSD-1: *It's an excellent idea*
- WSD-1: *Dr ..ali .. I think the best to learning English it's leasing a lot of audios and videos it's very helpful*
- WSD-1: *Listing **

It is also revealed that although students were instructed that English is the only medium of communication, some typed in Arabic, which was totally refused by all of the participants and expressed their need for English for many reasons as clearly shown:

- WSD-2: *because we need it in our live*
- WSD-2: *I'm sorry*
- WND-2: *The objective of the group is to practice more and more English.*
- WSD-2: *You want to speak Arabic you didn't get bored because always you speak Arabic try to change*
- WSD-1: *I know we can't leave our mother tongue but we have to go with all people in the world.*

In addition, it is found that embodied self- correction ways were present in the following example:

- WSD-60: *Just keap your down*
- WND-60: *Keep* what down?*
- WSD-60: *Head **

Moreover, it was also noticed that the discussion and comments increased before and during the mid- term exams and final exams. They were sharing and asking for answers for some points from the participating teachers. The following conversation is evident for that:

- WSD-45: *Are you talking about general English, tomorrow's exam?*
- WND-45: *What advice do have for the students, Dr. Sultan?*
- WSD-45: *The exam of GE divided into four parts*

- WSD-45: *Reading and writing parts are not a problem for students*

Participants went over a lot of grammar practice and explanations as shown in the following excerpts:

- WSD-45: *Grammar focuses on some rules*
- WSD-45: *Use of since and for is very clear ... since used only when pointing a time*
- WSD-45: *Same first exam*
- WSD-45: *For example since 1990*
- WSD-45: *But for is used when mentioning period of time*
- WSD-45: *For example for two years*
- WSD-45: *Both of them used with perfect tense*

All of the participants interacted and communicated in English though their mother language is Arabic.

Exposure to the language can be traced in the four skills of English; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. As for listening and speaking, the data analysis shows that *participants listened to audios and videos posted by their peers on various topics (Islam religion, politics, academic, songs, debates, language pronunciations, etc.). Some of them added voice notes in reply to some questions or discussion.* For example, students had a talk about how to differentiate between American English and British English supported by instances as the following:

- WSD-12: *I like british pronounce*
- WND-1: *'Wa'der' is an Americanism. □. Reduced pronunciation of 'wa.ter'. 'Street' language, in my view!*
- WND-1: *Use your dictionaries, folks! I mean, a decent dictionary with pronunciation.*
- WSD-1: *t pronounced d in American pronunciation*

It is revealed that the reading skill had enough shares of learning in almost all of its aspects; summarizing, vocabulary, context-based meaning, spelling, appropriate use of vocabulary, and making irony of words as evidently explained in the following examples: Students were posted a short story and asked to summarize the moral in a few lines, which is clear in the example:

- WSD-17: *When he was about eight or nine, his mom liked to cook food. He love burned toast. His father said, your momma put in a very long day at work today and she was very tired. Life is short to wake up with regrets. Love the people who treat you right and have compassion for the ones who don't.*
- *Enjoy life now.*

In addition, one student asked about the difference between 'house' and 'home', and how he can use them appropriately as showed in the following:

- WSD-21: *What is the different between a house and home ?*
- WND-21: *House refers to structure and concrete materials.*
- WND-21: *Home refers to emotions and memories*
- WND-21: *With examples.*
- WSD-21: *I feel at home in my office*

- WSD-21: *Home sweet home.*

Moreover, a participant posted the abbreviated form of 'KISS' and others guessed the meaning in the context:

- WND-31: *'KISS'. Keep it short and simple. Why complicate matters with a 'long winded' sentence?*

- WND-31: *This is their job to break down complicated sentences rather than to compose.*

Furthermore, a participant mentioned the word 'dear' critically in a sentence, a native speaker explained to him where this word can be best used:

- WND-16: *It is not usual to address someone as 'dear'. Unless you're his grandmother, mother or someone like that.*

The analysis shows that participants tried to modify and to twist the language, so it can fit their culture with a lot of fun while they were talking about the current bad weather:

- WSD-32: *Have a nice dusty day people*

- WSD-33: *The weather like eggs*

- WSD-33: *Eggs!!*

- WSD-33: *Mean bad*

Concerning about the writing skill, the data analysis shows that students were exposed to a very big and large content either by them or their groupmates, which was carefully considered. They tried their best to write a cohesive and coherent text. In other words, they were concerned about their good product in terms of *grammar, spelling, word order, punctuations, capitalization, subject-verb agreement, etc.* However, the content of the postings and comments of the students revealed a number of critical issues with regard to the final product of the language.

Firstly, the prevailed phenomenon in mobile social networks of using shortenings was present in this following example:

- WSD-61: *Thnx for this info.*

- WSD-61: *OMG*

Secondly, participants tried their best to avoid any grammatical and/ or spelling mistakes, as mistake correction by teacher was available, thus having very little cases as evident in this conversation:

- WND-13: *Why use 'already' and 'before' in the same breathe? You have 'already seen it', 'seen it already' or 'seen it before'.*

- WSD-13: *May be we Arabs like to emphasize. hahahahahaha*

Thirdly, participants did not care about the use of unimportant punctuation, in their views, except for capital letters and question marks, which was used most of the time as clear in this example:

- WSD-14: *Are u going somewhere?*

- WSD-14: *Or u will stay in Najran?*

- WSD-14: *What about homework?*

Fourthly, some students used smilies and other shapes as they felt they are more expressive to convey the message, and it can be said it is a way to avoid spelling mistakes e.g. students used the picture of a woman facing to express the verb dance in the sentence" *I want to(A pic of*

woman dancing). Another student used *the pic of a man running in the sentence "You(A pic of a man running) guys."*

Fifthly, the use of phrases witnessed a lot occasions as seen in the following excerpts:

- WSD-29: *Fantastic*
- WND-29: *In my pocket*
- WND-29: *A lot of things.*

Sixth, English voice notes were present by very limited number of students to avoid spelling mistakes as they expressed.

It can be summarized that although that students did not use some punctuations, shortenings, abbreviations, and full sentences as much as they cared about conveying the message not because they could not use them, but they felt they are less important since the message is conveyed without them, the punctuations are on a different page of the mobile keypad, which make students neglect them, and to save more time for the next step, especially whenever they felt in a hurry.

In addition, Table 2 below is statistics of the overall of the students' participation per topic in the WhatsApp group.

Table 2. *Students' participation per topic*

The topic	No.of postings	Percentages	No.of comments	Percentages	Comments/ Postings
Academic life	45	47%	1500	61%	33
Social Affairs	20	21%	290	12%	7
Funny videos and pictures	8	8%	81	3%	10
Nature	7	7%	195	8%	28
War	5	5%	100	4%	20
Sports	5	5%	70	3%	14
Advice	4	4%	148	6%	37
Greetings	2	2%	76	3%	38
Total	96	100%	2460	100%	26

Table 2 shows that the variation of topics as there was no restriction on the students' postings within the frame work traditions, cultures and religion. Students could share and post any pictures, videos, and texts. The total number of posting is 96, which somehow comprises a small fraction if compared to the number of comments (2460) and students (34). Academic life, which received the most postings (45) with a percentage of 47% and comments (1500) with a percentage of 61%. This aspect covered many topics such as examinations, courses, classes, vacation, educational links, presence, absence, meetings, etc. The average number of comments for each posting is 33. This high participation may be attributed to the students' interests in the things that may help them on their study. They also shared and interacted on items related to academic life, which are known for all of them. Social affairs came second and had 20 postings and 290 comments which is also a very good percentage in comparison with the next items. They shared and discussed sickness, death, role of mother in life, sleeping habits, etc. The third topic which had 8 postings and 81 comments was funny videos and pictures in form of making irony of some decisions being taken, *e.g. there was a huge dust storm and all schools had their students off except Najran university, a student wrote, 'We have got air filters just like cars,'*

followed by nature with 7 postings and 195 comments. War and sports had the same number of postings, and the comments were 100 and 70 respectively. The rest of the topics had less postings and quite good comments. Advice aspect received 7 postings and 148 comments whereas greetings had 2 postings and 76 comments. These results indicate that even though students are outside classroom, they still prefer to share and discuss topics related to their study. To answer the second question 'What are the participants' attitudes towards the use of MMC in learning English?' the means, standard deviations, and levels of response were extracted from the first part of the questionnaire filled out by students at the end of the study. Moreover, to specify the level of direction, the classification based on the means according to the measurement experts is followed:

- (1---- less than 1.80) Very low
 (1.80---- less than 2.60) Low
 (2.60 ----- less than 3.40) Average
 (3.40 ----- less than 4.20) High
 (4.20-----5.0) Very high

Table 3. *Students' responses*

Items	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level of response
1. Build my confidence in using English.	30	4.60	.621	Very high
2. Reduce my anxiety in learning English.	30	4.40	.621	Very high
3. Increase my motivation in learning English.	30	4.70	.466	Very high
4. Get quick feedback from my teachers.	30	4.23	.858	Very high
5. Allow my mistakes to be corrected at once.	30	4.57	.679	Very high
6. Negotiate meaning using English.	30	4.50	.682	Very high
7. Ask for more information using English.	30	4.60	.563	Very high
8. Clarify meaning using English.	30	4.40	.770	Very high
9. Infer meaning according to the context.	30	4.33	.844	Very high
10. Improve my vocabulary.	30	4.43	.774	Very high
11. Improve my grammar.	30	4.07	.868	Very high
12. Understand the text better.	30	4.43	.626	Very high
13. Express my thought better.	30	4.33	.758	Very high
14. Communicate better in this group than in the classroom.	30	4.27	.907	Very high
15. Participate more in this group than in the classroom.	30	4.03	.928	Very high
Total	30	4.39	.367	Very high

Table 3 shows that the perceptions of students towards using mobile apps, namely WhatsApp, are very high with a mean of (4.39) and a standard deviation (0.367). Item no. 3 (*Increase my motivation in learning English*) received the highest mean (4.70), standard deviation (0.466) and a very high level, whereas items 1 (building my confidence in using English) and 7 (ask for more information using English) came second with a mean of (4.60) and standard deviations (.621) and (.563) respectively. However, items 11 and 15 received the lowest means (4.07) and (4.03) with standard deviations of (.868) and (.928) in a row. Participants felt confident and motivated. They got a chance to correct mistakes and get feedback from teachers.

They had a room to express themselves freely, which resulted in their grammar and vocabulary improvement. Finally, they preferred to participate in this group than in the classroom.

In addition to the above, the students' attitudes were tested through a set of qualitatively analyzed questions in form of semi- structured interviews as follows:

Table 4. *Students' likes*

Q1	Answers	Frequencies	Percentages
What did you like when you participated in this group?	Use of English	12	40 %
	Interaction	6	20%
	Mistake correction	5	17%
	Motivation	3	10%
	everything	3	10%

Table 4 shows that the results of the analysis of the first open question (What did you like when you participated in this group?). Use of English received the highest frequencies (12) with a percentage of 40 % followed by interaction, which had half of the frequencies, and percentage of use of English. While mistake correction got 5 frequencies with a percentage of 17%, motivation and everything were repeated for three times with a percentage of 10%.

Table 5. *Students' dislikes*

Q2	Answers	Frequencies	Percentages
What did you not like when you participated in this group?	Nothing	18	60%
	Use of Arabic	8	27 %
	Lots of chats	6	20%
	Few educational resources	4	13%

It can be inferred from table 5 that 18 students who comprise 60% had nothing to dislike in the WhatsApp group. 8 students denied the act of those students who were typing in Arabic in some situations and their percentage was 27%. Sometimes there were lots of chats on some topics which 6 students did not like. Few educational resources were the last thing that only 4 students did not like with a percentage of 13%.

Table 6. *English improvement*

Q3	Answers	Frequencies	percentages
What aspects of English language learning did you feel improved?	Reading	22	73%
	vocabulary	20	67%
	Writing	16	53%
	Grammar	11	37%
	Listening	3	10%

When students were asked about the skills that they felt improved in, reading was repeated 22 times with a percentage of 73%. Vocabulary improvement came second with 20 frequencies and a percentage of 67%. While writing was repeated 16 times, grammar had 11

frequencies with a percentage of 37%. Finally, listening had the least frequencies with a percentage of 10%.

Table 7. *Students' interests*

Q4	Answers	Frequencies	Percentages
What is the most interesting part of this group?	Interaction	26	87%
	Vocabulary	22	73%
	Mistake correction	15	50%
	Simple chats	13	43%
	Educational resources	7	23%
	Competition	4	13%

Participants were interested mostly in the interaction with each other, which was repeated in their answers for 26 times with a percentage of 87%. While Vocabulary booked their second interest, which had 22 frequencies with a percentage of 73%, simple chats followed it with 15 frequencies and a percentage of 43%. Educational resources and competition came last with frequencies of 7 and 4 and percentages of 23% and 13% respectively.

Table 8. *Students' difficulties*

Q5	Answers	Frequencies	Percentages
What is the most difficult part of this group?	Nothing	16	53%
	Fast chats	6	20%
	New vocabulary	4	13%
	Grammar	4	13%
	Speaking in English	3	10%

Table 8 shows the parts where participants felt a sort of difficulty. 16 students felt no difficulty in any part, which comprises 53%. On the opposite, they said that everything was simple and easy to understand. 6 students with a percentage of 20%, said that fast chats made them lost their focus as it was so difficult to keep up with the discussion in some cases. New vocabulary and grammar received equal frequencies, 4 for each and the percentage was 13%.

Table 9. *Students' participation*

Q6	Answers	Frequencies	Percentages
Have you enjoyed participating in this group? Why?	Yes, English improvement	16	53%
	Yes, existence of high qualified teachers and learners	7	23%
	Yes, free atmosphere	5	17%
	Yes, confidence	4	13%

Table 9 shows the participants' answers on whether they enjoyed taking this experience and why. All of the students without any exception expressed their conveniences and comforts towards participating in this group for many reasons. The majority of the students enjoyed the

group as they sought to improve their English language. 7 students liked the existence of high qualified teachers and learners. In addition, 5 students supported the free atmosphere in the group. Finally, 4 students enjoyed participating as they felt more confident.

Finally, the native speakers, who participated in the group, were interviewed. They both appreciated this initiative and expressed their support to such idea. They also pointed out that the environment is not misleading students rather it can be useful for all levels of English as students learn in any way; *if they share videos, it means they learn listening. If they type in English, they learn writing.* When asked about the replacement of technology for traditional classrooms, they did not agree with the idea. They expressed that, *'The technological interaction via mobile apps is not better than the traditional classes. Rather it can work as supplementary to the traditional classes.'* *'The traditional classes cannot be replaced totally by the technological interactions via apps and programs. Face-to-face classes along with mobile technology integration are still better.'* They do agree that students' skills are improved, *if they are encouraged to express themselves freely.* *'When they type and commit mistakes, it means they are doing mental activities that result in their improvement at the end.'* Moreover, on the question about the efficiency of MMC in teaching and learning English, they replied, *'It depends on the mobile applications how well organized and designed. It also depends on the student's interaction in such apps.'* *'If students like to use this technology, they will be motivated to interact and thus achieve if directed in such a way where organization and achievement is within the context.'* As for their observation on the whole participation, they answered, *'Students are motivated to use the language where they give comments in English which is a positive side.'* *'However, a clear plan and organization is needed in such a way to keep students focused. But all in all I like this promising experience.'*

5. Findings and Discussion

Taking the first question into consideration, 'To what extent, can MMC (WhatsApp) provide EFL learners with exposure to English language?' the analysis revealed that students used and practiced the language effectively through exposure to informal appropriate learning settings of English inside the virtual environment of WhatsApp. In more details, students tried cleverly to adopt what they learnt inside classroom with their outsider surroundings as they are convinced that it would be of a great benefit for best learning outcomes and, more importantly, it fosters and masters their English skills. Moreover, they were given the chance to produce entertaining learning materials without any restrictions and outsider forces.

These results are in agreement with relative findings that call for mobile integration in informal learning settings outside classroom (AL-Shehri, 2011; Alsaleem, 2013; Al-Jarf, 2004; Baghdasaryan, 2010; Borau, Ullrich, Feng, & Shen, 2009; Mahdi, & El-Naim, 2012). This is due to the common background of students with regard to education, environment, religion, mentality, and so on. They also extended their in-class learned practices outside, as they felt free in terms of time and place and had no pressure (AL-Shehri, 2011 & Petersen, et al. 2008).

As for 'What are the participants' attitudes towards the use of MMC in learning English?' the analysis of questionnaire and semi-structured interviews showed that the majority of the participants had positive attitudes towards the technologies and agreed that they could help them in learning English. WhatsApp raised their confidence, reduced anxiety in using English, and

they felt more motivated. They also felt improved in meaning inferences, vocabulary, grammar, comprehension, pronunciations, spelling, punctuation, and spelling. In addition, they appreciated the WhatsApp group as it can serve for both learning English and fun at the same time. In more details, they mostly liked the experiment as it had them exposed more to use and practice the language as it is expressed clearly in one of the students' interviews, '*I just started learning English*'. These results are in agreement with (Kessler, 2010; Khrisat & Mahmoud; 2013; Lan, Sung & Chang, 2007; Lin & Chen, 2012; Miyazoe, & Anderson, 2010; Osman & Chung, 2010; Wu, Yen, & Marek, 2011; Yamaguchi, 2005).

Tackling the issues of missing punctuations, shortenings, abbreviations, emotions, smilies, and pics, participants importantly cared about conveying the message not because they could not use them, but they felt they are less important since the message is conveyed without them, the punctuations are on a different page of the mobile keypad, which make students neglect them, and to save more time for the next step, especially whenever they felt in a hurry. These phenomena, according to Sharlpes, et al. (2005), are considered a very much habit of any social network community. They state that '*As they become familiar with the technology they invent new ways of interacting – 'smilies', text message short forms, the language of instant messaging – that create new rules and exclusive communities. This appropriation of technology not only leads to new ways of learning and working, it also sets up a tension with existing technologies and practices.*' In relation, Castrillo, Martín-Monje & Bárcena, (2014) the language used in chatting is like a mix of features drawn from prototypically spoken and prototypically written media; however, the trend is towards a more informal, "spoken" style of writing. This is especially obvious at the paralinguistic/graphic level, where additional means have been used to represent effects that are possible in face-to-face interaction but not in writing.

6. Limitations of the Study

We believe that our work could be a further addition to highlight the role of mobile features and apps in English language learning. However, this work clearly has some limitations. It can be said that due to the war circumstances in the southern area of Saudi Arabia, Najran, along the Yamani border, students' interaction in the fourth month since the group was created, was remarkably reduced. Another thing is that although students were directed about the medium of communication that had to be only in English, some cases typing in Arabic happened here and there. More importantly, lack of focus on one topic occasionally occurred. Finally, shyness took place with some students although students did not identify each other inside the group unless they asked.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study mirrors the capabilities of mobile technology, WhatsApp, to share a role of improvement in reinforcing language learning through having students involved in a virtual native English environment, almost for free, regardless time, place, and topic. It tried to shed light on the pedagogical aspects and practices of mobile phones. This study has indicated that collaborative learning embodied in virtual interaction was indeed supported by the use of mobile phones where the students were the center of learning process, and the teacher is facilitator of learning. Students also did communicate positively through chatting, sending pictures and videos, and sharing ideas authentically in relation to what they learn inside classroom, as they needed more exposure to the language in their mother language environment. In other words,

students did exploit what they received in classroom to better practice and use in a closer and more appropriate environment via WhatsApp to reach the ultimate goal of language learning. Another unconsidered result is that students developed a sense of independency in terms of learning choices. Taken together, these findings implicate the role of mobile in creating an appropriate virtual environment, where students get the chance to practice and use the language effectively, following the saying 'Use it or lose it'. However, more planning and centered focus was needed for the ultimate benefits of the students.

As this study investigated the opportunities for language exposure by mobile social networks, it can be suggested that further studies are needed to measure this language exposure. It is also recommended that more studies be done on mobile potentials either to replace or to supplement classroom education.

8. Acknowledgement

The researchers would like to express their appreciation and gratitude to Najran University for funding the research by the sixth stage research grant code No. NU/ SHED/14/154

About the Authors:

Sultan Almekhlafy is an assistant professor at English Department, Preparatory Year Deanship, Najran University, Saudi Arabia. He has a PhD in Applied Linguistics, University of KIIT, India.

Ali Alzubi is an English language instructor in Preparatory Year Deanship, Najran University, Saudi Arabia. He holds a master degree in English language and translation, Yarmouk University, Jordan.

9. References

- Ajileye, S. (1998). *The Effect of Exposure to English Language Activities outside the Classroom on Written English: A Study of Selected Secondary Schools in Ilorin*. [on-line available] <http://www.unilorin.edu.ng/journals/education/ije/sept1998.THE%20EFFECT%20OF%20EXPOSURE%20TO%20ENGLISH%20LANGUAGE%20ACTIVITIES.pdf>.
- Al-Jarf, R. S. (2004). The Effects of Web-Based Learning on Struggling EFL College Writers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37(1), 49-57.
- Alsalem, B. I. A. (2013). The effect of Whatsapp Electronic Dialogue Journaling on Improving Writing Vocabulary Word Choice and Voice of EFL Undergraduate Saudi Students. *Arab World English Journal*, 4(3), 213-225.
- Al-Shehri, S. (2011). *Context in our Pockets: Mobile Phones and Social Networking as Tools of Contextualizing Language Learning*. Paper presented at the 10th world conference on mobile and contextual learning, Beijing, China.
- Amry, A. B. (2014). The Impact of Whatsapp Mobile Social Learning on the Achievement and Attitudes of Female Students Compared With Face To Face Learning In The Classroom. *European Scientific Journal*, 10(22).
- Anderson, T. (2005). *Distance learning–Social Software’s killer ap?* Available at <http://hdl.handle.net/2149/2328>
- Baghdasaryan, C. (2010). The Role of Social Networking in Language Learning/Teaching. *Karine’s blog TEFL111*

- Barhoumi, C. (2015). The Effectiveness of WhatsApp Mobile Learning Activities Guided by Activity Theory on Students' Knowledge Management. *Contemporary Educational Technology*, 6(3).
- Bere, A. (2013). Using Mobile Instant Messaging to Leverage Learner Participation and Transform Pedagogy at a South African University of Technology. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 44(4), 544-561.
- Blake, R. (2000). Computer Mediated Communication: A window on L2 Spanish Interlanguage. *Language Learning & Technology*, 4(1), 120-136.
- Borau, K., Ullrich, C., Feng, J., & Shen, R. (2009). Microblogging for Language Learning: Using Twitter to Train Communicative and Cultural Competence Advances in Web Based Learning-ICWL, 78-87: Springer.
- Bouhnik, D., & Deshen, M. (2014). WhatsApp Goes to School: Mobile Instant Messaging between Teachers and Students. *Journal of Information Technology Education: Research*, 13, 217-231.
- Campbell, N. (2004). Perception of Affect in Speech towards an Automatic Processing of Paralinguistic Information in Spoken Conversation. Paper presented at the *INTERSPEECH*.
- Castrillo, M. D., Martín-Monje, E., & Bárcena, E. (2014). *Mobile-based Chatting for Meaning Negotiation in Foreign Language Learning*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 10th International Conference on Mobile Learning. International Association for Development of the Information Society.
- Chen, J. (2007). How to Adopt Learner-centred Approach in Chinese EFL Context. *The International Journal of Language Society and Culture*, 22, 57-61.
- Chinnery, G. M. (2006). Emerging Technologies Going to the MALL: Mobile Assisted Language learning. *Language Learning & Technology*, 10(1), 9-16.
- Chipunza, P. R. C. (2013). *Using Mobile Devices to Leverage Student Access to Collaboratively-generated Resources: A Case of WhatsApp Instant Messaging at a South African University*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Advanced Information and Communication Technology for Education (ICAICTE 2013).
- Fujii, A., & Mackey, A. (2009). Interactional Feedback in Learner-learner Interactions in a Task-based EFL Classroom. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 47(3-4), 267-301.
- Gasmi, A. (2014). Mobile Assisted Language Learning: Potential and Limitations of Using 'Whatsapp' Messenger to Enhance Students Writing Skills. *INTED2014 Proceedings*, 7243-7243.
- Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic Materials and Authenticity in Foreign Language Learning. *Language teaching*, 40(02), 97-118.
- Harmer, J. (1991). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. 2nd edition, London: Longman.
- Holsti, O. R. (1969). *Content Analysis for the Social Sciences and Humanities*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hung, H.-T., & Yuen, S. C.-Y. (2010). Educational Use of Social Networking Technology in Higher Education. *Teaching in higher education*, 15(6), 703-714.
- Kabilan, M. K., Ahmad, N., & Abidin, M. J. Z. (2010). Facebook: An Online Environment for Learning of English in Institutions of Higher Education? *The Internet and Higher Education*, 13(4), 179-187.

- Kajornboon, A. B. (2013). *The Effect of Using Social Networking Assisted Interaction between Peer and Teacher in English Language Learning*. Paper presented at the Proceedings from FLLT Conference, March 15.
- Kasper, G. (1997). Can Pragmatic Competence be Taught. *NetWork*, 6, 105-119.
- Kessler, G. (2010). Fluency and Anxiety in Self-access Speaking tasks: the Influence of Environment. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 23(4), 361-375.
- Khrisat, Abdulhafeth A, & Mahmoud, Salameh Saleem. (2013). Integrating Mobile Phones into the EFL Foundation Year Classroom in King Abdulaziz University/KSA: Effects on Achievement in General English and Students' Attitudes. *English Language Teaching*, 6(8), 162.
- Kolb, L. (2008). Toys to Tools. *Eugene: International Society for Technology in Education*.
- Kukulska-Hulme, A. (2009). Will Mobile Learning Change Language Learning? *ReCALL*, 21(02), 157-165.
- Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Shield, L. (2007). An Overview of Mobile Assisted Language Learning: Can Mobile Devices Support Collaborative Practice in Speaking and Listening. Paper presented at the conference *EuroCALL'07 Conference Virtual Strand*.
- Lan, Y.-J., Sung, Y.-T., & Chang, K.-E. (2007). A Mobile Device Supported Peer-Assisted Learning System for Collaborative Early EFL Reading. *Language Learning & Technology*, 11(3), 130-151.
- Larsari, V. N. (2011). Learners' Communicative Competence in English as a Foreign Language (EFL). *Journal of English and literature*, 2(7), 161-165.
- Leh, A. S. (1999). Computer-mediated Communication and Foreign Language Learning via Electronic Mail. *Interactive Multimedia Electronic Journal of Computer-Enhanced Learning*, 1(2).
- Lightbown, P. M. and N. Spada (2013). *How Languages are Learned*. 4th edition, Oxford University Press.
- Lin, Y., & Chen, H. (2012). *Investigating the Effects of Podcasts via Smartphones on Foreign Language Learning*. Paper presented at the medium matters, Proceedings 15th International CALL Conference.
- Liton, H. A. (2012). Developing EFL Teaching and Learning Practices in Saudi Colleges: A Review. *Online Submission*, 5(2), 129-152.
- Lubega, S. (1979). The Effect of the Nature and Amount of Exposure on Language Learning: a Study Based on the English Language Proficiency of Students in Six Ugandan Schools. York University.
- MacLeod, F., & Larsson, P. (2011). *Exposure to English outside the Classroom*. Available at <https://dspace.mah.se/bitstream/handle/2043/12177/T9,%20Final%20Dissertation,%20Fraser%20MacLeod%20and%20Pia%20Larsson.pdf?sequence=2>
- Mahdi, H. S., & El-Naim, M. E. M. (2012). The Effects of Informal Use of Computer-Mediated Communication on EFL Learner Interaction. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 5(3), 75-81.
- Marek, M., & Wu, V. (2007). *Using Internet Teleconferencing between Taiwanese English Language Students and a Native Speaker to Improve Learning*. Paper presented at the World Conference on Educational Multimedia, Hypermedia and Telecommunications.
- Miyazoe, T., & Anderson, T. (2010). Learning Outcomes and Students' Perceptions of Online Writing: Simultaneous Implementation of a Forum, Blog, and Wiki in an EFL Blended Learning Setting. *System*, 38(2), 185-199.

- Morford, J. P. (2003). Grammatical Development in Adolescent First Language Learners. *Linguistics*, 41(4; ISSU 386), 681-722.
- Moskovsky, C., & Alrabai, F. (2009). Intrinsic Motivation in Saudi Learners of English as a Foreign Language. *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, 2(1), 1-10.
- Ngaleka, A., & Uys, W. (2013). *M-learning with Whatsapp: A Conversation Analysis*. Paper presented at the International Conference on e-Learning.
- Osman, M. and Chung, P. W. H. (2010) *Feasibility Study on Mobile and Communication Technologies for Language Learning*. In: International Conference on Mobile Learning, IADIS 2010, 19-21 March 2010, Porto, Portugal.
- Petersen, S. A., Divitini, M., & Chabert, G. (2008). Identity, Sense of Community and Connectedness in a Community of Mobile Language Learners. *ReCALL*, 20(03), 361-379.
- Plana, M. G.-C., Escofet, M. I. G., Figueras, I. T., Gimeno, A., Appel, C., & Hopkins, J. (2013). *Improving Learners' Reading Skills through Instant Short Messages: A Sample Study Using WhatsApp*. Proceeding of WorldCall, 80-84.
- Sharples, M., Taylor, J., & Vavoula, G. (2005). *Towards a Theory of Mobile Learning*. Proceedings of mLearn 2005, 1(1), 1-9.
- Shin, D.-S. (2006). ESL Students' Computer-mediated Communication Practices: *Context configuration*. *Language Learning & Technology*, 10(3), 65-84.
- Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. M. (1999). Instruction, First Language Influence, and Developmental Readiness in Second Language Acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), 1-22.
- Steven, L., Payne, J. S., Thorne, S. L., O'Rourke, B., Sotillo, S., Oskoz, A., . . . Mc Bride, K. (2005). Special Issue on Computer-Mediated Communication and Foreign Language Learning* Context, Research, and Practice. *CALICO JOURNAL*, 22(3).
- Su, K.-D. (2008). An Integrated Science Course Designed with Information Communication Technologies to Enhance University Students' Learning Performance. *Computers & Education*, 51(3), 1365-1374.
- Susilo, A. (2014). *Exploring Facebook and Whatsapp as Supporting Social Network Applications For English Learning In Higher Education*. Widyatama International Seminar (75) [on-line available] <http://repository.widyatama.ac.id/xmlui/handle/123456789/3317>
- Torii-Williams, E. (2004). Incorporating the Use of E-mail into a Language Program. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 17(1), 109-122.
- Traxler, J. (2009). Current State of Mobile Learning1. *Mobile learning*, 9.
- Webb, M. (2013). Changing Models for Researching Pedagogy with Information and Communications Technologies. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 29(1), 53-67.
- Weber R.P. (1990). *Basic Content Analysis*. Sage Publications, Newbury Park, CA
- Wu, K.-h., & Ke, C. (2009). Haunting Native Speakerism? Students' Perceptions toward Native Speaking English Teachers in Taiwan. *English Language Teaching*, 2(3), 44-52.
- Wu, W.-c. V., Yen, L. L., & Marek, M. (2011). Using Online EFL Interaction to Increase Confidence, Motivation, and Ability. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 14(3), 118-129.
- Yamaguchi, T. (2005). *Vocabulary Learning with a Mobile Phone*. Program of the 10th Anniversary Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics, Edinburgh, UK. Retrieved August 4, 2005.
- Yan, Z. (2015). *Encyclopedia of Mobile Phone Behavior* (3 Volumes) (pp. 1-1542). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-8239-9

- Yeboah, J., & Ewur, G. D. (2014). The Impact of WhatsApp Messenger Usage on Students Performance in Tertiary Institutions in Ghana. *Journal of Education and practice*, 5(6), 157-164.
- You, Y. (2003). *A study on Motivation to Learn English among the Freshmen in the Four-year Program*. Project Report on Improvements on Faculty Members of St. John's Institute of Technology.

Metaphors Production and Comprehension by Qatari EFL learners: A Cognitive Approach

Hanan Zaki Alsadi

Department of Language and Literature

Community College of Qatar

Doha –Qatar

Abstract

The present study investigates the problems that face Qatari learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) in the production and comprehension of the metaphorical expressions. It aims to reach pedagogical insights related to EFL curriculum design and teaching metaphors. The sample of the study consisted of 40 Qatari students study English courses in the Department of Language and Literature as a requirement for their associate degree at the community college of Qatar. A questionnaire, writing test and interviews were used as instruments of the study. The findings of the study showed that the Qatari learners of EFL encountered difficulties in the comprehension and production of the conceptual metaphors due to their unfamiliarity with the culture of the English Language and their incapability to evaluate whether a statement is meant to be a metaphor or a literal one. Therefore, to raise the EFL learners' awareness of the conceptual metaphors the materials of teaching EFL should focus on the social and cultural dimensions of the language.

Key words: conceptual metaphor, EFL learning, metaphor awareness, metaphorical mapping

Introduction

The link between foreign-language teaching methodology and theoretical linguistics has always been very close. Danesi (2000) suggests that major shifts in linguistic theory have been regularly reflected in language teaching methodology, which implies that linguistic models have been associated with predominant psychological conceptualization. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) have confirmed that metaphor has conceptual cognitive foundations. They demonstrate that human thought processes are fundamentally metaphorical and each language in a given culture uses its own devices to shape concepts. For example, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that in the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR, our knowledge about war is mapped onto the knowledge about arguments. In this conceptual mapping process, the source domain WAR conceptualizes the abstract meaning of ARGUMENT. There are numerous other everyday metaphorical expressions which are derived from such conceptual metaphor, thus, we talk about defending, attacking or giving up a position.

Therefore, the learners of a foreign language should have "the ability to interrelate the underlying structure of concepts to the surface grammar and vocabulary that reflect them" (Danesi 2000, p. 42). They need to undergo a process of conceptual reorganization so that they can better deal with the new language. Thus, according to Danesi (2000) to be conceptually fluent in a language is to know, in large part how that language 'reflects' or encodes concepts on the basis of metaphorical reasoning. Ortony (1988) expresses that metaphor might allow one to express which is difficult to express if one is restricted to literal uses of language. If metaphorical language conveys chunks of information rather than discrete units, it can paint richer and more detailed picture of our subjective experience than might be expressed by literal language.

In fact, anyone teaching a foreign language at advanced level will notice that metaphor has become something of a buzz-word in recent years. Commercial teaching materials incorporate aspects of conceptual metaphor theory as an aid to teachers and learners. Philip (2005) believes that there are good reasons for this. He maintains that learners who can access and make use of their knowledge of metaphorical concepts experience a positive effect on their ability to organize, learn and recall vocabulary, and have greater success in their comprehension of previously unseen expressions.

On the other hand, Nam (2010) believes that learning a new language should not be considered as independent of any conceptual system and thus foreign language learners need to be encouraged to access word meanings through their conceptualization rather than linking translation equivalent. He demonstrates that foreign language learners need to be taught in context in which certain expressions may be used and features of the target language are highlighted. Therefore, the teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) need to provide the learners with different examples clarifying the conceptual metaphor to allow them to internalize these new concepts. More specifically, advanced learners in particular need to develop a 'metaphoric competence' if they are to attain a level of proficiency in their L2 that will equip them for professional lives that require a high level of language awareness.

Universal Metaphorical Concepts

Cognitive linguists claim that certain conceptual metaphors are universal or at least near universal. They attribute the reason behind having such universal conceptual metaphors to the

fact that certain physical principles are invariable with regard to cultural influence. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that certain concepts do not change from one place to another but are basic and fundamental parts of reality, we can draw a distinction between experiences that are 'more' physical such as standing up and those that are 'more' cultural, such as participating in a wedding ceremony.

Orientation metaphors are referred to by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) as universal concepts that are derived from the fact that human beings are shaped as they are and perceive the world in a similar way, namely by using senses. They suggest that within such group of metaphors, the body itself and our sense of spatial orientation plays an important role. The central concepts emerging from this concern are orientations like UP- DOWN, IN- OUT, FRONT- BACK, and NEAR- FAR expressing either the posture of the body (UP-DOWN) seeing our body as a container (IN-OUT) or correlating the body and the space around us (FRONT – BACK).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) provide another example of universal concepts of metaphor which are the concepts of container. They are grounded on the fact that our body represents a limited physical separated from the surrounding world by our skin. Accordingly, we employ concepts, like IN- OUT based on the image of a container and apply them to certain other concepts, even though those do not show boundaries as clear cut as those of our body. This process is often referred to as embodiment referring to the fact that the properties of our body are projected on to things and ideas around us. The concepts introduced as the more universal ones are understood more directly than others. They can be called 'emergent concepts' as they are based on direct experience that is based on direct interaction with the physical world.

Culturally variable concepts

In order to underline the metaphorical concepts that are culturally different, we shall go back to the orientation concepts. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) demonstrate that the metaphorical concept HAPPY IS UP is rather universal. However, if we take the system RATIONAL-EMOTIONAL, it is not obvious which attribute is assigned to which orientation. They add that the way we understand the concepts is now based on two separate and different experiential bases both referring to the metaphorical concepts of UP-DOWN. To decide whether RATIONAL IS UP or EMOTIONAL IS UP depends on the cultural presupposition of the particular person and the cultural environment. Callis and Zimmerman (2002) comment on such concept stating that “in our western industrial society, the tendency is definitely towards the concept 'RATIONAL IS UP' as these societies need a rational way of thinking and handling our emotions to be successful in our society.” (P.98).

Accordingly, one may say that a shift of the more universal concepts towards cultural variability is always noticeable depending on how the concepts are expressed in cultural terms.

Problem of the study

From the researcher's own observation, it is noticed that Qatari students in the Community College of Qatar often employ their first language conceptual metaphors both in interpreting and producing new strings of the English discourse. It seems that their production of English conceptual metaphors is based on the literal translation from their Arabic language metaphorical concepts. It is often the case that conceptual metaphors in their Arabic language are applied to English without reservation. They do not consider it necessary to understand the

underlying concepts, for the exam preparation, but rather, they take a short-cut by memorizing the translation equivalents. The present study attempts to find out problems that arise for Qatari learners of (EFL) in the production and comprehension of the metaphorical expressions in order to reach pedagogical insights related to EFL curriculum design and teaching metaphors.

Research Method

Participants of the Study

The sample of the study consists of 40 Qatari students study English courses in the department of Language and Literature as a requirement for their associate degree at the community college of Qatar. They consist of 27 females and 13 males whose ages range between 19-27 years old. The study was conducted during the fall semester of the academic year 2015/2016.

The Instrument of the Study

The instruments used in the study were a questionnaire, writing test and interviews. The researcher developed a questionnaire in order to examine the EFL participants' comprehension of conceptual metaphor. It consisted of 15 items which included metaphorical expressions from food conceptual metaphor. In order to examine the EFL participants' usage of conceptual metaphor, an English writing test was prepared by the researcher. The participants were asked to write a short essay to comment on the saying "Learning English at the Community College of Qatar is a piece of cake". No special format or expected writing style was advised. Asking the EFL participants to express themselves in English metaphorically is one good way to gain insight into their metaphorical thinking. Their writings may reflect metaphorical usage patterns and what metaphorical categories or domains seem to be most seen in their writing. In order to gain more in depth understanding of the participants' usage and comprehension of metaphors, the researcher conducted interviews, the researcher engaged in a brief conversation with some respondents in order to explore in depth the learner's reactions to the metaphorical usage and the strategies each participant used in ascribing meanings to the questionnaire items.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to the undergraduate students in the Department of Language and Literature at the Community College of Qatar.

Findings and Discussion

In order to find out the extent to which the participants understand the meaning of the metaphorical expressions they encountered in the questionnaire items, the percentages of the correct and incorrect responses were calculated. The non-responded items were considered as incorrect. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

The Percentages of the Correct and Incorrect Responses to the Questionnaire Items

Item No	Item	Percentage of the Correct answers	Percentages of the Incorrect answers
1.	The grandson is the apple of her eye.	40%	60%

Item No	Item	Percentage of the Correct answers	Percentages of the Incorrect answers
2.	Cynthia is an avid reader, and she often sets aside an hour to devour a book.	65%	35%
3.	Everyone at my office is an apple polisher but me.	5%	95%
4.	Dr. Moreland's lecture was bread for my starving mind.	40%	60%
5.	You cannot talk about Fred and Ted in the same breath, they are apples and oranges.	10%	90%
6.	The whole business about the missing money left a bad taste in my mouth.	20%	80%
7.	We do not need to spoon – feed our students. We seek for the autonomous reader.	45%	55%
8.	Children have an enormous appetite for learning.	70%	30%
9.	This is the meaty part of the paper which needs a great effort to be digested.	80%	20%
10.	I do not prefer this book. It has raw facts.	25%	75%
11.	You can find him in the library, he is a voracious reader.	20.5%	79.5%
12.	He is one smart cookie.	10.5%	89.5%
13.	The banks are devouring the public money.	35%	65%
14.	Now you can see how it feels to have someone call you names, you are getting a taste of your own medicine!	25%	75%
15.	He has a sour temper.	75%	25%
The mean percentages of the total answers		37.33%	62.27%

The data in Table 1 demonstrate that the mean percentage of the correct responses was 37.33%; whereas the mean percentage of the incorrect responses was 62.27%. Such percentages clearly entail the preponderance of the incorrect responses as compared to the correct ones. The highest percentage of the incorrect responses was 90% for Item 3; "Everyone at my office seems to be an apple polisher but me", while the lowest percentage was 15% for Item 15, "He has a sour temper".

In fact, out of the fifteen-questionnaire items, eleven items scored a higher percentage of the incorrect answers rather than the correct ones which clearly demonstrates that most of the

respondents were unable to recognize the target domains of the metaphorical expressions which were extracted from the food source domain. They only provided a literal explanation for the words in the expression deviating from focusing on the target domains of such metaphor. For example, the first Item in the questionnaire, "The grandson is the apple of her eye" was interpreted by a respondent as "fat as apple". Also, some other respondents interpreted the second Item of the questionnaire "to devour a book" as to eat a book. However, a significant percentage of the respondents answered item 15 "He has a sour temper" correctly which indicates their familiarity with such expression. Among these correct responses were "moody" and bad tempered. Actually, the respondents were right in equating "sour" with bad" which has been the predominant reply listed. It seems that this metaphorical expression is one of the simplest among the fifteen items of the questionnaire. Only the relatively straightforward word "sour" needs to be analyzed in order to understand the sense of the sentence. Therefore; it seems that the respondent who was unfamiliar with the meaning of the word 'sour' left the item unanswered.

Another interestingly high presence of correct answers to the questionnaire items being interpreted was recorded in item 9; "this is the meaty part of the paper which needs a lot of effort to be digested". The percentage of the correct answers for this item reached up to 80% which clearly demonstrates the ability of those respondents to identify the target domain of the food metaphorical expression "to be digested". Among the appropriate answers for such expression were "to be understood", and "to be comprehended". However, 20% of the respondents explained this expression erroneously. Such wrong interpretations can be exemplified in the respondents' answers: "to be eaten" and "to be swallowed".

In fact, the responses of the questionnaire obtained from the participants clearly reflected the difficulties encountering such participants in understanding and interpreting metaphors. The major difficulty in the comprehension of metaphors seems to lie in the metaphorical expressions that are based on particular aspects of culture. The participants' unfamiliarity with such metaphorical expressions resulted in misunderstanding and flawed answers ranging from small inaccuracies to gross misinterpretation. The preponderance of the incorrect responses of the participants clearly appears in their interpretation of the metaphorical expressions; the apple of her eye, apple polisher and one smart cookie. Apparently, all these expressions which belong to the conceptual metaphor "TEMPERAMENT IS FOOD" include certain kind of food namely, "apple" and "cookie" which seem to be more popular in the western culture and thus they are not conceptualized in the Arabic culture. Therefore, the misinterpretation of such metaphors can be due to the use of different cultural referencing when interpreting metaphors.

The Arabs who learn EFL may have difficulty in interpreting such metaphors that pose no problems for native speakers. Confusion is particularly likely to arise when, for cultural reasons, the learners provide different connotations to the source domains. Lantolf (1999) proposes that learning a second language from the perspective of culture entails much more than complying with the behavioral patterns of a host culture. He argues that if learners acquire grammatical and communicative knowledge but fail to develop conceptual knowledge in a new language, their knowledge use will be significantly different from that of native users.

Second language researchers have frequently drawn on schema theories to explain L2 learners' failure to comprehend culture specific information or discourse (Anderson & Pearson,

1984; Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977). They conclude that students failed to operate metaphorical thinking in a positive way to assist meaning comprehension because they lack the cultural schemas. A schema is taken to be an abstract representation of a generalized concept or situation and its inherent entities. As an attempt to overcome such cultural-based problems in comprehending the conceptual metaphor, Benda (1981), who asserts that language is an integral part of culture and metaphor is a means of expressing it, suggests that metaphorical expressions should be learned through imitation and direct exposure to the socio – cultural contexts in which they are used.

Another difficulty seems to be encountered by the participants in interpreting metaphorical expressions is the learners' incapability to evaluate whether a statement is meant to be a metaphor or literal one. Therefore, some participants interpreted the metaphorical expressions incorrectly providing a literal explanation for each word in the expression. This problem is also referred to by some of the interviewees in the present study who stated that they are not able to grasp the metaphorical meaning of some of the expressions in the questionnaire and attributed such problem to the nature of their courses which do not tackle such metaphorical concepts at all. Muhlausler (1995) states that the judgment of being literal or metaphorical may be different between native speakers and L2 learners. In this respect, Stight (1979) demonstrates that the lack of awareness of metaphorical concepts and lexical strategies often lead L2 learners to render a metaphorical expression in the L2 by using an analogous counterpart of their L1. This view was also supported by Fei (2005, p.10) who suggests that "when understanding metaphors in cross cultural communication, people tend to transplant their own cognitive mode of metaphor into another, which becomes the main reason of the misunderstanding in cross cultural communication".

Johnson and Rosano (1993) refer to the reasons behind errors of EFL students in comprehending the conceptual metaphorical expressions. They state that those students treated the idiom as a novel expression while attempting to generate its figurative meaning. They adopted word for word semantic analysis to arrive at its literal meaning in their mother tongue. And then employed metaphorical thinking in the comprehension processes; these students, however, rarely arrived at correct idiomatic or metaphorical meanings.

In fact, learning metaphorical expressions by mechanical memorization and item - by - item rote learning may not help the learners of EFL to build connections between seemingly incompatible conceptual domains and to distinguish between the literal and metaphorical meaning of certain expression. Danesi (2003) attributes L2 learners' deficiency in metaphorical competence to the lack of exposure to the conceptual system of the target language in a systematic manner. He claims that "the absence of teaching metaphoric competence causes the students to learn virtually no new ways of thinking conceptually when confronted with the target language"(P. 12). Therefore, he proposes that teaching should make L2 learners aware of the conceptual system in order to enable them to produce and comprehend metaphors as tools of communication and thought. On the other hand, Nam (2010) suggests that L2 learners need to be taught in context in which certain expressions may be used, what features of the target domain are highlighted by the source and how the expressions can possibly be linguistically and metaphorically extended.

Furthermore, Arabic and English share many linguistic expressions including proverbs, metaphors and idioms, and these are often transferred word – for – word from one language to another. While the existence of such correspondences aids the process of learning EFL, it can also pose a problem for learners making them think that languages are more alike than is in fact the case, and the result is a literal explanation for the expressions and a deviation from the correct mapping between the source and the target domains.

Moreover, the lack of vocabulary knowledge can intensify the problems in comprehending the abstract concepts. Some metaphorical expressions require a straightforward analysis for the words in the expressions to be comprehended such as the "Sour temper" metaphorical expressions. Those learners who are not aware of the meaning of the word "sour" would not be able to comprehend the meaning of the conceptual metaphor "Sour temper". This goes with the responses of the EFL interviewees who justified their misinterpretation of some metaphorical expressions to their unfamiliarity with meaning of some words. Therefore, Shokouhi and Isazadeh (2009) assert that much more attention on the syntax and semantics is needed and more emphasis on practicing grammatical metaphors is required both explicitly and implicitly in order to enhance the learning of the English metaphors.

Concerning the essays written by the participants basically told their personal experiences regarding their studying English courses in the Community College of Qatar. The essays were on average 90 words in length, with 200 words as the longest and 60 words as the shortest. Out of a total of 6643 words used in the entire combined length of all participants' essays, only 6 expressions consisting of two to five words per expression could be considered as metaphor. For example, some respondents used the expressions "spend" and "waste" to refer to time such as in "I spend 3 hours daily studying" and "Some students waste their time in cafeteria". Such expressions represent the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY since time can be spent and wasted as well as money. Another respondent mentioned "I fell into a depression" which represents the conceptual metaphor SAD IS DOWN". Interestingly, one respondent referred to the relation with his professor as a war such as in "some teachers attack us frequently" which is an example of a conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR.

It was apparent in the essays written by the participants that there was a minimal or no use of the English metaphorical expressions. Danesi (1994) states that the absence of metaphor in students' production is considered as a mark of non-native like speech. He claims that the excellent command of a second language is widely considered as a prerequisite before making appropriate use of metaphor in a non – native language. Moreover, the fact that only a few metaphors were employed by the participants in this study may also indicate the lack of exposure to the socio- cultural contexts where metaphorical expressions were used. Li (1982) makes a pedagogical suggestion in response to the empirical question why some culture - specific idioms and metaphors are difficult for ESL learners to acquire. He argues that the implicit instruction that stems from a simple perspective of the acculturation model is not sufficient to help learners to overcome linguistic and cultural difficulties in using metaphorical expressions. Instead, metaphorical expressions should be learned through direct exposure to the socio - cultural context in which they are used.

Among many grammatical difficulties, prepositions have been found to be a major problem complicating the EFL learners' use of metaphorical expression especially in establishing

the CONTAINER metaphor. For example, a participant expressed the difficulty he faces in expressing his ideas in English saying "I cannot express what I think of on sentences" instead of "in sentences". Actually, Jin (1982) tries to draw attention to the fact that the difficulty in using prepositions is an indication of semantic problems. He asserts that L2 learners' difficulty in using prepositions is caused by the differences of semantic English basic concepts. Lakoff (1993) supports this claim demonstrating that basic semantic concepts are important for processing metaphorical expressions because the basic concepts are used to structure more abstract concepts in the language through metaphorical extension. Accordingly, learners of EFL should master such basic semantic concepts in order to be able to use metaphorical expressions correctly.

Pedagogical Implications for Raising the Qatari EFL Learners' Awareness of the Conceptual Metaphor

Figurative language competence has aroused the interest of a number of L2 researchers. Low (1988) argues that the ability to produce and comprehend metaphor is essential in L2 learning as metaphor can be used to aid comprehension, extend thought, compel attention and clarify ideas. Dirven (1985) demonstrates that the use of metaphor also enables L2 learners to express their creativity and originality of thought and opens up new areas of conversation.

The awareness of conceptual metaphor in a foreign language reduces the conceptual interferences. Danesi's (1995, p.14) states that "students speak with the formal structure of the target language, but they think in terms of their native conceptual system: that is, students typically use target language words and structure as 'carrier' of their own native language concepts".

In fact, the L2 learners' deficiency in grasping metaphors is a problem that seems to be natural for learners of a foreign language, and it is one that can be addressed through adequate exposure to these metaphorical expressions and through pedagogical practices that help learners become aware of them as a natural part of the expressions in their target language. This involves understanding the social and environmental context of language and metaphors. Nam (2010) suggests that employing conceptual metaphor in teaching new structures or lexical items is not a far-fetched idea. He adds that L2 learners need to be taught in the context in which certain expressions may be used, what features of the target domains are highlighted by the source, and how the expressions can possibly be linguistically and metaphorically extended.

Therefore, teachers of EFL need to assist learners with various examples revealing the underlying conceptual metaphors to allow L2 learners to internalize these new concepts. They need to teach EFL in general, and metaphors in particular, explicitly rather than taking it for granted that the learners will come to understand these features of language.

Johnson and Rosono (1993) state that metaphor and idioms should not be ignored by L2 curricula any longer. Such curricula should include different kinds of activities that enhance the learners' awareness of conceptual metaphors. Experts in the field of education can advise techniques, procedures or activities to orient the learners to the metaphors of a language they want to learn. Carter (1997) claims that classroom activities and teaching aid can be developed specially geared to the instruction of metaphor. As metaphors are a critical facet of language, early familiarization with their structure, formation, diversity and use must be emphasized.

The designers of EFL curricula can benefit from the contrastive studies in the field of conceptual metaphor to acquaint learners with the similarities and differences between English and Arabic in conceptual metaphor. Moreover, using contrastive analysis in the classroom forms a useful technique employing the previous knowledge of the learners, informing them with the similarities and differences between their native language and the foreign languages they are studying and warning them about making false analogy.

Accordingly, to enhance learners' awareness of the use of metaphors in a foreign language, it seems necessary to draw their attention to the metaphors used in their native language before carrying out any activities so that they can grasp the concept of a metaphor. Deignan, Gabrys and Solska (1997) suggest that it is essential to raise students' awareness about both the differences and similarities in the metaphorical systems between the learners' first language and the target language before learning various types of metaphors. This would help learners to discover systematization in metaphors and thus make it easier to understand and use them than if they had to learn metaphors as discrete items.

One method of doing this is to give learners some examples of metaphors in their native language and discuss the concepts. Alternatively, the teachers of EFL can present an article in the native language of the learners, have the learners underline what they regard as metaphors and then discuss the structure and system of metaphors. Then, the learners can be introduced to activities of conceptual metaphors in the foreign language they are studying.

Activities Suggested for Raising EFL Learners' Awareness of the Conceptual Metaphor

In this section, the researcher suggests three activities to raise EFL learners' awareness of metaphors. The first activity attempts to draw the EFL learners' attention to both metaphorical and literal meanings that the English expressions may hold. This activity aims to enhance the EFL learners' awareness of the physical senses applied to the metaphor in the English language. The second activity is to determine the conceptual system of metaphors. The purpose of this activity is to promote the EFL learners' recognition of the structure of a metaphor. The third activity makes the EFL learners recollect the Arabic metaphors that are equivalent to the English examples. The purpose of this activity is to promote the learners' recognition of the correspondences and differences of metaphors between Arabic and English.

Activity (1): Two explanations for each sentence are given below, think which the literal meaning is and which the metaphorical meaning is. Then, look at the expressions categorized as literal and in your group discuss if there are any patterns or something in common among them.

1. ***This part of paper needs a great effort to be digested.***
 - a. to be converted into simpler chemical compounds that can be absorbed by the body.
 - b. Understood.
2. ***The carpenter refers to his wife as honey dear.***
 - a. Very lovely.
 - b. Sweet and sticky liquid that bees collect from flowers.
3. ***The banks are devouring the public money.***
 - a. Taking unlawfully.
 - b. Eating with a strong appetite.
4. ***This is a recipe for a disaster.***

- a. A piece of writing telling how to cook something.
- b. To tell ideas or suggestions for doing something.
- 5. **Bill gave Sue a taste of her own rudeness.**
 - a. To try food or drink.
 - b. To experience.

Activity (2): Match the metaphorical expressions in column (A) with the metaphorical concepts in column (B).

Column A: The Metaphorical Expression	Column B: The Metaphorical Concept
1-This part of paper needs a great effort to be digested.	A-GOING THROUGH AN EXPERIENCE IS TASTING IT
2- The carpenter refers to his wife as honey dear.	B-GAINING MONEY UNLAWFULLY IS DEVOURING IT
3-The banks are devouring the public money.	C-TEMPERAMENT IS FOOD
4-This is a recipe for a disaster.	D-OFFERING IDEAS IS COOKING.
5- Bill gave Sue a taste of her own rudeness.	E-UNDERSTANDING IS DIGESTING.

Activity (3): Can you think of any Arabic equivalent or similar expressions to the underlined part of each sentence? If not what expressions do you usually use instead:

- A- This part of paper needs a great effort to be digested.
- B- The carpenter refers to his wife as honey dear.
- C- The banks are devouring the public money.
- D- This is a recipe for a disaster.
- E- Bill gave Sue a taste of her own rudeness.

After completing the above activity, discuss in your group the differences and similarities you found in the use of metaphors between the two languages.

Conclusion

The Qatari students who learn EFL encounter difficulties in the production and comprehension of the conceptual metaphor. The comprehension difficulties lie on the learners' incapability to evaluate whether a statement is meant to be a metaphor or a literal one, the lack of vocabulary knowledge, and their unfamiliarity with the culture of the English Language. On the other hand, the lack of the production of conceptual metaphors in their writing are resulted from the lack of the mastery of the English language and to the lack of the exposure to the socio-cultural contexts where metaphorical expressions are used. Therefore, the materials of teaching conceptual metaphors for EFL learners should focus on the social and cultural dimensions of the foreign language not only to master the language, but also to avoid making cultural mistakes.

About the Author:

Hanan Zaki Alsadi has a PhD in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) and Master degree in Linguistics. She works as assistant professor in the Department of Language and Literature in the Community College of Qatar. Her interest in research is in applied linguistics and EFL teaching.

References:

- Anderson, R.C & Pearson, P.D. (1984). A schema – Theoretic View of Basic Processes in Reading Comprehension. In P.D. Pearson, R. Barr, M.L. Kamil, and P. Mosenthal, (Eds.). *Handbook of Teaching Research*. New York: Monton de Bruyter.
- Benda, N (1981). Teaching English Idioms and Stereotyped Expressions, *English Teaching Forum*, 19, 31-44.
- Callies, M. and Zimmermann, R. (eds.) (2002), Cross-Cultural Metaphors. Investigating Domain-Mappings across Cultures. *A Project Report on the Graduate Seminar 'Metaphor in Communication and Foreign Language Teaching'*. Philipps - Universität, Marburg.
- Carter, R. (1997), *Investigating English Discourse*. London: Rutledge.
- Danesi, M (1994). Recent research on metaphor and the teaching of Italian. *Italica*, 71, 453 – 464.
- Danesi, M. (1995). Learning and Teaching Languages: The Role of Conceptual Fluency. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5 (1), 3-20.
- Danesi, M. (2000). *Semiotics in Language Education*. Berlin, New York: Monton de Bruyter.
- Danesi, M. (2003). Second Language Teaching. A View from the Right Side of the Brain. *Language and Linguistics*, 8, 188-225.
- Deignan, A, Gabryś, D., & Solska, A. (1997). Teaching English metaphors using cross-linguistic awareness - raising activities (Electronic version). *ELT Journal*, 51(4), 352-360.
- Dirven, R.(1985). Metaphors as a basic name for extending the lexicon. In E. paprotte and R. Dirven (Eds). *The ubiquity of metaphor*. Amsterdam: Begamins.
- Fei, Jia. 2005. Metaphor and Cross-culture Communication. *US-China Foreign Language*, 3, 5-20.
- Jin, Z (1982). Difficulties in Learning English for Chinese Students. *TESL Talk*, 13, 87-91.
- Johnson J & Rosano, T (1993). Relation of Cognitive Style to Metaphor Interpretation and Second Language Proficiency. *Applied psycholinguistics*, 14, 159-175.
- Lakoff, G (1993). The Contemporary Theory of Metaphor. In Ortony, A (ED). *Metaphor and Thought*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Lakoff, G & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors We Live By*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Lantolf, J. P. (1999). Sociocultural theory and second language learning: Introduction to the special issue. *Modern Language Journal*, 78/4, 418-420.
- Li, H (1982). Language and Culture. *TESL Talk*. 13, 92-95.
- Low, G.D (1988). On Teaching Metaphor. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, (2), 25-49.
- Mahlhausler, P (1995). Metaphor Others Live by. *Language and Communication*, 15 (3), 281 – 287.
- Name, H. (2010). Reflections on Conceptual Metaphors and Pedagogical Implications. *Issues in EFL*, 8 (1).15-32.

- Ortony, A. (1988). Why Metaphors are Necessary and not Just Nice. *Educational Theory*, 25, 45-53.
- Phillip, G (2005). Figurative language and the Advanced Learners. *The Newsletter of the IAT EFL Research SIG*, 16 .16 – 20.
- Rumelhart, DE & Ortony, A. (1977). The Representation of Knowledge in Memory, In R.C Anderson, R.J Spiro & W.E. Montague (Eds). *Schooling and the Acquisition of Knowledge*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Shokouhi, H & Isazadeh, M. (2009). The Effect of Teaching Conceptual Metaphors to EFL Learners. *The Open Applied Linguistics*, 22-31.
- Stight, T (1979). Educational Uses of Metaphor. In A. Ortony (Ed.) *Metaphor and Thought*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix A

Community College of Qatar Department of Language and Literature

Questionnaire

Name:

Gender: Male Female

Age:

Average:

Mobile Phone:

Email:

Direction: Below is a list of (15) English metaphorical expressions taken from several sources. Please try to explain and elaborate your understanding of the underlined words or expressions using your own words. A phrase or a couple of sentences will be acceptable. An example is presented for your reference.

Example:

Expression: The lecture was a piece of cake.

Explanation: The lecture was easy.

1. The grandson is the apple of her eye.

.....

2. Cynthia is an avid reader, and she often sets aside an hour to devour a book.

.....

3. Everyone at my office seems to be an apple polisher but me.

.....

4. Dr. Moreland's lecture was bread for my starving mind.

.....

5. You can not talk about Fred and Ted in the same breath! They are apples and oranges.

.....

6. The whole business about the missing money left a bad taste in my mouth.

.....

7. We do not need to spoon-feed our students. We seek for the autonomous reader.

.....
8. Children have an enormous appetite for learning.
.....

9. This is the meaty part of the paper which needs a lot of effort to be digested.
.....

10. I do not prefer this book. It has raw facts.
.....

11. A: Where is Tom?
.....

B: You can find him in the library, he is a voracious reader.
.....

12. He is one smart cookie.
.....

13. The banks are devouring the public money.
.....

14. Now you can see how it feels to have someone call you names! You are getting a taste of your own medicine.
.....

15. He has a sour temper.
.....

Thank You

Appendix B

English Writing Test

It is said that 'learning English at the Community College of Qatar is a piece of cake'.
Comment on this saying referring to the following concepts:

- Materials you study.
- Your colleagues in the department.
- The character of your professors.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Can an Oral Test Change Teachers' and Students' Strategies and Materials?

Ahmed Chaouki Hoadjli

University of Mohamed Kheider, Biskra, Algeria

Abstract

This paper aims to provide EFL teachers in the Algerian secondary schools practical insights to overcome the array of anomalies present in their teaching and assessment practices that resulted in negative effects on their outcomes. In order to achieve this objective, an oral test was incorporated in the developed achievement tests. The oral test was put into practice on a selected sample that consisted of eight EFL teachers and classes in the Biskra region. In the investigation, a qualitative study was carried out, employing observation as a data collection method. The number of sessions observed was estimated to 55 during one school year. In order to minimize the differences in observation and make teaching comparable, only four observed classes were used in this study. To collect and analyse data, the researcher opted for the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT). Procedures for data analysis consisted in global viewing of the lessons, general coding of all the observed lessons, sorting and putting the interaction patterns into the observation schedule, and providing detailed description of the organization structures. In terms of the analysis of findings, this study had revealed that the incorporated, oral test had had interesting effects on teachers' teaching strategies and materials.

Key words: EFL classes, language assessment, oral Test, teaching materials, teaching strategies

1. Study Background

In this study, an analysis of the Algerian teachers' and students' practices in EFL classes generated a number of interesting findings in relation to classroom assessment, and its effects on relevant learning strategies and materials. Specifically, teachers' claims are in agreement with the negative views expressed by students. That is, the testing instruments used to assess their attainment and progress in English language have a constraining and distorting influence on the content and methodology of teaching this foreign language, as well as on its learning.

The majority of the Algerian teachers believe that the current used assessment tools influenced the content of their teaching and classroom assessment. This means that those adopting these testing tools paid more attention to grammar and vocabulary. And, they also focused only on some written sub-skills, neglecting totally to teach and assess the oral skill throughout the school year. This practice would have encouraged teachers to use non-communicative methodology in ordinary classes, which markedly contrasts with the underlying principles of the adopted teaching methodology that prelude communicative teaching.

According to the atmosphere that reigned in almost all the secondary schools in EFL classes in Algeria, whole class activities dominate in all the classes. This suggests a fairly traditional method where the teacher is in charge of the events in the classroom. Whole class activities mainly consist of the teachers' interaction with one or several students, very rarely students get to lead the activity. This is a common feature for all the classes in the study. Similarly, individual work is not common in those class activities and a total dominance of the teacher talk, instead of the interaction between teacher and student, and student with student.

Equally so, this reality regarding the teacher teaching and the students learning strategies significantly indicated that these strategies suggested that there is a negative influence of the used assessment instruments on the oral skills expected to be developed by the students. This fact is evident in the claims made by teachers themselves that the scarcity of work in speaking is due to that they do not emphasise on that skill in class. In addition, evidence on teachers' practice shows that teaching materials used have an impact on the methods teachers use. That is, one of the reasons that they do not employ communicative methodology in their classes is because of the nature of the pedagogical materials employed.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Nature of Speaking

To display the nature of speaking skill, Luoma (2004) discusses the speaking ability from two perspectives: providing a linguistic description and considering the interactive and social features.

From a linguistic perspective, the special nature of spoken grammar and vocabulary are emphasised on. Spoken grammar implies that speech is organised into short idea units, which are linked together by thematic connectors and repetitions, as well as syntactic connectors. Spoken vocabulary includes fully comprehensive words in speaking situations since the correspondent words talk about people, things, or activities that can be seen or because they are familiar to the speaker. On the same idea, Roger (2005) identifies the major characteristics of spoken language. For him, the spoken language contains simpler utterances with more context related features.

This kind of language is also referred as frequent use of the vernacular, interrogative, tails, adjacency pairs and question tags which Cameron (2001) and Carter et al. (2000) interpret as dialogue facilitators. McCarthy and O'Keeffe (2004) and Humston (2002) talk rather about utterances that are prefabricated formulaic sequences. For Schmitt (2002) and McCarthy (1998), these utterances can be retrieved and used immediately during spontaneous instances of dialogues.

In the same vein, Brown and Yule (1983) provide an interesting interpretation on the nature of the speaking skill. They distinguish between spoken and written language (cited in Nunan, 1989: 26-27). All written language is characterised by well-formed sentences; whereas, spoken language consists of sentences, often fragmentary utterances, in a range of pronunciation.

2.2 Assessing the Speaking Skill

When assessing the speaking skill, literature indicates that important criteria have to be taken into consideration. First, there is a need to begin with the identification of the purpose, or purposes, the test should realise. Bygate (2001) acknowledges truth that generally the purpose of testing speaking is to yield an accurate judgment of how test takers carry out successful conversation, involving both of comprehension and speech production.

The second criterion is to grasp well the sub-skills that make-up the speaking skill. These mainly concern the ability to use fluency sub-skills, such as coping strategies, interactive management, negotiation of meaning, and discourse management. The third criterion is to define as clearly as possible the instruction. Underhill (1992) sees that, "clear instructions are crucial; otherwise test takers will test familiarity with the test procedures and not the test takers' performance in that skill" (p. 40).

The last criterion to consider while assessing speaking is to perform the test in a suitable environment. According to Zhao (1998), there are two factors that can affect test takers' oral performance, one being of their failure to find suitable words to express themselves and the other being their fear of making mistakes. Underhill (1992) corroborates this assumption and advocates that truly successful speaking test should present a human approach. That is, a test developer has to make testing a challenge, instructive, and even an enjoyable experience.

2.3 Designing Speaking Tasks

In designing speaking tasks, test developers claim one of the key decisions is to ask the question, "what will the speakers do with language". In other words, this means to elicit exact nature of the speaking task. Literature indicates that ways of arrangements are essential to provide well-designed speaking tasks. A general consideration sees the design of these tasks in this way. First, individual, or one-to-one interviews are those types of testing techniques that enable to assess students individually. Its advantage is that it is flexible since its correspondent questions can be adapted to each student's performance. In addition, this technique can allow the test developer a good control over what happens in the test.

Second, the speaking skill can be performed through pair tasks. Swain (2001) mentions that there are three arguments in favour of this technique. The first is to include more types of talk and therefore broaden the evidence gathered about the student's skills. The second argument

has to do with the relationship between testing and teaching, either in the sense to influence teaching, or as to encourage more pair work in class. The third argument is economical since testing in pairs enables teachers to reduce the amount of time for the test.

Third, it is to arrange tasks through group interaction. Fulcher (1996) claims that interactional tasks are frequently welcomed and generally well received by students since such a type of testing usually makes students able to say more about the matter they are tested in, and thus enables them to appear willing to communicate efficiently. The final way to assess speaking can be realised through pedagogic tasks, or real-life situation. Such tasks are those which simulate language outside the classroom. Their main advantage is that they can generate some fairly genuine social interaction. This often leads to avoid artificiality.

3. A Rationale for the Incorporated Oral Test

Given the conclusion discussed and reached before, the researcher has found it essential to set some guidelines to remedy the number of anomalies pinpointed in the assessment practices of EFL teachers in the Algerian secondary school. These mainly concern the following adjustments:

- the incorporation of an oral test in the achievement test,
- the revision and enrichment of the test methods,
- a creation of a balance in the distribution of test-items and test tasks in the test,
- a review of the instructions, and
- the development of a more consistent scoring scale.

In what follows, some crucial components about what a test developer has to consider when designing a useful oral test is going to be displayed. In brief, these major components include the following:

3.1. Objectives

The categorisation of the objectives to assess speaking relies on three fundamental types:

- a. Informational purposes
- b. Interactional purposes
- c. Purposes in managing interaction

3.2. Types of Materials

The types of materials to testing this skill should correspond with tasks, such as:

- a. Presentation
- b. Discussion
- c. Conversation
- d. Interview

3.3. Possible Methods

Potential test methods to testing this skill include examples as follows:

- a. Verbal essay
- b. Oral presentation
- c. Information transfer
- d. Interaction tasks

4. The Study

This study discusses whether the incorporation of an oral test had any effects on teachers' and students' uses of learning strategies and materials. The methodology used in this research aimed to capture the reality, variation, and complexity of changes in classroom practice of the participants.

4.1. Research Aims and Questions

This research had the potential aims of gathering evidence in order to:

- Identify the aspect of teachers' behaviours in the classroom as a reaction to the incorporation of an oral test. These included:
 - Teachers' reactions towards, and perceptions of, the new test;
 - Teachers' materials; and
 - Teachers' attitudes towards aspects of learning.
- Display students' reactions towards, perceptions of, the oral test. These included:
 - Students' learning context;
 - Students' attitudes towards aspects of learning; and
 - Students' perceptions of the achievement tests that incorporated the oral test

Based on the problematic and these research aims, the research questions in this investigation were formulated as follows:

RQ1. What is the scope of influence of the oral test on teaching strategies?

RS2. What is the scope of influence of the oral test on teaching materials?

4.2. Methodology

4.2.1. Research Approach

A qualitative approach was employed in this study. In specific terms, such a type of approach seeks to appertain to probe the perceptions of, attitudes towards, and opinions regarding the subject under investigation.

4.2.2. Research Strategies

A research strategy is a plan of actions to achieve a specific goal (Denscombe, 2010). In the current study, two research strategies were employed: A case study and ethnography.

First, a case study is a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle (Nisbet - & Watt, 1984). In other words, it is the study of an instance in action (Adelman et al., 1980). In our study, the choice of this research strategy is justified by the idea that the latter allows the provision of an in-depth, complex, and thick description of all the participants.

Second, an ethnography strategy is an inquiry in which the researcher studies a group in a natural setting by collecting observational data with the aim of getting an in-depth understanding of how individuals make sense of their lived reality (Creswell, 2009; Hesse-Biber - & Leavy, 2006).

4.2.3. Population and Research Sample

The population in this study included six secondary schools from fifteen in the Biskra region (Algeria). These six secondary schools comprised 35% of the whole population, eight EFL classes were selected to take part in the investigation. All these classes were from the

second year level. The rationale for this choice was to avoid examination classes where in exam pressure is usually present.

In precise terms, eight teachers and classes were observed. The number of sessions observed was estimated to 55 during one school year. In order to minimize the difference in observation to make teaching more comparable, only four classes were used for the final study.

4.2.4. Data Collection Method

An observation research is indispensable to collect systematically information about what the researcher observed in the classrooms. In this study, the researcher opted for the Communication Orientation of Language Teaching, (COLT), as a data collection method. In terms of structure, The COLT scheme is divided into two parts, labelled A and B (Spada - & Frohlic, 1995). Part A describes classroom events. In part B, there is focus on verbal exchange between the teacher and students

For analysis, each activity is timed so that a calculation of the percentage of time spent on the COLT features can be determined. The use of check marks of those features describing the activity makes it possible to get an overall picture of each event in the classroom.

In our study, Part A of the COLT was employed since a classroom analysis at the level of our study sought to describe whether there is communication between teacher and students, with students. Part B was not adopted because the nature of the investigation is not on the language issue (see **Table 1**).

Table 1: Classroom Observation Scheme in this Study

Time	Participant organization		Activity type	Activity content	Material used					
	Whole group	individual			Type			Purpose		
	T to S/C	S to S/C			W W	A	V	P	S	N

T to S/C: Teacher to students or class as a whole

S to S/C: Students to students or class as a whole

W: Written

A: Audio

V: Visual

P: Pedagogical

S: Semi-Pedagogical

N: Non-Pedagogical

In practical terms, the observation scheme consisted in five categories: Time, Participant Organization, Activity Content, Activity Type, and Material Used. To put this scheme into practice, the researcher proceeded to code the categories. The researcher had to tick under Participant Organization and Materials Used during the observation.

To pilot and validate this observation instrument, the researcher scheduled arranged sessions in advance with EFL teachers. It is worth mentioning that these teachers were not part of the final sample in this research. They volunteered to co-attend the observation sessions with the researcher during the pilot stage. Their presence was to compare the field notes they took with those taken by the principal researcher. At the end, the observation scheme for this study was kept as it was without any modifications.

4.2.5. Data Collection Procedure

Before attending the observation sessions, the researcher informed the observed teachers that his presence was to sit in the back and observe what is happening in the classroom and take notes. He had not to intervene or make comments. In this way, he was a non-participant observer.

5. Results and Discussion

The following Section in this paper reports the findings of four from eight teachers observed in this study.

4.3. Participant Organization

Table 2 Participant Organization on Lesson

Number of Teacher	Percentage of lesson time				Total
	Whole class T. to S/C	Whole class	Group	Individual	
T1	65%	00%	25%	10%	100%
T2	65%	00%	25%	10%	100%
T3	25%	05%	50%	20%	100%
T4	50%	05%	35%	10%	100%

The findings from the observed classes in this study indicate crucial comments. Three from the four teachers (**T1, T2 and T4**) spent the majority of class time teaching to the whole class since the calculated time from these teachers is estimated to be equal or more than the total time of class work. Individual work is still low although there is a slight increase devoted to that category of work in comparison to what was prevailing before the incorporation of the oral test. The rationale behind spending a considerable amount of class time talking to the whole class is that it is difficult for the teachers to get rid of their practices where they dominated class discussion. In the mean time, the same group of teachers showed a great resistance towards change and innovation from a total dominance to activities where most of the work is carried out in groups or individuals

However, it is worth mentioning that among these teachers **T3** seems to be an exception since this observed teacher succeeded to reduce the time spent for the whole class discussion to

devote much of the work to group activities. Unlike the three teachers, she spent **25%** of her class time only to whole discussion. **50%** of the time is spent to group work, and **20%** to individual tasks. It seems that the purpose of this change towards group and individual works was to provide students with practice opportunities. For her, it is believed that group work helped students learn from each other and gave them more practice opportunities, especially the oral.

4.4. Activity Types and Content as Percentage of Class

The analysis of the observed lessons with four teachers in **Table 3** showed **(a)** what types of activities were carried out in the lesson and **(b)** who was holding the floor and in what ways.

Table 3 Classroom Activities for all the Four Observed Teachers as a Percentage of Class Time

Activity type	T1	T2	T3	T4
Teacher activities:				
Lecturing	20%	20%	05%	20%
Explaining	25%	15%	10%	20%
Directing	20%	15%	00%	10%
Student activities				
Listening	00%	05%	05%	05%
Reading	05%	05%	00%	05%
Speaking	05%	05%	05%	05%
Writing	00%	05%	00%	05%
Grammar	15%	15%	05%	05%
Vocabulary	05%	05%	05%	05%
Group work	05%	00%	50%	10%
Pair work	00%	05%	10%	05%
Oral work	05%	05%	05%	05%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

It could be seen that **T1** was still the predominant focus of the class. **65%** of the lesson time was spent in teaching activities. The remaining **35%** was spent on reading texts, explaining grammar and some oral tasks. For **T2** and **T4**, **50%** of the lesson time was dominated by the teacher activities: lecturing, explaining and directing. The findings in **T2's** and **T4's** showed that there is a slight interest in students' activities. With **T2** even though grammar activities took **15%** of lesson time, pair work, and oral practice shared another **15%**. For **T4**, the same activities were estimated to be **20%**, keeping in mind that this increase in these activities was estimated to the results observed before the incorporation of the oral test.

Contrary to **T1**, **T2** and **T4**, **T3** significantly focused on the student activities. In precise terms, only **15%** of the lesson time was devoted to teacher activities. This directly implies that the teacher reduced the time that the other teachers made in total or partial control of teaching. Instead, **T3** spent **85%** of lesson time to the students' activities. The big amount of this time on this particular student activity is estimated to be **50%**. Obviously, this result indicates that the teacher's strategy has turned from teacher-centred to learner-centred approach. In itself, this is a good indication of communicative teaching. Similar to this finding, **T3** spent **10%** of her time to oral work, this means that through this activity, this teacher encouraged her students to

participate and interact using English language. The remaining time is shared by the other activities, such as listening, speaking, and pair work.

To summarize the findings from **Table 3**, a cross-comparison of the percentage of the time on students' activities in the lessons observed after the implementation of the oral test showed that there was an increase in the time devoted to student activities. Certainly, the results differed from one teacher to another; nonetheless, it seems that the majority of the teachers involved in this study worked to make their lessons more interactive and more learner-centred. For these teachers, this new strategy seeks to provide more opportunities to practise English language inside and outside the classroom.

4.5. Teaching Materials

This Section summarizes the findings related to the use for teaching materials in classroom teaching. It was found that the most used material by the four observed teachers was the official textbook. However, it is worth mentioning, in addition to this general finding, other materials were also observed to have been employed by the teachers. For instance, **T3** used PowerPoint and slides while she carried out group work tasks. The students were usually urged to watch an extract from a documentary, often chosen with a great care from multimedia sources like internet, and were asked to fulfill some relevant activities. In the case of these situations, the teacher did the job of a guide, and did not interfere or intervene so much, giving the students freedom to perform what they were asked to do. Thus, it was noticed that the students, reducing the amount of the lesson time given to the teacher, did most of the work. Moreover, the use of multimedia was also part of the listening and speaking activities. Being currently exposed to authentic audio-visual materials aided the students to train their ears to native language; and this itself yielded these students and opportunity to try to speak fluently; other teachers were observed to have used some teaching materials that were mainly adopted in lessons teaching reading and writing.

In short, these findings suggest that the observed teachers most of the time relied on the official textbook, but with a progress in the application of the new, oral test, the teachers began incorporating some other new teaching materials that pertain to the kind of teaching materials that correspond to where less teacher talk, and more oral students practices were involved. This simply means that the new oral test had, to some extent, impacted the teacher's use of relevant materials.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper has discussed and summarized the findings which comprised the investigation conducted after the incorporation of a new oral test. A review of these findings revealed that a positive influence of the new test occurred regarding some teaching and learning aspects, whereas, at the level of some other aspects, the influence was not as significant as it was expected. It is essential to point out that the short period of time of the new model had been in operation, and other external factors hindering the interaction could explain the obtained results. What did result, however, the results of this study have led to a better understanding of what participants think of the oral test, and its effects on teaching strategies, and teaching materials.

About the Author:

Ahmed Chaouki Hoadjli holds a PhD in applied linguistics. He taught English in high school and university in Algeria. He is currently a lecturer at the University of Mohamed Kheider in Biskra (Algeria). His research interests are: ELT, language evaluation and assessment, teacher development, language planning, second language acquisition, ESP, and teacher's epistemic beliefs

References

- Adelman, C. et al. (1980). Rethinking Case Study. In H. Simons (ed.), *Toward a science of singular*. (pp. 45-61). *Centre for Applied Research in Education*, UK: University of Eastern Anglia.
- Bygate, M. (2001). *Speaking*. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (2001), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Cameron, D. (2001). *Working With Spoken Discourse*. London: Sage Publications
- Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods approach*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Denscombe, M. (2010). *The Good Research Guide: for small-scale social research projects*. Maiden-Read: Open University Press.
- Fulcher, G. (1996). Does Thick Description Lead to Smart Test? A data-based approach to rating scale construction, *Language Teaching*, 13 (21), 208-238.
- Fulcher, G. (2003). *Testing Second Language Speaking*: London: Pearson Longman.
- Humston, S. (2002). *Pattern Grammar, Language Teaching, and Linguistic Variation*. In R. Reppens, S. Fitz Maurice & D. Biber, *Using corpora to explore linguistic variation*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing Speaking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M. (1998). *Spoken Language and Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nisbet, J. & Watt, Y. (1984). *Case Study*. In J. Bell, T. Bush, A. Fox, Y. Goodey, & S. Goulding (eds.), *conducting small-scale investigations in educational management* (pp. 79-92). London: Harper and How.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Describing Tasks for Communication Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Roger, A.E.M. (2005). Teaching the Speaking Skill to Japanese Students: construct and practice. Retrieved from: www.kaudagoigo.ac.jp/kvis/aboutus/
- Schmitt, N. (2002). *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. London: Arnold.
- Spada, N. & Frolic, M. (1995). *The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (COLT)*. Sydney, Australia: Mcquari University, the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research (NCELTR).
- Swain, M. (2001). Examining Dialogue: Another approach to content specification and to validating inferences drawn from test scores. *Language Testing*, 18(3), 275-302
- Underhill, N. (1988). How to Motivate Students to Speak. TEFL China. Retrieved from: <http://teflchina.org/teach/speak/>

Positive Attitude and English Language Learning: Psycho-pedagogic Connections

Intakhab Alam Khan

King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah
Saudi Arabia

Abstract

This study's main purpose is to explore the learners' attitude towards education in general, and learning English in particular. It aims to elicit an implicit connection between the learners' and teachers' attitude and the achievement in English. The research is based on the personal experience of the researcher at Jeddah Community College, however the case doesn't much differ from most of the community colleges in Saudi Arabia and other such vocational institutions. The study was descriptive in nature which data were collected through focus group and questionnaires from the college where the researcher teaches as mentioned. The responses of the teachers and students were qualitatively analyses and compared to match with the objectives of the study. The results indicate that the students generally don't possess positive attitude towards learning. Many reasons can be attributed to this behavior. It can be concluded that the positive attitude towards learning target language matters a lot. It is found that there is a positive correlation between attitude towards learning/teaching English and their proficiency in it. It has also been found that in spite of the fact all the necessary equipment and resources are integrated in the pedagogic setting, ultimate language achievement is not up to the expectations of the policy makers and the administrators. Thus, teachers' role is quite crucial in this connection. The findings are likely to be implemented in all those similar institutions that technically as well as academically resemble the sample college.

Keywords: positive attitude, education, vocational education, effective learning, learner motivation, desired achievement

Introduction

Attitude is perhaps the outcome of environmental situation, however certain personality traits can also be related to the specific features of one's attitude. In most of the academic situation, as felt by many practicing teachers, the learners as well teachers' attitude constitute the factors that are directly or indirectly related to the educational outcome.

Psychology of Education

There are certain foundations of education: psychological, sociological and philosophical foundations. Psychological connections with education can't be ignored. It has been noted that most of the applied elements of education have been derived from the discipline of psychology. The most significant components of psychology applied to education are: learning theories, individual differences, intelligence, personality, behavior, developmental aspects, adolescence psychology and so on.

Philosophy of Education

Philosophy and education are two sides of the same coin: philosophy being the theoretical and education-the practical side. However, education also plays an important part in changing the perception of life, consequently leading towards a change in one's philosophy. Though to most people, philosophy is still considered as a metaphysical conceit, it is extremely important to integrate certain philosophical postulates in an educational setting. Education has been viewed extremely important as the following philosophical thought:

- Education for education,
- Education for employment, and
- Education for life.

To some educational thinkers, education is life and life is education. It means education is as important as life, or in other way, there is no life without education. In Islam, the concept has been considered as very important in Islam, and made compulsory to all Muslims: males and females.

If the role and importance of education is not understood by the members of the society the achievement will remain be a dream. The overall importance of education in Islam has been duly emphasized in holy *Qur'an* and *ahadiths* (the noble traditions of the last prophet (PBUH), and positive support and promotion by the government of Saudi Arabia, the achievement is not up to the desired level.

The idea of 'attitude' is conceived by having perspectives of psychology and philosophy. In the process of education or even in a setting of business, attitude plays a significant role. To put more precisely the significance of attitude and related factors, in the terms of business and marketing, the product is in demand, the industry is rising, the finance is appropriate, the marketing strategies are employed, the salesmen are hired from all around the globe, but the product is not being sold, and the buyers are not motivated or interested in buying. But, the question is: why?

Are the buyers not aware of the product, or they think it is useless. Such questions lead to many interpretation and conclusion which the researchers as well as the government officials are

trying to find out. The present study is a modest attempt towards the most crucial issue of education as to why the learners don't possess the positive attitude towards education in general.

The Present Study

The study was carried out in one of the colleges of King Abdulaziz university-Jeddah, KSA where students are enrolled in the preparatory year of English. The English curriculum in general is designed to provide and strengthen the level of English with which the learner can pursue further education in the discipline of their interest. The level of education in Saudi is mainly divided into: primary, secondary and tertiary. English is taught in the primary school when the target learners are around 13/14 years of the age. Students having completed secondary schools are supposed to have in their background around six academic years of studying English. And, this is the entry point of tertiary education. English is pursued as a major subject as a part of foundation year program in almost all the community/ technical/ industrial/ engineering/ medical/ health /management colleges. Saudi Arabia, being the centre of Islam practices and focuses Arabic as the medium of general communication, business and religion. But, in recent year, a due focus has been given on the achievement of English as the government realises the power of English as lingua franca, international understanding and global business. Thus, the government is not leaving any stone unturned in making an attempt to popularise and achieve the maximum level possible. The time has come to study as to the factor like attitude is influential. And, if it is so whether the teachers also have positive attitude towards changing the attitude of the learners, and teach them as per the need.

Significance of 'Attitude' in Education

Like many other behavioural elements, 'Attitude' is one of the most important features of one's personality. It includes psychological, emotional and behavioural aspects. It leads to the level of involvement in some expected human activities. Attitude can be operationally defined as the way an individual looks at things/activities. It expresses the type of mood one has, and interprets a person's saying and action.

Attitude has been identified as one of the most crucial factors in learning a foreign language. It plays a major role in arousing students' interest and motivation to learn. Though many investigators exerted their efforts to research issues related to an EFL context, Gardner (1985) is a landmark work that provided the actual platform for many researchers to undertake studies that fall under the category of motivation and attitude. The researcher opines attitudes as a component of motivation in language learning. According to him, 'motivation includes favourable attitudes towards learning the language. He further says that learning a foreign language is determined by the learner's attitude towards foreign people in general, and the target group and language in particular.

From many other studies, a few as mentioned here confirm the effect of attitude on language achievement such as Buschenhofen (1998) Pritchard & Nasr (2004), Joseba (2005), Sidek, Ramachandran & Ramakrishan (2006), Hui (2007), Venkatraman & Prema (2007). In this connection, for example, Pendergrass et al (2001) point out that English is a part of engineering education and, therefore, integrating English enables the level to rise the proficiency of technology or engineering students especially in communication" (p. 1).

Poor achievement in English may be attributed to several social and psycholinguistic factors as noted by McDonough (1983) and Ellis (2008) as a key factor which affect the process of learning a foreign language (English). More specifically, McDonough (1983, p.142) states that “motivation of the students is one of the most crucial variables that tend to exert a crucial impact on the successful learning”. As there exists a close connection between motivation and attitude it has been advised not to ignore these in the pedagogic domain of language research in particular. Researchers state that “the learner motivation is considered to be determined by his attitudes. (Gardner & Lambert (1972, p.3).

In addition, (Lifrieri, 2005, p.14) affirms that “a proper and positive attitude is imperative for achievement in language learning. Therefore, it is inevitable to possess an appropriate understanding of motivation and attitude of the students. (Gardner & Lambert (1972) and Midraj (1998, 2003).

It is advised that that the textbook writers design and evolve that material that ensures to serve the purpose and method of learning. In addition, the teachers also succeeds in imparting the knowledge and skills to grab right amount of learning motivation to pursue courses of English. (Midraj et al, 2008).

The following is an abstract of those studies which contextually fit in the given Arabic context. Authors (Al-Quyadi, 2000 and Al-Tamimi & Munir, 2008) have carried out a study in the area of students’ attitudes and motivation in Yemen. On the other hand, the following issues were focused by (Malallah, 2000).

However, Suleiman (1993) boldly points out that Arab students have not been given the opportunity to assess their own needs, motivation and attitudes while the study conducted by Karahan (2007) explore high school and first-year students’ attitudes. A study conducted in Turkey (Lafaye & Tsuda, 2002) explore the dissatisfaction expressed by parents, teachers, administrators and the learners themselves about their low proficiency levels in English. Yet another study (Crockett, 1990) concludes several contradictions in the questionnaire results, the most pertinent one being that the students stated that their interest in English was strong and yet they did not like studying it and were unhappy with their proficiency in it. Thus, the findings of the quoted researches provide a significant theoretical base for the present research to proceed further.

Factors associated with ‘attitude’

There are many factors that constitute the ‘attitude’ of an individual learner. The following are some of them: -social background, -lack of vision, -no proper guidance/counseling, -indifferent parental attitude, -economic security, -less competitive nature- carefree life style, -lack of job opportunities, -less employment due to foreigner’s dominance etc.

Many attempts have so far been made to investigate as to what are the factors responsible for making a positive or negative attitude in general and learning in particular. The most important of all could be a careless attitude towards the life itself that doesn’t positively affect the learner to do anything. Youngsters are generally found as careless even in putting their life in danger in the form of reckless driving. Thus, education as a target of life is also taken casually by most of the Saudi young learners.

The Research Design***Statement of the present research***

Based on the above review, it may be concluded that 'attitude' is extremely important for the learners to achieve the target. A desired level of attitude may be found in a person, the same can be further developed by him, his parents, friends, family, social pressure and most importantly by the teachers. Sometimes, at the tertiary level, the creation of an attitude is very challenging, however, even a moderate change will be quite helpful. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate students' attitudes towards English, and learning English in relation to the achievement. In addition, it also aims to explore the teacher's attitude towards teaching English, and changing the attitude the target learners. The present study attempts to find answers to the following questions:

1. What kind of attitude do the target learners have towards English language and its learning?
2. Is there a correlation between students' attitude towards learning English and their achievement in English?
3. What is the teachers' attitude towards teaching and changing the attitude of the learners of English?

Research tools***The Focus Group***

In the present study, focus group (the students) has been used to study the attitude towards learning English in general. The group is 'focused' in the sense that it involves some kind of collective activity - simply debating a particular set of questions.

Focus groups are distinguished from the broader category of group interviews by 'the explicit use of the 'interaction' among some people in order to collect data (Morgan, 1988) and Basch (1987). Focus groups are of no latest origin. They are first mentioned as a market research technique in the 1920s (Bogardus (1926) and Frazer (1987), who are considered genuinely as innovating the concept of the 'focused interview'(Morgan, 1988).

Teachers Questionnaires

In order to study the teachers' attitude, the researcher developed a questionnaire which was administered to study/ elicit data on teachers' attitude/perception towards learners' attitude towards education/learning. The teachers are smart enough. As a result, in their responses, they may be a disparity between theory and practice. Therefore, the researcher used some projective techniques to analysis as whether X teacher is really motivated to teach, and motivated to develop proper attitude among the target learners. The proper attitude of teaching among teachers can be noticed from the teaching behaviour, and the way they interact with the students. How much time do they spare in their offices as office hours to deal with the individual student's problems?

Informal Interaction or even deliberate brainstorming may lead to the analysis if the teachers are really willing to do their job. Teaching in a college in Saudi generally requires great deal of motivation and creation of proper attitude among the students so that the targets can be accordingly achieved. Or else the teaching remains a formality and the learning is limited to class attendance only.

Establishing Validity

Validity is an important point of consideration in especially experimental researches that technically establishes the amount of systematic or built-in error in measurement (Norland, 1990) with the help of a group of subject experts. In the present context, content validity was applied to assess the validity of the instrument in accordance with the objectives of the study. The following questions were addressed:

1. Does the questionnaire measure the actual aim of the study?
2. Are the items representative of the relevance and scope of the study?
3. Does the instrument include the features of a questionnaire?

Five experts of language teaching and assessment were consulted to ensure the mentioned points above, and the questionnaire was edited according to the comments.

Data Analysis and Interpretation of Results

The focus group items (for students) are divided into three sections. Each section has been analyzed item-wise as under:

Questionnaire used for focus group (Appendix: A)

Section-1: Attitude towards education

Based on the responses of the learners, it was found that:

- 1- Only 30 from 89 learners were sure of the importance of education.
- 2- 31 students told that they come because they were told to come to college.
- 3- Only 29 were aware of the relevance of education in life/job,
- 4- Only 17 were actually aware of the positive side of education,
- 5- Only 8 students were known to the difference between an educated and uneducated.

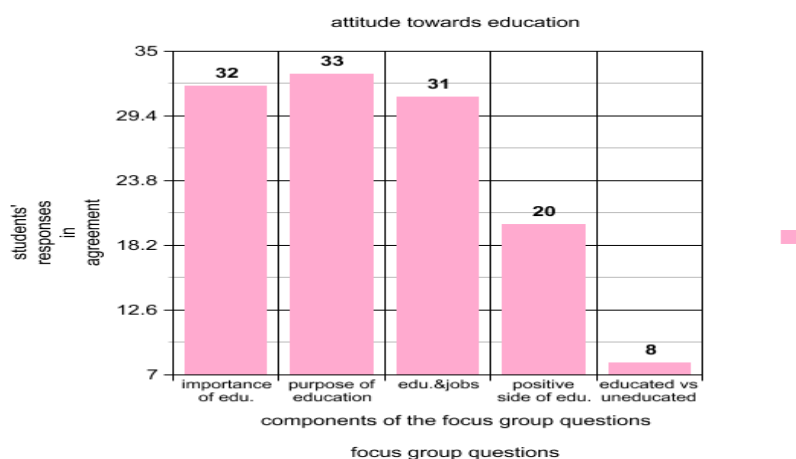


Figure 1. Students' attitude towards Education

Section II: Attitudes towards learning English

Item wise Analysis:

Item-1

On the basis 78 % (70/89) of the response, it was analysed that learning English is not easy for most of the learners. There are many reasons of the difficulties faced by them: background, lack of interaction, moral support and lack of proper attitude itself.

Item-2

Almost 51% (46/89) students like English. They have desire to learn. Some have developed positive attitude towards English as a language, but, rest of them remain passive as if the language has been forced on them.

Item-3

Analysis: This item has a mixed response. Around 39% (35/89) are of the opinion that English is a very important language. It is one means for getting high profile job and income. The other group says it is not our language so why should one learn.

Item-4

75% (67/89) of them say they don't want to learn this language, but there is no option. But, a few of them say that it is enjoyable, and one can learn it easily. Almost all know that English is a necessity now as without it, it is quite difficult to develop in the present time. All activities related to day to day business, communication, political relation, science-technology is linked to the international means of communication, and it is none other than English.

Item-5

65/89 (70%) of them say that in near future, English will become more important and compulsory so no need to motivate youngster to learn it. There won't be any choice if one wants to develop as a whole. But, Arabic should not lose its importance as it is the language of Arabic culture.

Item-6

(72/89) 80% of the responses were very short. Perhaps they didn't know whether to blame their schooling and their attitudes towards English. But, some of them clearly said that English was not a focused subject at secondary school level.

Item-7

76/89 (84 %) blamed the teaching at school level. Some of them talked about irregular presence of some of the teachers. The teaching was based on cramming of a few chosen words, and the same words used to appear in the tests and exams. And, the teaching of English was over.

Item-8

30/89 (33%) students (mostly good ones) said that the way teaching is done in the college is far better than the school teaching. The teachers there were quite lenient for attendance. Homework was not given. Teachers did not involve students in discussions. The previous teachers used to translate important words and that's all. The teaching in the school was not done with computers, and internet was not used to explain things.

Item-9

25/89 (28%) Some of the responses show that quite a few of them have opportunities to practice, therefore, even if they have attitude to use English, they could not. Most of the respondents are first generation learners of English. Therefore, proper home environment for practising English is missing. As regards markets, in certain situations, the customers and the dealers/sellers share in Arabic, because in most cases if the Saudi consumer is not able to speak English, and the seller is considerably good in Arabic.

Item-10

Eighty eight (88%) of the students are of the opinion that they are not ashamed of speaking English. However, it is noticed that they are quite hesitant in taking initiative to engage in any conversation.

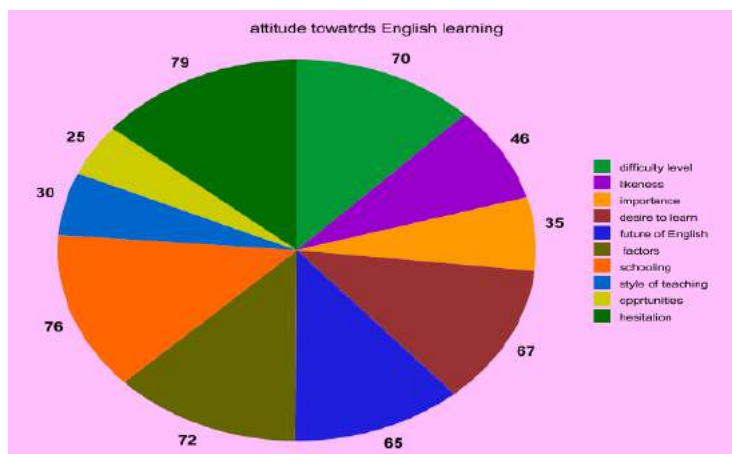


Figure 2. Students' attitude towards English Language learning

Section III: Self- learning

Item-1- The respondents say that can read the text, but they usually take help from dictionary to understand meanings.

Item-2- They can understand their notes in English to some extent, therefore, translation is needed to further facilitate.

Item-3- They face difficulties in understanding the lectures of the native English speakers especially when they don't grasp the accent.

Item-4- Most of them feel that teaching should be facilitated through Arabic because sometimes explanations are necessarily required.

Item-5- Most learners compare their overall proficiency in English to other students in your class and find quite of the same level.

Item-6- Many of them say that after finishing the foundation year, they will be able to read, write and speak functional English.

Item-7- Around 70-80% of the respondents will try to get in the job while remaining will try to go for higher education especially abroad sooner or later.

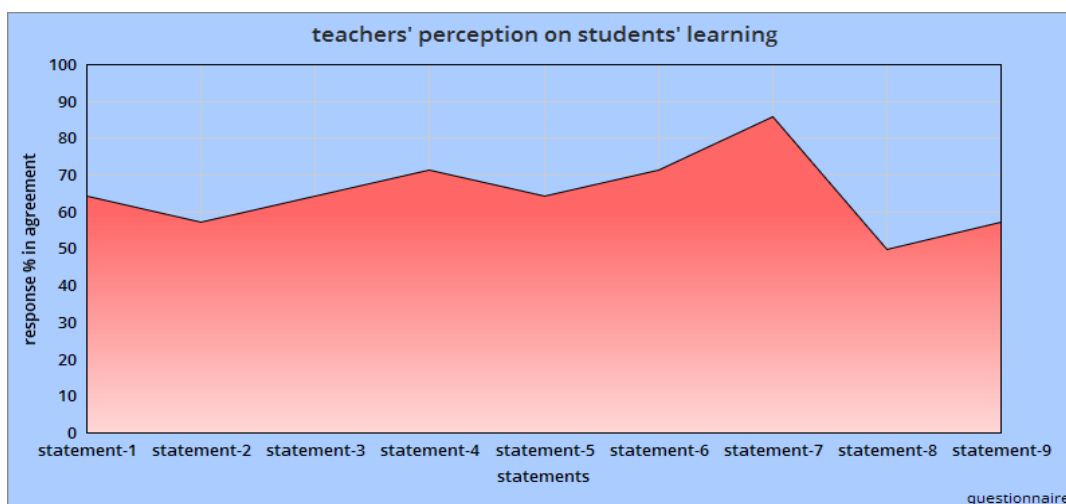
Item-8- Some of them watch English movies, listen to cassettes etc to improve their proficiency in English outside of the college. They can understand especially the American accent.

Analysis of the questionnaires (for teachers)

On the basis of the data elicited from the questionnaires of the teachers, it was found: Most students are disinterested in education in general. No significant factor was noticed which could enforce the learners to think positively about the educational attainments. It was confirmed that the background of the learners was a contributing factor to the negative attitude towards education in general and English in particular.

In addition, it was found that they have no vision for their future career except getting money and live a luxurious life. They are not used to hard work or hardships. Self-learning is completely missing.

The students hardly attend classes, do the formalities, and don't focus on learning in any situation other than classroom activities, and that too seems a compulsion. Some of the students are found interested in using English, but they can't as they lack the proficiency level. Some teachers are of the opinion that the attitude of the learners can't be changed in any way.



Graph3. Teachers' perception on the attitude of the learners

Discussion

Teaching of English in Saudi Arabia or any where in the world can't be a success unless both the teachers and learners are properly motivated toward attaining the pre-determined goals. The motivation of the learners can be dealt with by either employing positive or negative reinforcement. In other words, incentives and human relation approach can be proved to be an appropriate motivation strategy for accomplishment of the aims. But, when it comes to the issue of the students, it becomes quite challenging because they may not be motivated by any means unless they are self-motivated for some reasons. The results show that the level of attitude towards learning English is missing among many students. Many reasons can be attributed to such an attitude: their vision, parental indifferent attitude, the life style, lack of job opportunities etc. However, it can't be denied that teachers are the motivating force, and they should keep on trying their level best to motivate the students. The teachers should also express their motivation level in the classroom to inspire the learners, it is quite difficult, though.

Conclusion

It was concluded that the students don't possess positive attitude towards education in general. The issue of attitude becomes more crucial in the case of learning of English due to many reasons. There are multiple reasons due to which students are generally disinterested in learning as a whole. The philosophy of life, job aspiration, dignified life style are all missing

from the personality of most of the students, and this affects negatively the attitude of the teachers as well.

Implication

The study supports the theory that the students' attitudes towards English and towards learning English are quite positive. Therefore, it can be said that if the target students achieve less grades than expected in exams or seem less effective in using English, the students' attitudes seem to be quite influential among many other factors. The study reveals that the poor background of English, the fear of making grammatical mistakes; lack of confidence and peer support lead to less performance. Consequently, the role of teachers becomes significant in the process of developing positive attitude for learning and using the target language.

Suggestions For Further Research

A piece of research answers a few questions only, and leave associated questions for further research. Having done the present research, it is felt that many other empirical researchers can be conducted to prove the theory that attitude leads to effective learning especially in the context of Saudi English learning situations.

About the Author:

Dr. Intakhab Alam Khan, an educationist, teacher, researcher and author from New Delhi-India, is presently a teaching faculty at King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah-Saudi Arabia. An author of 12 books and around 65 papers in different international online and print journals Dr Khan is an honorary chief editor/associate editor/asst. editor of many online international educational journals

References

- Al-Quyadi, A. M. A. (2000). *Psycho-sociological variables in the learning of English in Yemen: A case study of the English specialists in the Faculties of Education in Sana'a University*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Department of Post-Graduate Studies and Research in English, T. M. Bhagalpur University, Bhagalpur).
- Al-Tamimi, A., & Munir S. (2008). The English language curriculum for petroleum Engineering students at Hadhramout university of science and technology. In Basturkmen, H. (1998). Refining procedures: a needs analysis projects at Kuwait university. *English Teaching Forum*, 36 (4), 2-9.
- Basch, C. (1987) Focus group interview: an underutilized research technique for improving theory and practice in health education. *Health Education Q.* 14, 411-48.
- Bogardus, E. (1926). The group interview, *Applied Sociology*, 10, 372-82.
- Buschenhofen, P. (1998) English language attitudes of Final- Year High School and First Year University students in Papua, New Guinea. *AJELT*, 8, 93-116.
- Crockett, S., Heller, K., Merkel, J. & Peterson, J. (1990) Assessing beliefs of older rural Americans about nutrition education: *Use of the focus group approach*. American Dietetic Association, 90, 563-7.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford : Oxford University Press
- Frazer, E. (1987). Teenage girls reading of Jackie, *Media Culture and Society*, 9, 407-25.

- Gardner, R., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitude and Motivation*. London: Edward
- Hui, Z. (2007). Teaching Technical English to Engineering Students. *Sino- US English Teaching*, 4 (9). (Online) Retrieved on 11 August, 2009 from <http://www.linguist.org.cn/doc/su200709/su20070910.pdf>
- Joseba, M. (2005). Student Engineers, ESP Courses, and Testing with Cloze Tests. *ESP World*, 2 (10).
- Karahan, F. (2007). Language attitudes of Turkish students towards the English language and its use in Turkish context. *Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 7 May, 73-87.
- Lafaye, B. E. & Tsuda, S. (2002). Attitudes towards English Language Learning in Higher Education in Japan, and the Place of English in Japanese Society. *Intercultural Communication Studies XI*: 3, PP 145- 161.
- Lifrieri, V. (2005). *A Sociological Perspective on Motivation to learn EFL: The case of escuelas plurilingües in Argentina*. M. Athesis, University of Pittsburgh. http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_6943/is_/ai_n28532842
- Malallah, Seham. (2000). English in an Arabic Environment: Current Attitudes to English among Kuwait University Students. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 3: 1, 19-43.
- McDonough, S. (1983). *Psychology in Foreign Language Teaching*. George Allen & Unwin: London.
- Midraj, S. (1998). ESL Students' Attitudes and Communicative Competence. Ph.D thesis, Terre Haute, Indiana State University.
- Midraj, S. (2003). Affective factors and ESL learning. In C. Coombe, P. Davidson, & D. Lloyd (Eds.). *Proceedings of the 5th and 6th current trends in English language testing* (pp. 19-32).
- Midraj, S., Midraj, J., O'Neill, G. & Sellami, A. (2008). The affective factors and English language attainment of Arab EFL learners. *International Journal of Applied Educational Studies*. (Online) Retrieved 26 October http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_6943/is_/ai_n28532842
- Morgan, D. (1988) *Focus Groups as Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- Norland-Tilburg, E. V. (1990). Controlling error in evaluation instruments. *Journal of Extension*, [On-line], 28(2). Available at <http://www.joe.org/joe/1990summer/tt2.html>
- Pendergrass, N., Kowalczyk, R., Dowd, J., & Laoulache, R. (2001). Improving first-year engineering education. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 90 (1), 33-41.
- Pritchard, M & Nasr, A. (2004). Improving reading performance among Egyptian engineering students: principles and practices. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23 (4), 425-445.
- Sidek, S., Ramachandran, S., & Ramakrishnan, R. (2006). From students to students: adapting technical reports as classroom materials. In Mukundan, J. (Ed) *Focus on ELT materials*: (pp. 152-163). Kuala Lumpur: Pearson Malaysia Sdn. Bhd.
- Suleiman, Mahmoud F. (1993) A Study of Arab Students' Motivations and Attitudes for Learning English as a Foreign Language. ERIC, ED392279. Dissertation. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/> 15/1/2010

Venkatraman, G., & Prema, P. (2007). English language skills for engineering students: A needs survey. *ESP World*, 3 (16). (Online) Retrieved 26 August, 2009 from http://www.espworld.info/Articles_16/Skills.htm

Appendixes

Appendix-A: Questions used for Focus Group (the learners)

Section:1-Attitude towards Education

- 1- Do you think education is important?
- 2- Why do you think you should come to college?
- 3- In what ways does education help you in your life?
- 4- Does education bring any changes in you?
- 5- Is there any difference between an educated and uneducated?

Section 2: Attitudes towards learning English

1. Is Learning English easy for you?
2. Do you like English?
3. Is Learning English important at this time?
4. Why do you want to learn if it is very difficult?
5. Would you like your younger brothers and children learn this language?
6. Do you find English difficult because you did not have interest in schools?
7. Do you think your teachers in schools were not good enough?
8. Do you find any differences in teaching between schools and this college?
9. Do you ever speak English at home or markets?
10. Are you ashamed of using English?

Section III: self learning

1. Can you read newspaper in English?
- 2- Can you understand your notes in English?
- 3- Do you face any difficulties in following the native English speakers?
- 4- Would you like a teacher to teach you in Arabic?
5. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in English to other students in your class?
6. After finishing the foundation year, will you be able to read, write and speak functional English?
7. What is your future academic goal?
8. What kind of activities do you do to improve your English outside of the college?

Appendix-B: the items in the teachers' questionnaires

- 1- The students are interested in education.
- 2- They don't like learning English.
- 3- Students have no reasons to learn.
- 4- Students' social background affects the level of attitude.
- 5- Parental attitude constitutes the major factor of attitude.
- 6- Students have lack of future vision.
- 7- The students have almost no attitude to use English.
- 8- Self learning mode is completely missing.
- 9- They want to use English, but they fail.

10- There is no way one can develop the learner's level of English.

Appendix-C: Responses of students on the questionnaires

Section-I: Attitude towards Education

1- Yes, it. 2- ...to learn... 3- ...money... 4- not really, but money. 5- I am not sure.

Section II: Attitudes towards learning English

1- No, it is not easy./little difficult/easy 2- Yes, I do. I want to learn it. 3- Yes, it is./ not at all./No, it is not our language. 4. It is needed, now a day, for business and technology. 5. I plan to make sure that my children learn both Arabic and English well. 6. Yes, may be. 7. Yes, some of them. 8. Yes, a lot. Learning at this college is interesting. 9. Sometimes, with brothers/ sisters/ friends. 10. Not always.

Section III: self learning 1. Yes, but I take help from dictionary to understand meanings. 2- To some extent. A translation is needed. 3- Yes, when we don't understand the accent. 4- Yes, sometimes when we need explanations. 5. Almost the same. 6. Let's hope so. 7. I would join a job/ I will go abroad. 8. I watch English movies, listen to cassettes.

Appendix- D: Responses on the teachers' questionnaire

SN	Statements	Agree (in%)	undecided	disagree
1		1 (7.14%)	2	11
2.		9(64.2%)	1	4
3.		8(57.14)	1	5
4.		9(64.2%)	2	3
5.		10(71.4%)	1	3
6.		9(64.2%)	2	3
7.		10(71.4%)	1	3
8.		12(85.7%)	1	1
9.		7(50%)	4	3
10.		8(57.14%)	2	4

The Effect of Jigsaw Strategy on ESL Students' Reading Achievement

Sabah Salman Sabbah

Community College of Qatar
Qatar

Abstract

It is educationally acknowledged that reading is an important skill for acquiring a second language academically. However, it has been noticed that students' results in reading in the Foundation program in the Community College of Qatar (CCQ) are not satisfactory. This study used a quasi-experimental pre-posttest design to investigate the effect of using jigsaw cooperative strategy on ELS students' achievement in reading comprehension. Convenience sampling of the two classes was used from the female students enrolling in Level 4 reading classes in the Foundation Program in the Community College of Qatar in the fourth quarter of the academic year of 2013-2014. It is a non-probability sampling technique where two classes were selected because of their convenient accessibility to the researcher as the researcher was supposed to teach them reading. The two classes were assigned randomly to two groups: the experimental group (n=16 students) which was taught seven units in Real Reading Textbook via the jigsaw strategy and the control group (n=10 students) which was taught via the traditional strategy-no grouping. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOV) was used to analyze students' scores on the posttest. The results revealed significant differences in favor of the experimental group.

Keywords: cooperative learning, English as a second language, jigsaw strategy, and reading teaching techniques

Introduction

Reading is a very important skill in learning a foreign language. The differential success among second language learners and their understanding of reading texts are affected by many factors which include the setting, the teaching strategies and the task, learner's beliefs about language learning, the interaction with other learners, and the mode of teaching. (Ellis 1994; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991; Brown 2000; Oxford 1989; Wharton 2000). There is evidence to suggest that when students cooperatively and collaboratively discuss and share their perspectives about a text, greater understanding is achieved, leading to a greater overall comprehension development (Morrow & Sharkey, 1993). There are many forms of cooperative language strategies used in teaching the skill of reading. A commonly used one is the jigsaw strategy. It consists of a regular instructional cycle of activities that include reading, grouping, regrouping, expert group discussion, team reporting, testing, and finally team recognition (Kagan, 1994). Slavin (1991) stresses that the preceding cycle of instructional activities provides useful opportunities for communicative language practice in a supportive and stress-reduced environment. Along similar lines, Wittrock (1991) concludes that it is important to change students' perception of their roles in learning from one of recording and memorizing information to one of generating understanding by relating concepts to their experiences and to their knowledge base. What Wittrock stresses on is the idea that interactive approach recognizes the importance of both the text and reader's learning characteristics in the reading process.

Furthermore, jigsaw reinforces important cooperative learning elements, such as positive interdependence and individual accountability. This is because in Jigsaw learners must teach one another in order to get the "big picture" and must learn "all the information, not just their own portion, since they are tested individually" (Millis & Cottell, 1998, p. 129). Each student within a team has a piece of the information to be learned by all students and each student is responsible for teaching their section to the other students in the team. When all the pieces are put together, the students should have the whole picture - hence the name, Jigsaw ((Millis & Cottell, 1998). A third theory that explains the rationale behind the jigsaw strategy is constructivism. The assumption that learning is an active process of construction rather than a passive assimilation of information or rote memorization enhances the merits of jigsaw strategy which is built on encouraging active learning rather than absorbing information from a teacher or a book.

As for the rules for Cooperative Learning Groups, they include mutual respect among the group members, listening to what other teammates say, putting efforts into doing the work, and encouraging each other when losing the willingness to participate. Prescott cited in (Wan 1995: 7) states the roles practiced by the cooperative learning groups. The "checker" keeps track of time allotted for completing task. He/she keeps everyone on task. The "monitor" collects, returns, and disseminates material. He/she makes sure everyone is participating. The "recorder" takes notes during discussion. He/she makes sure everyone understands the task. The "reporter" reports groups' ideas to class. He/she contacts teacher if necessary.

In an attempt to investigate the effect of the jigsaw strategy on ESL students' reading achievement, the current researcher conducted a quasi-experimental pre-posttest design research. The analysis of the collected data revealed that this strategy is greatly influential on students' achievement.

Cohen (1994) pinpoints that teachers have special responsibilities in a classroom where jigsaw is dominant. The jigsaw teachers usually make pre-instructional decisions about grouping students and assigning appropriate tasks. They also do all the necessary preparation as dividing the topic into appropriate chunks and designing the activities for each chunk. They monitor students and interfere when necessary, facilitating class reflection or summary. They are also responsible for evaluating students' learning and the effectiveness of each group's work (Cohen, 1994). In general, a teacher who implement the jigsaw strategy have the following roles:

- A facilitator. He/she does not only facilitate the communication process among learners, but also between the learners' various classroom activities and the text.
- An organizer of resources and a resource himself.
- A guide within the classroom procedures and activities.
- A group process manager: this implies that the teacher should monitor, encourage and bridge gaps in students' lexis, grammar and use of strategies. He/she should provide alternative and extensive activities and help learners in self-correction discussion.
- A needs analyst. This means that he/she should assume the responsibility for determining and responding to the learners' linguistic needs.

Review of Related Literature

Theoretical Literature

Learning is a social activity. It is intimately associated with our connection with other human beings. Conversations, interaction with others and collaborations are integral aspects of learning. Olsen and Kagan (1992:8) define Cooperative Learning as follows:

Cooperative Learning is a group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others (1992:8)

One of the theories that Cooperative Learning is based on is Vygotsky's theoretical framework which highlights the idea that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. Vygotsky (1978: 57) states: "*Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological).*"

The two significant terms in the cooperative learning strategy are learning and rewarding (Slavin, 1991). Group learning is usually enhanced by the essential contribution of all students to the understanding of class concepts so everyone knows the information which usually fosters a cooperative environment. As the students are working together, they can learn from each other's experiences and level of knowledge. As for reward, there are two types of reward structures; the first is individual in nature. A person's reward depends upon her/his own contribution to the assignment. The second is group rewards in which members' contributions are combined for one total score and all group members receive the same score (Webb, 1982). Webb (1982) supports the idea that group rewards seem to produce more cooperation than individual rewards.

From a motivational perspective, cooperative incentive structures create a situation in which the only way group members can attain their own personal goals is if the group is successful. Students work in mixed-ability teams (heterogeneous groups) to tackle material initially presented by the teacher. The only way the team can succeed is to ensure that all team members have learned, so the team members' activities focus on explaining concepts to one another, helping one another practice, and encouraging one another to achieve success.

In Chapter Four of his book *Cooperative Learning*, Kagan (1994: 5-11) lists six principles that are essential for a group to be cooperative. Kagan refers to them as the "PIES". These principles are:

1. Positive interdependence: This refers to the feelings of responsibility that group members have towards each other. Each feels that he/she shares the success or failure of others, that what helps one helps all and what hurts one hurts all. This feeling can be promoted by roles, information distribution and rewards
2. Individual accountability: This implies the idea that group success depends on the learning of each individual member. This feeling can be promoted by individual quizzes or assignments following group work.
3. Collaborative skills: Developing social and communication skills is a necessity for cooperation to be successful. These skills include asking for help, making suggestions, disagreeing politely, leadership, decision-making, trust-building, communication, conflict-management skills, turn-taking, polite interruption, encouragement and moral support.
4. Heterogeneous grouping: Groups should, if possible, contain both male and female students of different ability levels so that each group will have one top-level, two middle levels and one struggling.
5. Equal participation: Group activities can be structured to encourage all group members to participate to an equal degree. Means of doing this include providing each member with a turn to speak or particular information that they need to contribute to a group. The opportunity for students to discuss, to argue, to present and hear one another's viewpoints is the critical element of cooperative learning with respect to student achievement.
6. Simultaneous interaction, in teacher- fronted instruction; one person speaks at a time. When group activities are used, one person per group may be speaking, i.e. if a class of 40 students are working in groups of four, ten people may be talking simultaneously.

In planning cooperative learning, teachers take several roles. First, teachers make pre-instructional decisions about grouping students and assigning appropriate tasks. Teachers have to be able to explain both the academic task and the cooperative structure to students and then must monitor and intervene when necessary. Finally, the teacher is also the one who is responsible for evaluating student learning and the effectiveness of each group's work (Cohen, 1994). The cooperative structure includes both the roles of students and the rules of interaction.

The cooperative strategy used in this study is the Jigsaw Strategy. The Jigsaw Strategy belongs to the Student-Team Investigation Cooperative Learning model and was originally developed in 1970s by Elliot Aronson and his students at the University of Texas and the University of California (Jacobs, 1998).

The Jigsaw Strategy consists of a regular instructional cycle of activities that include reading, grouping, regrouping, expert group discussion, team reporting, testing, and finally team recognition. Rolheiser and Stevahn (1998) associate the Jigsaw Strategy with Wittrok's theory of cognitive restructuring that emphasizes the importance of rehearsing, explaining and elaborating on reading material in order to link information into existing cognitive structures for long term memory (Millis & Cottell, 1998, p. 129). Each student within a team has a piece of the information to be learned by all students and each student is responsible for teaching their section to the other students in the team. When all the pieces are put together, the students should have the whole picture - hence the name, Jigsaw.

The Jigsaw Strategy involves the following procedures: dividing class into home teams (mother groups), each consisting of 3-6 students and dividing the reading material into a number of sub-topics that match the number of students within each home team. Each member in each home team takes a sub-topic to study. Group members in each home team who are studying the same topic meet to form expert teams in order to study and discuss their sub-topic and become experts in that sub-topic." Experts" then return to their original home teams to teach their sub-topics to the members within their home team (Thompson & Pledger, 1998). The following figures illustrate the grouping and regrouping grouping and regrouping:

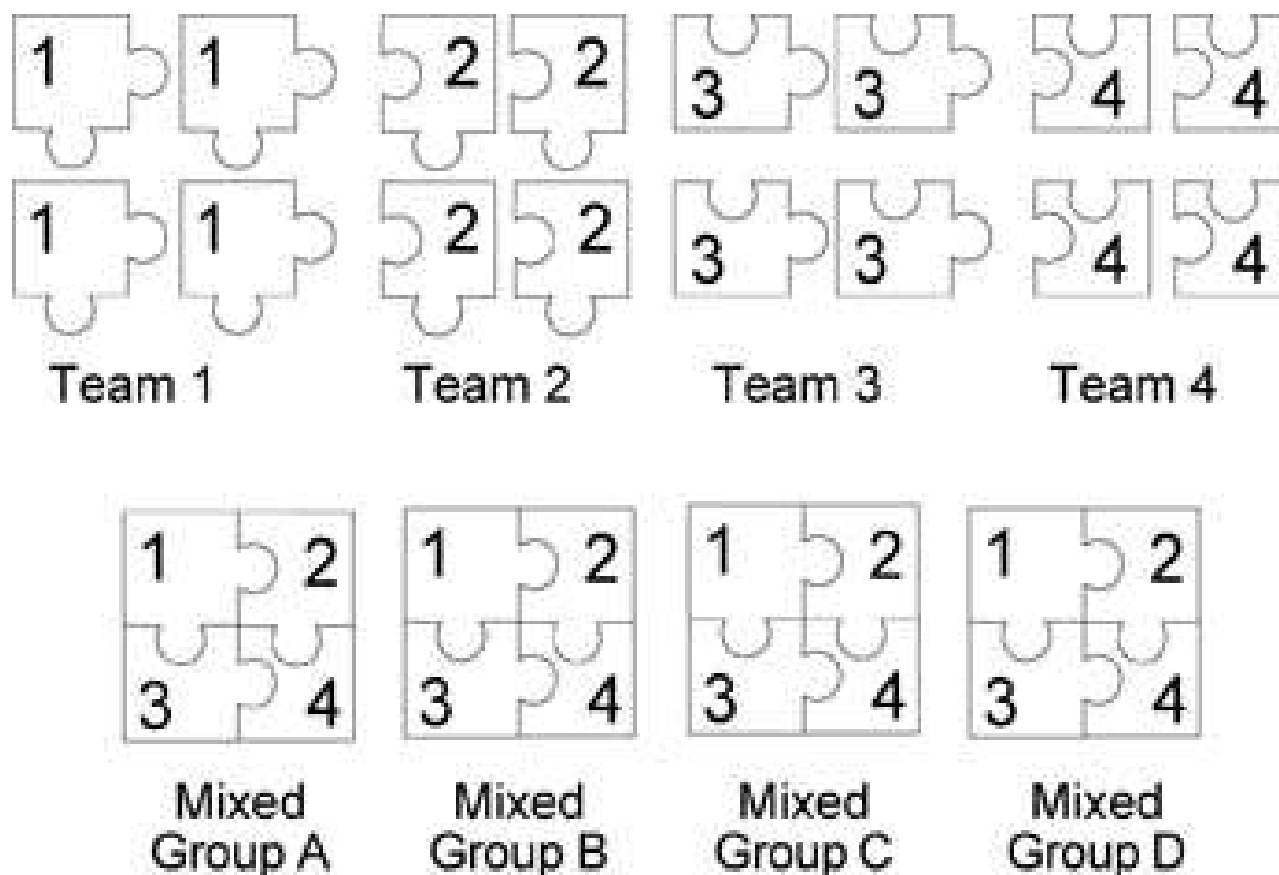


Figure 1 Grouping and regrouping in jigsaw

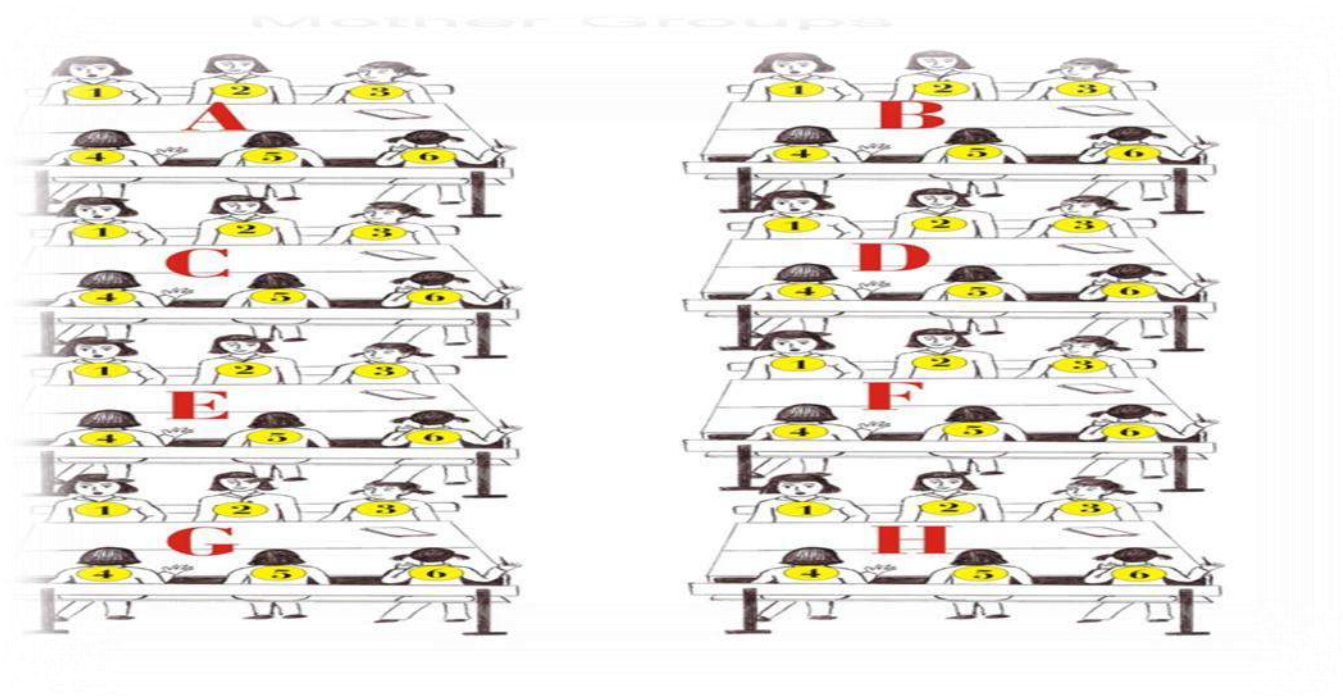


Figure 2 Mother Groups

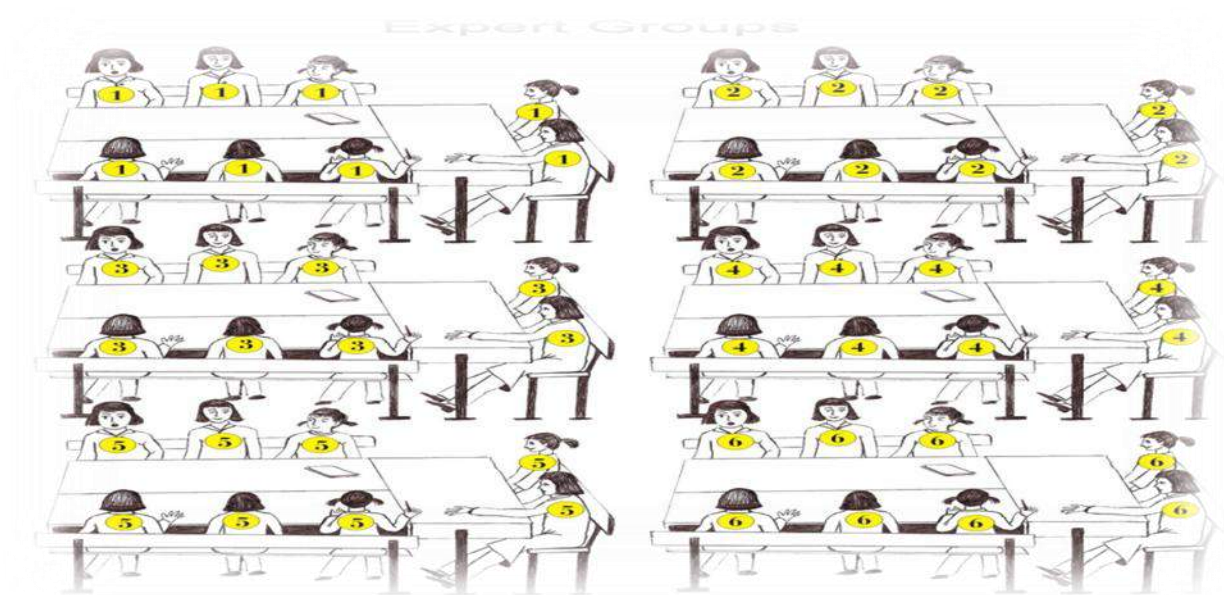


Figure 3 Expert Groups

Empirical studies

In Chapter Three of his book *Cooperative Learning*, Kagan (1994:3) remarks that "Cooperative learning is the most extensively researched educational innovation of all time. And the results are clear." As an endeavor to verify Kagan's conclusion, the researcher of the current study listed the following research.

Thompson and Pledger (1998) explore the efficacy of two methodologies: traditional lecture versus cooperative learning. Samples of 50 students were taken from a mid-size, southern, metropolitan university in the southeastern United States. The subjects were divided into two groups: 27 students who learned course material via the traditional lecture format and 23 students, who learned course material via a cooperative learning technique called jigsaw. The results did not reveal any significant differences in the scores of students taught by the two strategies.

Halliday (2002) investigates whether cooperative learning could improve the academic achievement of inner city middle school students in Gary, Indiana. Two seventh-grade classes taught by one African American male teacher served as one experimental group of 20 at-risk students, and one non-experimental group of 24 high achievers. Both groups took the same pretest on a unit about India. The experimental group was taught using cooperative learning. Achievement results indicated that the cooperative learning strategies worked well with the group of at-risk students.

Working with 166 students of eighth-grade African classes learning English as a foreign language,

Natalia (2001) examines the implementation and effectiveness of whole class teaching followed by task-oriented cooperative group activities in comparison with whole class teaching followed by individual work on learning English. Two classes of at least 80 students were assigned as an experimental group that used cooperative group activities and a control class that was taught by the traditional method. The results of the study indicated that cooperative learning improved the quality of language practiced, improved the quality of students' talk, created a positive affective climate, increased students motivation, and enhanced thinking.

Ghaith and Abd-ELMalak (2004) examine the effect of the cooperative Jigsaw method on improving literal and higher order English reading comprehension of forty-eight university students of EFL. Applying the experimental design, the result indicated no significant differences between the control and experimental group on the dependent variables of overall reading comprehension and literal comprehension. However, the results revealed a statistically significant difference in favor of the experimental group on the variable of higher order comprehension.

Abu-Khader (2006) examines the effect of cooperative learning strategies Jigsaw & Learning Together Strategies on Palestinian EFL freshmen's reading comprehension. The population of the study consisted of 600 Palestinian freshman EFL learners distributed into 12 assigned sections at Al-Quds University in the second academic semester 2005-2006. The participants of the study were engaged in experimental and control groups. A pre-posttest technique for the reading comprehension was administered. The results showed that there were

significant differences in students' scores on the overall reading comprehension in the post-test between the two groups in favor of the experimental group which was taught by cooperative learning strategies.

Ghaith and Bouzeineddine (2003) investigate the relationship between reading attitudes, achievement, and learners' perceptions of their Jigsaw cooperative learning (CL) experience. One hundred eleven ($n = 111$) eighth-grade students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) enrolled in four sections in a middle school in Lebanon participated in the study. The participants completed two questionnaires and a semantic differential scale that assessed their reading attitudes and perception of their Jigsaw II cooperative learning experience. In addition, the participants took a pretest and a posttest specifically designed for the purpose of the study. The results indicated that reading attitudes and reading achievement were positively internally related, but not related to the perception of the Jigsaw cooperative experience. Furthermore, the results revealed certain statistically significant differences between high and low achievers and between males and females across the variables of reading attitudes, achievement, and perception of the Jigsaw cooperative experience.

Shaaban (2006) investigates the effects of the jigsaw cooperative learning (CL) model and whole class instruction in improving learners' reading comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, and motivation to read. Forty-four grade-five English as a foreign language learners participated in the study, and a posttest-only control group experimental design was employed. The results did not indicate any statistically significant differences between the control and experimental group reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. However, the results revealed statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group on motivation to read and its dimensions, the value of reading, and reading self-concept.

Badawi (2008) attempts to investigate the improvements in 44 learners' reading achievement and motivation as a result of the employment of jigsaw technique in contrast to the holistic approach. The results of treatment showed that although there were no differences between the experimental and control groups with regard to the vocabulary acquisition and reading achievement, there were significant effects for the students' affective aspects such as self-concept, their value, and motivation.

Kazemi (2012) investigates the effects of the jigsaw teaching method on the achievement of Iranian EFL learners. One intact group 38 Guilan university students, majoring in engineering, management and biology, participated in this study. The experimental group participants included 38 freshman and sophomore intermediate level male ($N=17$) and female students ($N=21$). The students received pre-test and post-test. Jigsaw technique was used with experimental group participants where there was an emphasis on the cooperative learning of the language and specially the reading comprehension. The results of a paired-samples T-test showed that the students' post-test reading scores improved significantly ($P= 0.000$) when compared with their pre-test scores.

In Ghana, Adams (2013) conducts an action research study on 40 pupils and 10 teachers of Basic six of Holy Child Practice Primary School. Adams explored the causes of the poor performance of students. The intervention was the effect of cooperative learning with the use of

Jigsaw technique in. Action research design was used in addition to a case study design to conduct the study. The research instruments were observation and questionnaire. The researcher employed the Jigsaw technique as the intervention. Responses gathered from both the observation and the administration of the instruments indicated that some of the causes of pupils' poor performance in school were poor teaching methods during lessons and the inability of teachers to vary teaching techniques.

Statement of the Problem

There was a widely-spread dissatisfaction among the instructors in the CCQ about the students' lack of interest in participating in classroom reading activities. This, in turn, has negatively influenced their overall achievement and their enthusiasm to learn. This study would hopefully contribute to fill that gap in research in Qatar, help CCQ instructors to engage students in reading activities and activate students' potentials to gain high achievement in reading.

Significance of the Study

Due to the increasing amount of knowledge available worldwide, the increasing complexity of knowledge, and the increasing speed of changes, individual learning methods and traditional teaching techniques are no longer sufficient for mastering the complexity of knowledge. To the researcher's knowledge, this study will be the first one in Qatar to investigate the effect of using jigsaw strategy in to enhance students' achievement in reading. Hopefully, the results of this study will guide the instructors in the ESL program in the CCQ to implement cooperative strategies in their teaching.

Purpose of the Study

This study aimed to explore the possible effects of using jigsaw strategy on the achievement of level-four female students enrolling in ESL foundation program in the CCQ.

Hypothesis of the Study

More specifically, the study aims to investigate the validity of the following hypothesis: There are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the mean scores of the two ESL Level 4 experimental group and control group in the achievement reading comprehension test due to the teaching strategies: jigsaw reading and traditional strategy of teaching reading.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms are operationally defined to clarify usage in this study:
Co-operative learning: It refers to classroom strategies which require students to work on learning activities in small groups and receive rewards or recognition based upon the performance of the group to what they belong (Slavin, 1980:315).

The jigsaw strategy: It is a cooperative learning technique that encourages listening, engagement, interaction, teaching, and cooperation by giving each member of the group an essential part to play in the academic activity. The strategy involves breaking the classroom into small groups of four to six students. Each group is responsible for a specific piece of knowledge that they will discuss with other classmates.

Limitations of the Study

1. The study was restricted to the female students enrolling in Level 4 Reading classes.
2. The generalization of the study findings was confined to the instructional material that the researcher redesigned from the textbook: Real Reading 4 for jigsaw reading strategy.

Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of all the female students enrolling in Level 4 Foundation Reading Course in the ESL Center in the CCQ during the second quarter of the academic year 2013-2014. The students were learning "Real Reading 4" (2011) as a textbook in their class.

Sample of the Study: 26 ESL foundation female students enrolling in two Level 4 classes in the CCQ. Convenience sampling was used. It is a non-probability sampling technique where the subjects are selected because of their convenient accessibility to the researcher. The researcher was supposed to teach them reading. Random assigning was used to assign the two groups. The experimental group included 16 students, who were taught the reading material using the jigsaw strategy. The control group consisted of 10 students, who were taught by the traditional method, namely no grouping. The **instructional material** used in the intervention consisted of 7 reading texts in Real Reading 4 Textbook.

Design of the Study

The researcher used the quasi-experimental pre-posttests design.

Period of the intervention: The intervention lasted for 8 weeks. It was implemented in the 4th quarter of the academic year 2013-2014.

Instruments of the Study:

Reading Achievement Test (Appendix 1): This was used as a Pre- and Post- test. The test was designed by the researcher on the basis of the redesigned instructional material. The purpose of the test was to assess the subjects' reading comprehension. The test was constructed in accordance to the reading comprehension outcomes stated in the Common Delivery Plan prepared by the Reading Committee in the Community College of Qatar. A table of specifications was constructed to ensure the type, marks and number of questions used in the test. The test included two one-page reading comprehension texts followed by different types of questions: multiple-choice questions, short-answers questions. The unseen reading texts were selected from different resources taking into consideration that they are related to the texts of the to the topics of "Real Reading 4" textbook that the subjects were studying in their reading course. The total mark of the test was 50 where each correct sub question was given one mark.

Statistics and Findings

Reliability of the Achievement Reading Test

To establish the reliability of the reading comprehension test, it was administered to a pilot group of 60 students chosen randomly from the population of the study and not included in the sample of the study. The students were tested and retested after 15 days. By using Pearson Formula, the reliability coefficient of stability was computed. It was 84%

Validity of the Achievement Reading Test

To establish the validity of the research instruments, a jury of TEFL specialists were consulted for the appropriateness of the reading achievement test in terms of the number of the questions, the appropriateness of the reading texts, the general production of the test, the marks allotted for each question, pertinence of question category and the clarity of the questions and the suitability of the font by which the exam was typed. The jury consisted of four university professors. The instrument was modified in response to their comments.

Reliability

To test the reliability of the study tool, test-retest method was applied, by applying and re-applied the test after two weeks on an exploratory sample from outside the study sample consisted of 25 students, and then Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated between their estimates on both occasions as it was (0.89). This value was considered appropriate for the purposes of this study.

Equality between Groups:

To find out the equality between the groups, means and standard deviations for pretest were calculated according to Group variable, to find out whether there are statistical significant differences in these means t-test was conducted and the results are shown in table below.

Table 1 Means, Standard Deviations and t-test for pretest according to Method

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
PRE	Experimental	16	65.06	11.234	.176	24	.862
	Control	10	64.20	13.514			

Table 1 shows there are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) in the pretest due to group variable. We conclude those groups were equal according to group variables.

To answer the question of the study, means and standard deviations and estimated marginal means were computed according to group variable as presented in tables 3.

Table 2. Means, standard deviations and estimated marginal means for responses on post test according to Method variable.

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	Estimated Marginal Means	N
Experimental	76.88	8.943	76.62	16
Control	67.60	13.209	68.02	10
Total	73.31	11.488	72.32	26

Table 2 shows a variance in the means of the posttest according to group, to find out whether there are statistical significant differences in these means, one way ANCOVA was conducted and the results are shown in tables below.

Table 3 One way ANOCVA results of post related to their group of study (Experimental, Control).

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre test	2167.924	1	2167.924	82.797	.000
Method	454.519	1	454.519	17.359	.000
Error	602.226	23	26.184		
Corrected Total	3299.538	25			

Table 3 shows there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) in the posttest due to group variable in favor of Experimental group.

Findings and Discussion

The statistical analysis on the obtained data revealed a great significance of the effect of jigsaw strategy on ESL students' reading achievement. This might be due to the merits of the jigsaw strategy as it empowers students to take charge of their learning and it enhances their learning autonomy. It also encourages peer tutoring and makes learning fun. It increases retention and retrieval of concepts. It works for application, knowledge or critical thinking types of questions. It develops communication skills. Most importantly, it decreases stress, tension and absentmindedness.

The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Kazemi2012; Gaith 2003; Abu Khader 2006; and Halliday (2002) as all of them revealed that the use of cooperative jigsaw reading strategy correlates positively with students' academic achievement. However, there is some inconsistency of the current results and those of Shaaban (2006) and Adams (2013) as they did not show any statistical significance of jigsaw on students' achievement. Nevertheless, many pieces of research revealed that jigsaw increased students' motivation and enthusiasm.

Recommendations are suggested that qualitative studies should be conducted where students' attitudes towards using cooperative teaching strategies in teaching English language skills in general and reading in particular. Furthermore, the researcher of the current study feels that studying the correlation between cooperative learning and students' motivation to learn.

In conclusion, it can be noticed that many prior studies indicated that jigsaw strategy has a probable impact on learners' achievement, motivation, anxiety and classroom management.

About the Author:

Dr. Sabah Sabbah holds Ph.D. in English Language Curriculum and Instruction. She worked as an assistant professor in Jordan, Saudi Arabia, and Qatar. She published eight papers and presented in Innovations 2014 in the U.S.A., in the International Journal of Arts and Science Conference/2016 in Las Vegas, and in TESOL conferences in Qatar and Dubai.

References

- Adams, F.H. (2013). Using jigsaw Techniques as an Effective way of Promoting Co-operative Learning among Primary Six Pupils in Fijai. *International Journal of Education and Practice*, 1(6):64-74
- Abu-Khader, F.H. (2006). *The Effect of Cooperative Learning on Palestinian EFL Freshmen's Reading Comprehension and their Anxiety toward EFL Learning*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Amman Arab University for Graduate Studies, Amman, Jordan.
- Brown, D. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Indiana: Prentice Hall.
- Cohen, E. (1994). Restructuring the Classroom: Conditions for Productive Small Groups. *Review of Educational Research*, 64 (1), 1-35.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. New York, Oxford University Press.
- Ghaith, G. & Abd El-Malak, M. (2004). Effect of Jigsaw 11 on Literal and Higher Order EFL Reading Comprehension. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 10 (2), 105-115.
- Ghaith, G. (2003). Effects of the Learning Together Model of Cooperative Learning on English as a Foreign Language Reading Achievement, Academic Self-esteem, and Feelings of School Alienation, *Bilingual Research Journal*, 27 (3), 100-106.
- Ghaith, G. & Bouzeineddine, A. (2003). Relationship Between reading attitudes, Achievement, and Learners' Perceptions of Their Jigsaw Cooperative Learning Experience. *Reading Psychology*, 24, 105-121.
- Halliday, D. (2002). Using Cooperative Learning to Improve Academic Achievement of Inner-City Middle School Students. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 464136).
- Jacob, G. (1998). Cooperative Learning Techniques in Reading Instruction, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 432739).
- Kagan, S. (1994). *Cooperative Learning*. San Juan Capistrano, CA: Kagan Cooperative Learning.
- Larsen-Freeman, D & Long, M. (1991). *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. NY: Longman Inc. New York
- Morrow, L., & Sharkey, E. A. (1993). Social Cooperative Literacy Experiences. *The Reading Teacher*, 47, 114-120.
- Mahnaz, K. (2012). The Effect of Jigsaw Technique on the Learners' Reading Achievement: The Case of English as L2. University of Guilan, Iran. *Modern Journal of Applied Linguistics*. 4(3) Autumn 2012 ISSN 0974-8741
- Retrieved from <http://mjal.org/journal-current-articles.htm>
- Millis, B., & Cottell, P. (Eds.). (1998). *Cooperative Learning for Higher Education Faculty*. Phoenix: Oryx Press.
- Millis, B., & Cottell, P. (Eds.). (1998). *Cooperative Learning for Higher Education Faculty*. Phoenix: Oryx Press.
- Natalia, B. (2001). The Effect of Cooperative- Task-Oriented Group Activities on Student Achievement in English as a Foreign Language in Large Classes in Bukina Faso, *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 61, 114-A.
- Olsen, R., & Kagan, S. (1992). "About Cooperative Learning". In Kessler, C. (eds). *Cooperative Language Learning. A Teacher's Resource Book*. Englewood Cliffs. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- O'Malley, J. & Chamot, A. (1990). *Learning Strategies in 2nd Language Acquisition*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

- Oxford, R. (1989). The Use of Language Learning Strategies: A Synthesis of Studies with Implications for Strategy Training. *System*, 12 (2), 235-47.
- Rolheiser, C., & Stevahn, L. (1998). The Role of Staff Developer in Promoting Effective Teacher Decision-Making. In C. Brody & N. Davidson (Eds.), *Professional Development for Cooperative Learning*. (pp.61-78), New York: State University of New York Press.
- Rolheiser, C., & Stevahn, L. (1998). The Role of Staff Developer in Promoting Effective Teacher Decision-Making. In C. Brody & N. Davidson (Eds.), *Professional Development for Cooperative Learning*. (pp.61-78), New York: State University of New York Press.
- Shermila, J. (1999). A Study of the Skills of Reading Comprehension in English Developed by Students of Standard IX in the Schools in Tuticorin District, Tamilnadu. *Language in India* 6 (5), 1-304, Retrieved March 8, 2009 from www.languageinindia.com
- Slavin, R. (1991). Synthesis of Research on Cooperative Learning: The Use of Cooperative Learning Strategies Results in Improvement both the Achievement of Students and the Quality of Their Interpersonal Relationships. *Educational Leadership*, 48, pp71-82.
- Shaaban, K. (2006). An Initial Study of the Effects of Cooperative Learning on Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary Acquisition, and motivation to Read. *Reading Psychology*, 27, 377-403.
- Thompson, M., Pledger, L. (1998). Cooperative Learning Versus Traditional Lecture Format: A Preliminary Study. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 426 418).
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press
- Wharton, G. (2000). Language learning strategy use of bilingual foreign Language Learners in Singapore. *Language Learning*, 50 (2), 203-244.
- Wan, Y. (1995). Implementing Cooperative Learning Techniques in Second Language Teaching. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 396526).
- Webb, M. (1982). Student Interaction and Learning in Small Groups. *Review of Educational Research*, 52, 421-445.

Contradictory Conceptualizations of teachers by Students in the Saudi Contextⁱ

Mohammed I. Alghbban

Department of Modern Languages and Translation
College of Languages and Translation
King Saud University

Zouheir A. Maalej

Department of English Language and Translation
College of Languages and Translation
King Saud University

Abstract

This study is part of a larger project by the authors of the current article and their co-author on the role of metaphor in the conceptualization of the components of the learning processⁱⁱ such as learning per se, the student, and the teacher. The current article addresses the conceptualization of teachers by their own students at the College of Languages and Translation (COLT), King Saud University. In particular, the article elicits data from 173 students through the following prompt: "Write a narrative in which you describe student-teacher relations according to your experience as a student in higher education, giving your opinion based on concrete cases." The objective of the study is to measure the weight of metaphor in teacher-student relations. The collected data is analyzed through the contemporary theory of metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), which allows for a search for the conceptual metaphors (CMs) underlying the narratives. Data analysis follows the qualitative method, which is confirmed with quantitative percentile counts. The findings reveal a set of conflictive student-generated metaphors, but mostly evaluating teachers positively according to affective style criteria such as familial, social, and interpersonal factors. Such findings should be used as an indicator to decision makers to consolidate what is positive and improve what is less positive to enhance learning.

Key words: conceptual metaphor, conflictive metaphors, evaluation of teachers, affective learning, cognitive learning.

Introduction

Notwithstanding educational managers, the teacher and the student are undoubtedly the most important human factors in education. They are all the more important that they depend on one another not only for the success of the educational process, but also for their success in the future. Indeed, the student and the teacher crucially interact at least on three of the most seminal components of education, namely, what knowledge and skills to be presented to the student, testing for this educational content, and the teacher and student's linguistic behavior vis-à-vis each other. Oxford et al (1998) argue that the teacher's "actual status (defined as the amount of esteem, admiration and approval obtained from the society or the immediate social group) depends on how positively or negatively the students, as well as the parents or the administrators, evaluate the teachers' behavior" (p. 7). However, in the Saudi context the bone of contention, we argue, between the teacher and student is student assessment, or the grade, which students take as a criterion of positive or negative evaluation of the teacher. For that, it is expected that a big deal of the Saudi students' perceptions of their teachers will be conditional on how generous with grades the latter could be.

The current article seeks to investigate these perceptions through metaphor. For over three decades now, the topic of metaphor has been attracting a lot of attention since the realization by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) that "metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action" (p. 3). Metaphor is a powerful tool for looking into the conceptual system behind language. The pervasiveness of metaphor is so fundamental to our life as human beings that there may not exist one single domain of knowledge where metaphor does not define, guide, and enrich it with the conceptual correspondences of other domains. Thus, life is commonly conceptualized as a journey, game, sport; emotions as fire; time as money or valuable commodity; purposes as destinations; politics as religion or sport, etc. Moreover, metaphor has enjoyed a reputation for being a persuasive tool in almost all walks of life (Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Maalej, 2007). Cacciari (1998) spells out the functions of metaphor as "bridging from abstract domains to perceptual experiences," using "the expressive properties of events and things that surround us for giving names to mental contents otherwise difficult to shape linguistically," "expressing the emotional experience," "setting and changing the conceptual perspective" of a given culture, "summarizing bundles of properties," and contributing to "saving face" through its indirectness (pp. 121-140). For these reasons and many others, educationalists cannot help but capitalize on metaphor in conceptualizing the educational experience.

The structure of the article is as follows. The first section offers an overview of teachers' metaphors in education. The second section offers some thoughts about the Saudi educational context. The third section spells out the methodology used in the article. The fourth section, which makes up the bulk of the article, deals with the metaphors Saudi students perceive their teachers by. The fifth section offers a discussion of the findings.

1. Teachers' metaphors in the literature

The discourse of education is teeming with metaphors about enhancing learning (Low, 1988; Bowers, 1992; Green, 1993; Petrie & Oshlag, 1993; Swan, 1993; Mayer, 1993; Sticht, 1993; Ponterotto, 1994; Lazar, 1996; Deignan, Gabrys, & Solska, 1997; Cortazzi & Jin, 1999), about teaching (Thornbury, 1991; Hiraga, 1997-8; Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Patchen & Crawford, 2011), about policy making and change (Schwartzman, 1995; Weaver-Hightower, 2008; Botha,

2009; Kranenburg & Kelly, 2012; Maalej, 2008), and about evaluating teachers, students, and learning (Oxford et al, 1998; Martinez, Sauleada & Huber, 2001; De Gerrero & Villamil, 2002; Jensen, 2006; Jin & Cortazzi, 2008; Hiraga, 2008; Berendt, 2008; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008a,b; Michael & Malamitsa, 2009); Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011; Pishghadam and Navari, 2010; Castro, 2012). Being of more relevance to the current study, the latter trend of educational research, which deals with teachers' perception by students, will be overviewed here.

Oxford et al (1998) were some of the first pioneers to start work on the metaphoric conceptualization of teachers and their perception by their students (p. 7). Oxford et al's contribution to teachers' metaphor in education lies in linking up the educational metaphors to four "different philosophies of education," namely, Social Order (TEACHER AS MANUFACTURER, TEACHER AS COMPETITOR, TEACHER AS HANGING JUDGE, TEACHER AS DOCTOR, and TEACHER AS MIND-AND-BEHAVIOR); Cultural Transmission (TEACHER AS CONDUIT); Learner-Centered Growth (TEACHER AS NURTURER, TEACHER AS LOVER OR SPOUSE, TEACHER AS SCAFFOLDER, TEACHER AS ENTERTAINER, TEACHER AS DELEGATOR), and Social Reform (TEACHER AS ACCEPTOR, TEACHER AS LEARNING PARTNER). However, some of the metaphors that Oxford et al consider as metaphors are not ones. For instance, the TEACHER AS MIND-AND-BEHAVIOR is a metonymy. The TEACHER AS DELEGATOR reflects some of the things that a teacher may do in class, i.e. delegate some power or authority (if any) to some students.

Using informants from Britain, China, Japan, Lebanon, Turkey, and Iran, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) collected data by observing teachers in their classes, eliciting it from UK undergraduate and postgraduate students and from foreign students from the other five countries (p. 149). Owing to the context of the current study, the Lebanese metaphors for teachers will be singled out for mention. Cortazzi and Jin (1999) mention the following CMs as predominant ones among Lebanese students: A good teacher is A PARENT, A FRIEND, A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE, A MODEL, A GUIDE, A LOVER, FOOD, A CATALYST, A MEDICINE, AN ANCHOR, and AN ARTIST. As will be shown later on, most of these Lebanese metaphors are also adopted by Saudi students (p. 171).

Working on Malaysian data, Nikitina and Furuoka (2008a) were able to isolate six CMs about teachers, namely, (1) TEAM MEMBER, (2) BOSS, (3) INTERACTOR, (4) PROVIDER, (5) ADVISOR, and (6) PRECISE MECHANISM. In another study, Nikitina and Furuoka (2008b) measure students' perception of their teachers against Oxford et al's "different philosophies of education," and conclude that Malaysian education does not yet involve Social Reform.

Investigating the (mis)match between teachers' self-perception and their perception by their students in Iran, Ghabanchi and Talebi (2012) administer a twenty-metaphor questionnaire to 200 Iranian students to choose from. In actual fact, professors were conceptualized by Iranian students as A COPY MACHINE, A CASSETTE PLAYER, A MICROPHONE, A MISSIONARY, A SUMMARIZER, and A MIXER. In ideal situations, students would love for their professors to be AN ARTIST, A SPRING, A WRITER, A WINDOW TO THE WORLD, and A CHALLENGER. Methodologically, the questionnaire does not seem to us to reflect students' actual metaphors as much as the researchers' metaphors from whose list students have chosen the metaphors that they think apply to their teachers.

Overall, this sample from the literature suggests that students seem to have total freedom to speak their heart about their teachers, which yielded both positive and negative conceptualizations.

2. Overview of the Saudi higher educational context

Many factors may be invoked to explain the nature of the Saudi higher educational context. The first factor is the cosmopolitan nature of the teaching body. With a constantly growing student population and ensuing scarcity of Saudi teachers, COLT includes teachers from countries as different in education culture and experience as Algeria (6), China (1), Egypt (16), Germany (1), India (3), Iran (1), Japan (1), Jordan (4), Morocco (4), Russia (2), Saudi Arabia (41), Somalia (1), Spain (1), Sudan (3), Syria (3), Tunisia (4), and Turkey (3).ⁱⁱⁱ Although this might constitute richness for the educational experience of Saudi students, it may also pose insurmountable challenges for some of them to adapt owing to the discrepancies between their secondary educational training and the demands that academia makes on them. Students very often complain about the toughness of some teachers who do not show enough generosity to and flexibility with them in matters of student assessment. As a result, students mostly think that teachers stand in their way, with very few of them having a place in their heart for their teachers as many of their narratives tell.

The second factor is the discrepancy between student achievement and student assessment, which is causing students to be demotivated in their studies. One of the indicators of such demotivation is the high rate of absenteeism among students, which may lead to debarring some of them from entering exams. Low-achieving students, who are often given undeserved high grades, are misleadingly treated as achievers. The culprit is the famous expression “mašših” (push him through). Some students may have recourse to non-academic means to be employed and succeed in life. This demotivation is symptomatic of a culture of laziness perhaps strongly nourished by excessively comfortable life of some Saudi students who seem to be studying for the prestige of getting a university degree or to please their parents. In the absence of an expected “cooperation” on the part of teachers, students often “avenge” themselves on those teachers who “swim against the current” by evaluating them negatively at the end of the term.

Another factor, which may be related to the spirit of competition and challenge, concerns the fact that the system is mostly anti-coeducational and exclusively confined to Saudi citizens. The educational system in Saudi Arabia is experimenting with two styles: Mostly, the system is not co-educational^{iv} owing to sociocultural traditions; however, there exist institutions such as the health institutions where co-education is the rule. Although co-education has many detractors, it has been attested to produce a spirit of competition between and challenge to male and female students. In Britain, many school authorities have experimented with total separation, partial separation, and full integration of males and females.^v As one of the few countries in the world with a tremendous international student outflow, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia shows one of the lowest rates of international student inflow even though the system is gradually allowing international students into higher education institutions in the Kingdom under the impetus of international university rankings and academic accreditation.

3. Methodology

This section addresses the composition of the population of the study, data collection, and data analysis.

3.1. Population of the study

The article is based on data elicited from male college students at (COLT). The students come from three undergraduate academic departments known as the Department of English Language and Translation (DELT), the Department of French Language and Translation (DFLT), and the Department of Modern Languages and Translation (DMLT). The latter counts eight second language programs, including Spanish, German, Russian, Turkish, Chinese, Japanese, Persian, and Hebrew. The researchers distributed 349 copies of the prompt, and received 173 filled copies (58 from the DELT, 53 from the DFLT, and 62 from the DMLT), thus discarding 176 copies because they did not satisfy the prompt. The students used as informants have spent between one year and five years at COLT.

3.2. Data collection

Data was elicited through a free narrative topic in which students were expected to show their perception of their teachers. The prompt was as follows: "Write a narrative in which you describe student-teacher relations according to your experience as a student in higher education, giving your opinion based on concrete cases." The prompt was set in Arabic in order to ensure that students have no language barrier that might impede the linguistic expression of their opinions. To collect data, which is the set of CMs conceptualizing the teachers, the researchers had to meet as a group many times. The procedure utilized to extract conceptual metaphors (CMs) consists in (i) coding each copy with the initial letter of the language program and giving it an Arabic number, (ii) assigning one researcher to read the narratives to the others, (iii) attempting to capture the CM, (iv) re-reading the narrative in case no unanimous agreement is reached by all the researchers, and (v) adopting the text of the CM when agreement is reached. The CMs for teachers are then tabulated, which makes them ready for data analysis.

3.3. Data analysis

The data collected and tabulated is analyzed qualitatively by the researchers. The objective of the qualitative analysis is to pursue the entailments of the CMs which underpin the students' perception of their teachers.

4. Saudi students' conceptual metaphors for teachers

The corpus of the current article is stories or narratives told by students about their teachers. Carter (1993) argues that "stories about teachers are often told in the service of or on the way to more dominant paradigmatic interests, such as discovering the ever-elusive 'effective practice'" (p. 9). Carter (1993) adds that "stories exist within a social context and are motivated, that is, are told for a purpose" (p. 9). Students' stories about teachers in the Saudi context have a particular purpose: If a teacher does not treat them as achievers, he is discredited in end of term faculty evaluation. In other non-Saudi violent contexts, he may be kidnapped, set on fire, or even killed^{vi}. However, Carter (1993) warns against a methodological risk about using stories in education, which has to do with the precariousness of generalizing from stories because the latter "resist singular or paradigmatic interpretation" and "the relationship between story and reality is, at best, troublesome" (p. 10). Before dealing with the perception of teachers by their students in

the Saudi context, a few thoughts about the motivations behind teachers' evaluation by students are in good order.

4.1. Motivations of students' positive and negative evaluations

We will ask the following questions: What motivates students to evaluate their teachers positively or negatively? Are the motivations related to cognitive learning, affective learning, or other factors? One of the motivations for positive or negative evaluations of teachers by students is psychological, i.e. the fact that teachers may be deemed caring or uncaring. Using the concept of "source credibility" borrowed from communication and persuasion theories, Teven and McCroskey (1996) find three hypotheses of theirs confirmed: (i) "teachers who are perceived as more caring by their students would also be evaluated more positively by their students," (ii) "students who perceive their teachers as more caring will also evaluate the content of the course that instructor is teaching more positively," and (iii) "students who perceive their teachers as more caring will report they learned more in the course" (p. 6). This seems to indicate the importance of an educational psychology, incumbent on the teachers. In the Saudi context, doing your job properly and refraining from socializing with the students, which teachers abide by because it is required by law to do so, are interpreted by students as uncaring behaviors. Saudi students seem to privilege the affective style as a favored way of dealing with cognitive learning, which reverses their evaluations of their teachers. Teachers who focus on cognitive learning are evaluated negatively and those who focus on the affective style are evaluated positively. Freedom of enrolment where students can choose their teachers comes to evidence this trend: cognitive learning style teachers have fewer students than their affective learning style counterparts.

Another reason is the fact that the cognitive style of teaching seems to encourage demotivation and the affective style is found to stimulate motivation in students. Gorham and Christophel (1992) find a correlation between teachers' behaviors and students' motivation and demotivation (p. 239). They (1992) conclude that "motivation is perceived by students as a student-owned state, while lack of motivation is perceived as a teacher-owned problem" (p. 239). Shephard (2008) establish a correlation between motivation as conducive to sustainability in higher education with affective learning, which "relates to values, attitudes and behaviours and involves the learner emotionally" (p. 88). His argument is as follows: Demotivation takes place because higher education focuses more on cognitive learning, which "relates more to knowledge and its application." Shephard (2008) argues that "perhaps, higher education has a particular and specific function, to graduate influential citizens who value their environment and appreciate that they have a responsibility to help to sustain it" (p. 88). Extrapolating from this, we may argue that if teachers focus more on cognitive learning at the expense of affective learning their students are more likely to evaluate them negatively, and vice versa.

Anderson et al (2012) elicits evaluations of teacher effectiveness from doctoral students, and came up with the teachers' characteristics in the following table, which we borrowed from them (p. 291):

Table 1. Thematic conceptual matrix of effective teachers with descriptors

Theme	Descriptor / Exemplar
Director	Use of a variety of teaching methods Clear expectations and transparent grading policy

Enthusiast	Passionate about the topic that they are teaching
Transmitter	Able to take complex and make simplistic The ability to demonstrate the relevancy of the material
Expert	Thoroughly explaining a topic Knowledgeable about their course and content area
Responsive	Gives constructive feedback Able to provide timely feedback Return e-mails and phone calls promptly
Connector	Relating coursework to practical work Available for discussion or assistance
Student centered	Engage students in discussion Meeting needs of students Approachable by students
Ethical	Show respect to students Apply some standards to all students (fair)
Professional	Ability to conduct individual research Organizational skills must be good

The criteria of effective college teachers in the table seem to relate more to performance and professional competence than to the affective criteria stipulated by Teven and McCroskey (1996) and Shephard (2008). As will be shown in the following sub-section, the criteria in this table do not seem to prominently feature in the students' evaluation of their teachers at COLT.

4.2. Teachers' conceptual metaphors by students

As L2 teachers and researchers, our objective in investigating students' metaphoric conceptualizations about their teachers, is to get acquainted with the factors that might be spoiling the learning process, reconstruct and analyze the underlying socio-cultural belief systems governing the student-teacher relations, and attempt to suggest solutions to them in order to improve these relations so that the learning process be enhanced, without ever adopting an incriminatory attitude towards teachers who we are part of.

Across the departments, the concept of mutual respect between student and teacher is a recurrent theme. With the DELT, mutual respect is paired with social closeness, where students refuse to be considered enemies by their teachers and object for their learning to be mechanical. Such an attitude is a call for more humane student-teacher relations and learning. With the DFLT, mutual respect is paired with partnership between the two parties while in the DMLT mutual respect is paired with unlimited collaboration between the two parties. Respect here is focused upon as a requisite for partnership and collaboration. The reason why this cultural value of mutual respect is not dwelt upon here is that it has not been captured metaphorically by the students of COLT in conceptualizing the teachers.

As is clear in the table below, students produced 196 linguistic metaphors (LMs) distributed over 16 CMs, with the DELT students producing 26.5%, the DFLT students 36.2%, and the DMLT students 37.2%. Clearly, the DELT students have been less imaginative than their fellow students in the DFLT and DMLT. The teacher-student relations in this study are mostly

characterized by conflictive CMs, which Oxford et al (1998) call “clashing metaphors.” These CMs can be categorized into two blocks: conflictive dyads and kinship-based CMs.

Table 2. CMs for teachers at COLT

CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS FOR TEACHERS		DELT	DFLT	DMLT	Total
1	THE TEACHER IS A TRAVEL GUIDE	2	8	7	17
2	THE TEACHER IS AN OPPRESSOR	20	10	5	35
3	THE TEACHER IS A FRIEND	8	8	8	24
4	THE TEACHER IS AN ENEMY	2	5	1	8
5	THE TEACHER IS A FAIR COURT JUDGE	2		3	5
6	THE TEACHER IS AN UNFAIR COURT JUDGE	2	2	2	6
7	THE TEACHER IS A FATHER	2	15	20	37
8	THE TEACHER IS A BROTHER	7	14	16	37
9	THE TEACHER IS A KIN	4	1	1	6
10	THE TEACHER IS A ROLE MODEL	1	5	4	10
11	THE TEACHER IS A CAREGIVER	1	1	1	3
12	THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE			3	3
13	THE TEACHER IS A STRAY ANIMAL		1		1
14	THE TEACHER IS A WEED		1		1
15	THE TEACHER IS A MESSENGER			2	2
16	THE TEACHER IS A PSYCHOTIC	1			1
TOTAL		52	71	73	196

4.2.1. Conflictive dyadic conceptual metaphors

The most recurrent CM dyads are GUIDE-OPPRESSOR, FRIEND-ENEMY, FAIR COURT JUDGE-UNFAIR COURT JUDGE, ROLE MODEL-WEED, AND MESSENGER-STRAY ANIMAL and PSYCHOTIC. The GUIDE-OPPRESSOR dyad accounts for 26.5% of the overall LMs, with 17 of these going to GUIDE and 35 to OPPRESSOR.

The GUIDE-OPPRESSOR dyad accounts for 52 instances of LMs, which is over one-quarter of the overall LMs produced by students, with 17 instances for GUIDE and 35 for OPPRESSOR. Thus, teachers at COLT are perceived more as oppressors than guides by the students, which may not pave the way for a sound learning environment. As a travel guide, the teacher is a facilitator of learning and an invaluable support to the student. (F13) says: “The teacher is ... the guide of the student's development, progress, and success in the future.” Travel suggests that LEARNING IS A JOURNEY where the student and the teacher are co-travelers even if the teacher has a different role from the student. The teacher is necessary for the student's wellbeing, but neither the travel guide is a guide without the traveler, nor is the traveler a traveler without the travel guide, whose job is to indicate the way. Thus, the concepts of guide and journey make this conceptualization learning-oriented.

However, as an oppressor the teacher is evaluated negatively, which establishes a tense relation between teacher and learner. (E4) says: “The teacher is a dictator, and the student humiliates himself to graduate.” The oppressive conceptualization of the teacher is inherited from the politics domain, whereby the teacher is thought to exploit his position at the expense of the vulnerable stance of the student to the point that this exercise of power on the part of the

teacher humiliates the student as expressed in (E4). This conceptualization is teacher-oriented, which does not serve the learning process.

The FRIEND-ENEMY dyad accounts for 32 LMs, which represents 16.3% of the overall LMs, with 24 going to FRIEND and 8 to ENEMY. Clearly, the student-teacher relations lean more towards friendship than enmity. (R3) says: "My relation with the teachers in the program is an intimate one" while (F26) says: "When I ask him for anything, he refuses, yells, and belittles me." It might be argued that calling someone a friend is not a metaphor. For instance, Low (2003) suggests that the teacher as a friend and the teacher as a learning partner are metonymies (p. 250). In our data, the befriended teacher is a metaphor, because in the Arab sub-cultures the friendship frame for students does not literally include the teacher. A teacher is still surrounded by a halo in the Arab sub-cultures even if this is being challenged and contested. While the TEACHER AS A FRIEND is learning-oriented the TEACHER AS AN ENEMY does not serve learning.

The FAIR COURT JUDGE-UNFAIR COURT JUDGE dyad accounts for 5.6% of the overall LMs, with 5 going to FAIR COURT JUDGE and 6 to UNFAIR COURT JUDGE, which shows that students are equally divided on the issue of the fairness of their teachers. For a teacher to be a fair or unfair judge may be a student assessment-related issue. (S6) says: "The teacher does not discriminate between students, and is fair to all students" while (F8) says: "Some teachers favor some students over others, which bothers me greatly." From experience with Saudi students, the researchers know that most high-achieving students tend to think of their teachers as fair judges while most low-achieving students often blame their low achievement or even failure on the teacher, and often have a bone to pick with the teacher who praises achievers, gives them some concessions, or treats them in a special way, which is considered as unfairness by these students. Thus, the fair judge CM is conducive to learning while the unfair court judge CM is detrimental to it.

The ROLE MODEL-WEED dyad accounts for 5.6% of the overall LMs, with 10 going to ROLE MODEL and 1 to WEED. Like the FRIEND-ENEMY dyad, the first member of the dyad overwhelmingly dominates, which suggests a positive evaluation of the teacher. For a teacher to be a role model is to serve as an ideal for the student to emulate. (C3) says: "Spending more time with the teacher than with his own brother, a teacher influences the student who considers him as a role model." Although this CM is teacher-oriented, it may be thought as psychologically facilitating learning since looking forward to the teacher as a role model may carry with it positive results for the learning process. However, (F50) says: "Very few teachers spoil the student's psychology and productivity, thus they should be uprooted." This "weed" metaphor must have arisen from an unfortunate experience that one student had with a teacher. The entailment of (F50) suggests nuisance to the life of surrounding life, which requires uprooting the teacher, i.e. ending his contract. This student must have been turned off from learning. Fortunately, only one student out of 173 holds this attitude about his teachers.

The MESSENGER-CAREGIVER-SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE versus STRAY ANIMAL and PSYCHOTIC dyad accounts for 4.5% of the overall LMs, with 1 for each of MESSENGER, STRAY ANIMAL, and PSYCHOTIC, and 3 for each of CAREGIVER and SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE. (C7) says: "The teacher could have been a messenger." In the Arab culture, people think so high of the teacher as a social role that the latter has been likened to a messenger as epitomized by the Egyptian poet Ahmed Shawqi: "Stand up to the teacher and give him enough veneration; the

teacher could have been a messenger.” The entailments of this CM have to do with the sanctity of the teachings of the teacher and obedience to him. Although only one out of the 173 COLT students has conceptualized his teachers as a messenger, this religious veneration certainly has a positive impact on the learning process of this very student.

In contrast, (F20) says: “If let to graze with animals in pastures, some teachers cannot return to their barn while other animals can.” In actual fact, the teacher here is conceptualized as less than an animal. Moreover, (E50) says: “Many of the [teachers] have psychologically disturbed personality, and oppress students. If you see their exams questions, you realize that they are real psychopaths.” Even though these are very limited cases and the students may have their own reasons to think of their teachers negatively, it hurts for the teacher to be conceptualized as a stray animal and a psychopath. Apart from the CM of MESSENGER, the negative conceptualizations show that interpersonal relations are irrevocably damaged between student and teacher, which is highly detrimental to the learning process.

On a more positive tone, (G4) conceptualized THE TEACHER AS A CAREGIVER as follows: “The teacher is concerned with the student, and gives him help at any time the student needs that” while (G1) conceptualized THE TEACHER AS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE in the following way: “When the teacher transfers his knowledge to the student in a good way, the latter will certainly remember the teacher forever.” Thus, this affective perception of the teacher is likely to be conducive to cognitive learning.

Thus, the overall conclusion about these conflictive dyads is that the students tend to slightly lean towards the positive member of the dyad, with 64 positive and 52 negative LMs. Teachers are conceptualized more as friends than enemies and more as role models than weeds. However, it seems that COLT students consider their teachers to be more oppressors than guides.

4.2.2. Kinship-based conceptual metaphors

The previous sub-section has addressed what for the purposes of the article have been called conflictive dyadic CMs. These CMs account for 80 out of 196 LMs, which is 40.8% of the overall total. In the current sub-section, the CMs capitalize on the kinship system, and are all positive conceptualizations of the teacher.

THE TEACHER IS A FATHER capitalizes on the father figure as the head of the family. (H7) says: “The relation between the student and the teacher is that between a son and his father.” Although the figure of father is not evocative of progeny here since it is used metaphorically, the entailments of the CM emerge precisely from the concept of fatherhood, whereby the student in (H7) considers himself the “son” of his teacher. In the Arab culture, the father, together with the mother, is revered as the one who has given birth to their children. Barakat (1993) points out that “the father continues to wield authority, assume responsibility for the family, and expect respect and unquestioning compliance with his instructions.” Even outside the family, “a father figure rules over others, monopolizing authority, expecting strict obedience, and showing little tolerance of dissent” (p. 23). Thus, non-metaphorically and metaphorically the concept of FATHER is very influential in shaping the family and society in Arab countries. In the Qu’raan, God exhorts humans to give due respect to their parents, mentioning them after the worship of God.^{vii}

The FATHER frame includes being responsible for feeding, clothing, and educating one's children. It also includes providing them with the necessary care, affection, and protection up to a later age than in western countries, which motivates the use of the father metaphor for the teacher at the university level. A father may also be expected to be caring and understanding. According to the CM, THE TEACHER IS A FATHER, the teacher is not expected to satisfy the material needs of the student as a father does for his children. Rather, he is expected to show his students that he is a caring and understanding teacher, i.e. morally supportive of them. Conceptualizing the teacher as a father is considering him socially superior owing to the knowledge he has. So, as a metaphoric son, the student acknowledges the power that the teacher has over him but expects the teacher to return the favor in respect and assessment terms. Although this CM is teacher-oriented, it is affective learning-oriented, and is likely to enhance learning.

Like its father counterpart, THE TEACHER IS A BROTHER evokes the family frame; being a brother is being on the same lineage as another offspring of the same parents. (P2) says: "The teacher is a brother." In the Islamic tradition, brotherhood is conceptualized metaphorically, whereby fellow Muslims are called "brothers in Allah" or "brothers in Islam." Brothers in Islam share the same faith and believe in and worship the same deity. A popular saying about this conception of brotherhood is: "Love for your brother what you desire for yourself." Perhaps the brother metaphor here is motivated by this Islamic tradition of brotherhood. Cognitively, the brother metaphor emerges from an image schema of HORIZONTALITY, where both brothers, i.e. the student and the teacher, stand at the same remove from each other, thus positing the student on the same footing as the teacher.

Socially, the brother frame includes mutual interests, mutual trust, and mutual assistance. A brother expects his brother to be informal, easygoing, and outgoing. Obviously, not all of the categories in the brother frame are recovered in THE TEACHER AS A BROTHER. Owing to the difference in age group between the student and the teacher, the latter becomes an elder brother to the former, which links up with the concept of respect invoked earlier on in this article. Even though the teacher may be posited as deserving respect, the student expects this respect to be reciprocated with mutual interests, mutual trust, and mutual assistance. In conceptualizing their teachers as brothers, the students aspire to the status of peers with them. This CM seems to be more learning-oriented as conceptualizing the teacher as a brother may facilitate or enhance learning.

A less important kinship-oriented CM than THE TEACHER IS A FATHER and THE TEACHER IS A BROTHER is THE TEACHER IS A KIN. (J3) says: "In the Japanese program, I feel as if I were in a family; we have fathers, who are our teachers and we have brothers who are the students." Conceptualizing the teacher as a kin is positioning him within the extended family. Barakat (1993) points out that "the traditional Arab family constitutes an economic and social unit in all three Arab patterns of living—Bedouin, rural, and urban—in the sense that all members cooperate to secure its livelihood and improve its standing in the community... The success or failure of an individual member becomes that of the family as a whole" (p. 23). Since the Saudi society is a collectivist one, allegiance to the family is very strong and allegiance to the tribe is even stronger.

Thus, the kinship-based CMs are overwhelmingly positive conceptualizations of the teacher. However, while THE TEACHER IS A FATHER and THE TEACHER IS A BROTHER capitalized on the nuclear family and social closeness, THE TEACHER IS A KIN capitalizes on the extended family or even the tribe.

5. Discussion

This section focuses on two items: (i) the semantic domains capitalized upon by students to conceptualize their teachers, and (ii) the distribution of the instantiations of CMs per department.

In their narratives, COLT students seem to have downplayed academic criteria and privileged familial, social, and interpersonal factors in evaluating their teachers. The only immediately academia-related factor is knowledge, in which they seem to consider their teachers as very hard acts to follow. Could we have expected them to make use of academic factors to evaluate their teachers? The answer is probably in the negative, because students are students everywhere. In order of importance, the semantic domains capitalized upon include the kinship system (FATHER, BROTHER, and KIN), violence (OPPRESSOR), tourism (TRAVEL GUIDE), friendship (FRIEND), enmity (ENEMY), the legal system (FAIR COURT JUDGE-UNFAIR COURT JUDGE), stardom (ROLE MODEL), affection (CAREGIVER), mental disorders (PSYCHOTIC), the animal kingdom (STRAY ANIMAL), agriculture (WEED), and religion (MESSENGER).

The positive-negative distribution of the instantiations of CMs per department is summed up in table 3:

Table 3. Instantiations of CMs per department

Type of conceptualization	DELT	%	DFLT	%	DMLT	%
Positive conceptualization	27	51.92	52	73.23	65	89
Negative conceptualization	25	48	19	26.76	8	10.95
Total	52		71		73	

As Table 3 shows, the DELT has the least positive conceptualizations and the most negative ones while the DMLT has the most positive conceptualizations and the least negative ones, with the DFLT in between both departments. However, the three departments are equal in conceptualizing their teachers as friends (8 instances), unfair court judges (2 instances), and caregivers (1 instance).

Compared to the DFLT and the DMLT, the DELT offers the most negative conceptualizations of the teacher even though the positive (27) and negative (25) are almost equivalent. Indeed, over 34% of the DELT students think of their teachers as oppressors and 3.4% as their enemies against 19% considering them as part of the family, about 14% as friends, 3.4% as their guides, and 1.7% as role models for them. The fact that 34 out of 58 students conceptualize their teachers as oppressors is an alarmingly frightening evaluation which deserves scrutiny and resolution. The students are not very explicit in their narratives about why they qualify their teachers as oppressors, but it seems that teachers' lack of socialization with their students, which is encouraged by the nature of Saudi society, is interpreted as haughtiness and

indifference, which aloofness and lack of socialization are, in turn, interpreted as authority on the part of the teacher. Another explanation of this conceptualization may lie in the cosmopolitan nature of DELT, which accounts for at least six different nationalities. Although the students are exposed to teachers of Arab origin, they may be experiencing difficulty in coping with different Arab sub-cultures and mentalities, which are felt to be alien and oppressive to them.

The DFLT shows more positive and less negative conceptualizations of their teachers than the DELT. Indeed, 56.6% of the DFLT students conceptualize their teachers as part of their family, 15% as guides, 15% as friends, and 9.4% as role models for them. However, 18.86% consider their teachers as oppressors and 9.4% as their enemies, which is slightly higher than the DELT's. The DFLT students have used two very negative conceptualizations, namely STRAY ANIMAL and WEED. Although the number is insignificant, it suggests a very tense student-teacher interpersonal relation. It should be pointed out that the DFLT is not less cosmopolitan than the DELT, and yet it seems that its students have a higher opinion of their teachers.

As pointed out earlier on, the DMLT accounts for the most positive conceptualizations of teachers and the least negative ones. Indeed, about 60% of the DMLT students have conceptualized their teachers as part of their family, 13% as friends, 11.29% as guides, and 6.45% as role models. The DMLT is the only department to have produced the MESSENGER CM, which bestows a reverential dimension on teachers. As to negative conceptualizations, the DMLT has marked the lowest percentage, with only 8% conceptualizing their teachers as oppressors and 1.6% as enemies.

The situation in the DMLT deserves dwelling upon. The DMLT is a heterogeneous department, including eight European and Asian languages, and more cosmopolitan than the DELT and DFLT. Although it employs many nationalities such as Chinese, Egyptian, German, Moroccan, Iranian, Saudi, Spanish, Syrian, Tunisian, Turkish, etc., the most dominant one is the Egyptian one. Historically, Egyptians are known for their knowledge of the Saudi mentality in education since they have taken part in partly shaping it. Therefore, they mostly know better than other nationalities how to deal with Saudi students. Another fact relates to the number of students at the DMLT. Compared to the DELT and the DFLT, the DMLT has the lowest student-faculty ratio. Because classes include very few students, teachers and students get to know each other better, which creates special bonds of "friendship," solidarity, and familiarity between them. Because having fewer students helps the learning process, this is also helping student-teacher relations to be friendly and less vertical than they are expected in the Arab world.

The following table 4 sums up the various positive and negative CMs shared by the departments, and their percentile count per department.

Table 4. Positive and negative conceptualizations per department

CMs	DMLT	DFLT	DELT
FATHER/BROTHER/KIN	60%	56.6%	19%
ROLE MODEL	6.45%	9.4%	1.7%
FRIEND	13%	15%	14%
GUIDE	11.29%	15%	3.4%
OPPRESSOR	8%	18.86%	34%
ENEMY	1.6%	9.4%	3.4%

Conclusion

The objective of the current article has been to capture the metaphoric conceptualization of teachers by their own students at COLT. The population of the study was made of 173 students from the three departments at COLT. To collect data, the researchers use the prompt technique to elicit a narrative of the students' account of how they perceive their teachers. Data analysis adopts a qualitative-cum-quantitative method, and hinges on Lakoff & Johnson's (1980) contemporary theory of metaphor which allows the researchers to move from the students' linguistic expressions to their ensuing conceptual metaphors.

The findings reveal a set of conflictive student-generated dyadic CMs and kinship-based CMs, mostly evaluating teachers positively according to affective style criteria such as familial, social, and interpersonal factors. In spite of conflictive CMs, the students' narratives are mostly positive as can be shown in table 5 below:

Table 5. Positive and negative CMs and their instantiations

	Positive conceptualizations		Negative conceptualizations	
1	THE TEACHER IS A TRAVEL GUIDE	17	THE TEACHER IS AN OPPRESSOR	35
2	THE TEACHER IS A FRIEND	24	THE TEACHER IS AN ENEMY	8
3	THE TEACHER IS A FAIR COURT JUDGE	5	THE TEACHER IS AN UNFAIR COURT JUDGE	6
4	THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE	3	THE TEACHER IS A STRAY ANIMAL	1
5	THE TEACHER IS A FATHER	37	THE TEACHER IS A WEED	1
6	THE TEACHER IS A BROTHER	37	THE TEACHER IS A PSYCHOTIC	1
7	THE TEACHER IS A KIN	6		
8	THE TEACHER IS A ROLE MODEL	10		
9	THE TEACHER IS A CAREGIVER	3		
10	THE TEACHER IS A MESSENGER	2		
	Total	144		52

According to these conceptualizations, teachers have been evaluated in terms of sociocultural frames of judges, friends, enemies, etc. and kinship frames such as fathers, brothers, and other kin and not from within the professional teacher frame.

However, at the level of the departments, there is a difference as can be shown in the following recapitulative table 6:

Table 6. Percentile of CMs per department

Type of conceptualization	DELT	DFLT	DMLT
Positive conceptualization	51.92%	73.23%	89%
Negative conceptualization	48%	26.76%	10.95%

As is clear in Table 6, in the DFLT three-quarters of the conceptualizations are positive and one-quarter is negative while in DMLT 90% positive and 10% negative. However, in DELT over 50% of the conceptualizations are negative and approximately 50% are positive. These

findings, especially those of DELT, may serve as an indicator to COLT and its departments as to where the teacher-student relations go wrong and how they can be improved and consolidated to facilitate learning.

Acknowledgement

The authors are grateful to the Deanship of Scientific Research at king Saud University and the Research Center at the College of Languages and Translation for funding the current research.

References

- Anderson, M. R., Ingram, J. M., Buford, B. J., Rosli, R., Bledsoe, M. L. & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2012). Doctoral students' perceptions of characteristics of effective college teachers: A mixed analysis. *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*, 7, 279-309.
- Barakat, H. (1993). *The Arab world: Society, culture, and state*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Berendt, E. (2008). Intersections and diverging paths: Conceptual patterns on learning in English and Japanese. In E. Berendt (Ed.), *Metaphors of learning* (pp. 73-102). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Botha, E. (2009). Why metaphor matters in education. *South African Journal of Education*, 29, 431-444.
- Cacciari, C. (1998). Why do we speak metaphorically? Reflections on the functions of metaphor in discourse and reasoning. In A. N. Katz, C. Cacciari, R. Gibbs, & M. Turner (Eds.), *Figurative language and thought* (pp. 119-157). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Carter, K. (1993). The place of story in the study of teaching and teacher education. *Educational Researcher*, 22(1), 5-12+18.
- Castro, A. J. (2012). Visionaries, reformers, saviors, and opportunists: Visions and metaphors for teaching in the urban schools. *Education and Urban Society*, 20(10), 1-26.
- Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1999). Bridges to learning: Metaphors of teaching, learning and language. In L. Cameron & G. Low (Eds.), *Researching and applying metaphor* (pp. 149-176). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ghabanchi, Z., & Talebi, F. (2012). Exploring Iranian university students' beliefs about professors' roles: A quantitative study. *World Journal of English Language*, 2(1), 57-63.
- Gorham, J. & Christophel, D. M. (1992). Students' perceptions of teacher behaviors as motivating and demotivating factors in college classes. *Communication Quarterly*, 40(3), 239-252.
- Green, T. F. (1993). Learning without metaphor. In A. Ortony (Ed.), *Metaphor and thought* (2 ed., pp. 610-620). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hiraga, M. K. (1997-8). Japanese metaphors for learning. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 7(2), 7-22.
- Hiraga, M. K. (2008). *Tao of learning: Metaphors Japanese students live by*. In E. Berendt (Ed.), *Metaphors of learning* (pp. 55-72). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Jensen, D. F. N. (2006). Metaphors as a bridge to understanding educational and social contexts. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(1), 1-17.
- Jin, L. & Cortazzi, M. (2008). Images of teachers, learning and questioning in Chinese cultures of learning. In E. Berendt (Ed.), *Metaphors of learning* (pp. 176-202). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

- Kranenburg, I., & Kelly, L. (2012). Cultivating quality: Engaging with academic quality through metaphor. *Journal of Teaching and Education*, 1(5), 249-259.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Lakoff, G., & Turner, M. (1989). *More than cool reason: A field guide to poetic metaphor*. Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Low, G. D. (1988). On teaching metaphor. *Applied Linguistics*, 9(2), 125-147.
- Low, G. D. (2003). Validating metaphoric models in applied linguistics. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 18(4), 239-254.
- Maalej, Z. (2008). Metaphors of learning and knowledge in the Tunisian context: A case of re-categorization. In E. Berendt (Ed.), *Metaphors of learning* (pp. 205-223). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Martinez, M. A., Sauleada, N. & Huber, G. L. (2001). Metaphors as blueprints of thinking about teaching and learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 965-977.
- Michael, K. & Malamitsa, K. (2009). Exploring Greek teachers' beliefs using metaphors. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(2), 63-83.
- Nikitina, L. & Furuoka, F. (2008a). Measuring metaphors: A factor analysis of students' conceptions of language teachers. *Metaphorik*, 15, 161-180.
- Nikitina, L. & Furuoka, F. (2008b). "A language teacher is like...": Examining Malaysian students' perceptions of language teachers through metaphor analysis. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 5(2), 192-205.
- Ortony, A. (Ed.) (1979). *Metaphor and thought*. London/New York: CUP.
- Ortony, A. (Ed.) (1993). *Metaphor and thought* (2nd ed.). London/New York: CUP.
- Oxford, R. L., Tomlinson, S., Barcelos, A., Harrington, C., Lavine, R. Z., Saleh, A., & Longhini, A. (1998). Clashing metaphors about classroom teachers: Toward a systematic typology for the language teaching. *System*, 26, 3-50.
- Patchen, T., & Crawford, T. (2011). From gardeners to travel guides: The epistemological struggle revealed in teacher-generated metaphors of teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 62, 286-298.
- Petrie, H. G., & Oshlag, R. S. (1993). Metaphor and learning. In A. Ortony (Ed.), *Metaphor and thought* (2 ed., pp. 579-609). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Pishghadam, R., & Navari, S. (2010). Examining Iranian Language Learners' Perceptions of Language Education in Formal and Informal Contexts: A Quantitative Study. *MJAL*, 2(1), 171-185.
- Ponterotto, D. (1994). Metaphors we can learn by. *English Teaching Forum*, 32(3), 2-7.
- Shephard, K. (2008). Higher education for sustainability: Seeking affective learning outcomes. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 9(1), 87-98.
- Sticht, T. G. (1993). Educational uses of metaphor. In A. Ortony (Ed.), *Metaphor and thought* (2 ed., pp. 621-632). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swan, J. (1993). Metaphor in action: The observation schedule in a reflective approach to teacher education. *ELT Journal*, 47(3), 242-249.
- Teven, J., & James C. McCroskey (1996). The relationship of perceived teacher caring with student learning and teacher evaluation. *Communication Education*, 46, 1-9.
- Thomas, L. & Beauchamp, C. (2011). Understanding new teachers' professional identities through metaphor. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 762-769.

- Thornbury, S. (1991). Metaphors we work by: EFL and its metaphors. *ELT Journal*, 45(3), 193-200.
- Weaver-Hightower, Marcus B. (2008). An ecology metaphor for educational policy analysis: A call to complexity. *Educational Researcher*, 37(3), 153-167.

Endnotes

ⁱ The authors are indebted to a reviewer for AWEJ journal for his/her insightful comments, which helped improve the quality of the current article. However, responsibility for the contents is incumbent on the authors.

ⁱⁱ The publication in question is: Al-Ghabban, M., S. Ben Salamh, & Z. Maalej (2016). Metaphoric modeling of foreign language teaching and learning, with special reference to teaching philosophy statements. *Applied Linguistics*, 37 (doi:10.1093/applin/amv053).

ⁱⁱⁱ COLT faculty list- Itqaan Program: Quality Unit, College of Languages & Translation, King Saud University.

^{iv} Article 155: "Co-education is disallowed between males and females at all educational levels, except at nursery schools and kindergarten" (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Educational Policy Document, 1937, ch.2, Girls' education).

^v Are co-ed or single-sex lessons best? Co-ed schools are increasingly keen to teach their boys and girls separately, according to one Cambridge academic. But is this really a good idea? *The Guardian*, Wednesday 2 December 2009 (<http://www.guardian.co.uk/education/2009/dec/02/co-eds-or-single-sex>).

^{vi} Students Attack Teachers in Fire, Pencil, Punching, and Kidnapping Incidents (Dec 2, 2013). Accessed on 24-1-2014 at <http://freefabulousgirl.com/2013/12/02/students-attack-teachers-in-fire-pencil-punching-and-kidnapping-incidents/>

^{vii} "Thy Lord hath decreed that ye worship none but Him, and that ye be kind to parents. Whether one or both of them attain old age in thy life, say not to them a word of contempt, nor repel them, but address them in terms of honor. And, out of kindness, lower to them the wing of humility, and say: 'My Lord! Bestow on them thy Mercy even as they cherished me in childhood'." Sura XVII, Bani Israil or the Children of Israel, Verses 23-24.

The Effectiveness of Dynamic Discussion Model in English Learning

Ridha Fadillah

English Education Department
Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teachers Training
Antasari State Institute for Islamic Studies Banjarmasin
Indonesia

Abstract

This article reports on the experimental research of 34 second (2nd) grade students from two senior high schools in Banjarbaru, South Kalimantan-Indonesia. This experimental research is the third phase of Educational Research and Development. The phases are exploration phase, development phase, and testing phase. The aim of this experimental research was to better understand the effectiveness of English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory. The developed model was called as Dynamic discussion model. This model was applied on experiment class, while conventional model was on control class. Observation guide and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale questionnaire were used as instruments in collecting data. The collected data were analyzed statistically. The results showed that the students' English anxiety at pre-anxiety test in the experiment class and control class were at high level. The students' English anxiety at the post-anxiety test in the control class was still at a high level while the students' English anxiety at post-anxiety test in the experiment class was at a moderate level. This experimental research indicated that there was a significant difference of effectiveness English learning model in the experiment class and the control class. The result showed that English learning model in experiment class was more effective than the other one. Dynamic discussion model were able to reduce students' negative anxiety in English class.

Keywords: *dynamic discussion, effectiveness, model and constructivism theory, negative anxiety, reduction*

Introduction

This experimental research is the third phase of three phases in educational research and development. The first phase was exploration to study the existing model used by the English teachers, analyze the need of the developing model, and study the related literature. The second phase was model development, it was to develop and trying out the prototype model. The third phase was model testing or validating phase by conducting experimental research (Borg & Gall, 1983). In this phase, the learning model used was English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory.

The English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory is a development of cooperative learning under constructivism theory. Six phases in this model refers to cooperative learning model phases. The strength of this developed model is on discussion which is conducted from small to larger scale in learning activity. The English learning activity is designed in order to reduce the student's negative anxiety. Then the developed model is called Dydi model standing for dynamic discussion (Fadillah, 2013). It has several special characteristics namely teacher as student's anxiety reducer, concerned with student's negative anxiety, emphasis on social interaction, cooperative, preparing the student's preparation, teacher as facilitator, teacher as motivator, and creative. The elaborations of characteristics that must be considered in the development of this model are as follows:

1. Teacher as student's anxiety reducer

The role of the teacher as an anxiety reduction is needed in learning English. Teachers are expected to be able to create a pleasant atmosphere of the classroom by being friendly to the students.

2. Concerned with student's negative anxiety

Teacher is aware of the anxiety in learning English. The three components of foreign language anxiety are communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Teachers realize that these three components experienced by students in foreign language classes and they influence negatively to the student achievement.

3. Emphasis on social interaction

Good interaction between teacher-student and student-student is the basis for the creation of a comfortable and not stressful classroom environment. Interaction in the classroom is as learning for students to acquire good social skills.

4. Cooperative

Students work and learn together to achieve learning goals. In a group, students have different roles so the students' activeness keeps happening. Positive interdependence among students, promotive interaction, individual and group accountability, and social skill are the elements of cooperative learning.

5. Preparing the student's preparation

Teachers provide students with opportunities to acquire both learning material preparation and mental preparation, so that students become more active in the foreign language classroom. Good preparation can increase the student self-confidence. Firstly, students connect their life experiences with the learning material as prior knowledge, their ideas is expressed in paired discussion, after getting adequate preparation, discussion is continued on 4-6 students discussion per group, then class discussion is formed.

6. Teacher as facilitator

Teachers facilitate students in acquiring new knowledge. The new knowledge for students can be acquired through social interactions in which teachers facilitate the learning process.

Cooperative learning that emphasizes on social interaction is important thing in teaching and learning process.

7. Teacher as motivator

Teachers encourage students to always use English in the classroom as an English learning/training medium before applied in the real life.

8. Creative

Students express thoughts/ideas widely related to the learning material, so that student creativity and activeness are more and more increased (Fadillah, 2015:18-20).

After considering the characteristics above, phases in English learning model based on negative anxiety reduction through constructivism theory is discussed. The phases in English learning model based on negative anxiety reduction through constructivism theory are as follows.

The developed model consists of three learning activities namely introduction, main, and closing activities. From the three activities, it is applied six phases in cooperative learning namely (1) presenting goals and set; (2) presenting information; (3) organizing students into learning teams; (4) assisting in team work and study; (5) testing on the materials; and (6) providing recognition (Suprijono, 2011:65). From these six phases, it will be elaborated the details of learning activities. They are:

1. Opening

In this activity, phase I on cooperative learning that is presenting goals and set is used. The details of learning activities are conveying the ethical values, motivating the students in order to use English without feeling anxious, doing brainstorming, conveying learning objective, conveying the importance of the learning material.

2. Main

This activity is carried out systematically through phases II, III, and IV in cooperative learning namely presenting information, organizing students into learning teams, and assisting in team work and study. The details of learning activities are explaining the concept of the material, facilitating the students with pair discussion, followed with four to six in group discussions and a class discussion.

For pair discussion, a student with his or her couple discusses the learning material cooperatively, one student is as questioner, and the other is as answerer, these positions should be interchanged. Then four to six students in a group discussion is the next activity. The students discusses the learning material cooperatively, each student has a different task or a role; for example one student is as questioner, one student is as answerer, one student is as debater of the answerer or moderator, and one student is as conclusion maker. In cooperative group, every student has different task or role so every student will be active in learning. Results of group discussion are presented by the groups in their desks so class discussion is formed.

3. Closing

The closing is done systematically through phases V and VI on cooperative learning that is testing on the materials and providing recognition. The details of learning activities are doing

reinforcement and feedback, making conclusions, evaluating, providing recognition and giving homework (Fadillah, 2015:20-21).

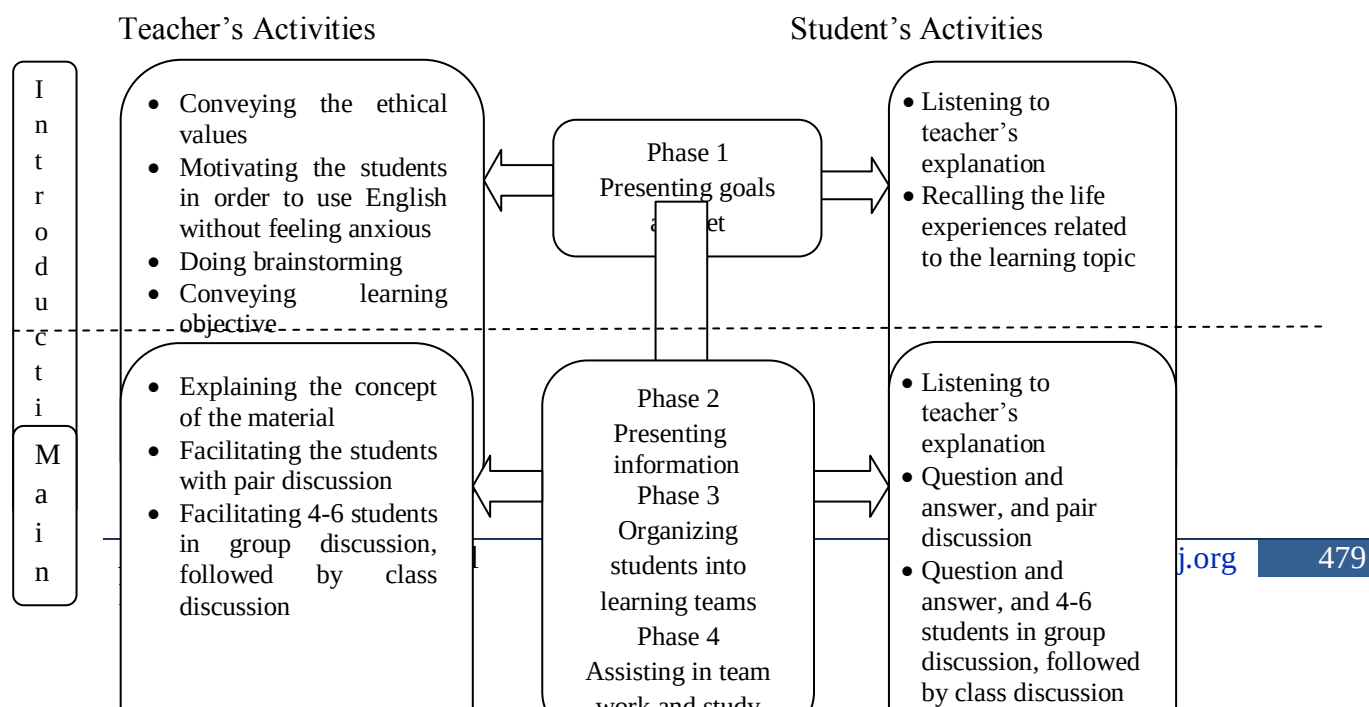
From the learning phases, it can be arranged syntagmatic of English learning model based on negative anxiety reduction as follows:

Table 1. Syntagmatic of English learning model based on negative anxiety reduction

Activity	Learning Phase	Details of Activities
Introduction	I. Presenting goals and set	• Conveying the ethical values • Motivating the students in order to use English without feeling anxious • Doing brainstorming • Conveying learning objective • Conveying the importance of the learning material
Main	II. Presenting information III. Organizing students into learning teams IV. Assisting in team work and study	• Explaining the concept of the material • Facilitating the students with pair discussion • 4-6 students in group discussion, followed by class discussion
Closing	V. Testing on the materials VI. Providing recognition	• Doing reinforcement • Providing feedback • Making conclusion • Evaluating • Providing recognition • Giving homework

Source: Fadillah (2015:22)

From the Syntagmatic of English learning model based on negative anxiety reduction above, it can be described the learning activities. The learning activities are as follows:



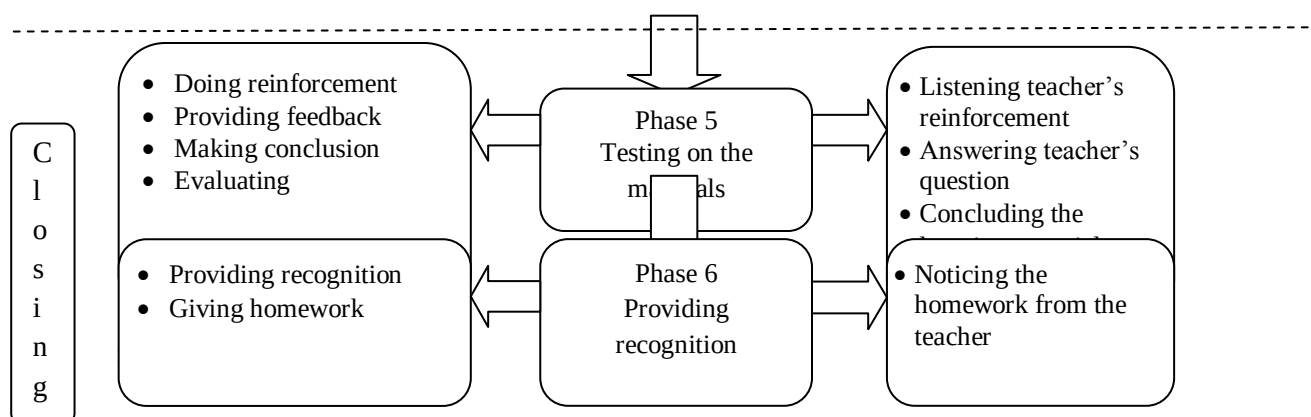


Figure 1. Learning activities

Research Method

The research in this step was conducted through experimental research. The design was quasi-experimental design where the researcher gave treatment to research subjects to better understand the influence of the treatment, specifically by using nonequivalent control group design. The given treatment was English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory (Dynamic Discussion Model) to experiment group and conventional English learning to control group.

The research was conducted in October 2012. Population in this research was second grade students in two senior high schools in Banjarbaru, South Kalimantan-Indonesia. The samples of the research were students from one class second grade students in those schools. The researcher determined the schools randomly. The researcher determined Senior High School Q and Senior High School B as research location, one class from Senior High School Q was as experiment group and one class from Senior High School B was as control group. There were 21 students in experiment group and 13 students in control group. Beside the students, two English teachers from those schools were the subjects of this research.

The independent variable in this research is English learning model based on negative anxiety reduction (Dynamic Discussion Model) and conventional English learning. Experiment class is given English learning model based on negative anxiety reduction (Dynamic Discussion Model) while control class is running as existing model namely conventional English learning. The dependent variable in this research is English anxiety.

In this experimental research, the instruments used for collecting data were modified Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) questionnaire and participant observation. The students' anxiety was measured by the modified FLCAS. FLCAS would test on three components which were the students' communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety (Horwitz *et al*, 1986). It was a four-point Likert scale questionnaire, ranging from highly true (*sangat benar*) to highly not true (*sangat tidak benar*). The scale used range from one (1) for low to four (4) for high. Highly true (*sangat benar*) was coded by 4 and highly

not true (*sangat tidak benar*) was coded by 1. The questionnaire survey consisted of 27 statements/questions. The items dealt with positive sentences. Negative statements/questions from the original FLCAS were replaced by positive statements to avoid misinterpretation by the students as Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) write that items which contain a negative construction are deceptive because responding to the items can be problematic. While the observation sheet was used to gain data about English class activity to better understand the effectiveness of developed learning model. There were three rubrics to be assessed in terms of class activity; they were class management, activity of discussion, and cooperative attitude.

Some testing methods in this experimental research are described in table 2 below:

Table 2. Testing methods

Hypothesis	Statistical Test
H ₀₁ : Sample has normal distribution	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
H ₀₂ : The two classes has similar variance or homogeneity	Levene test
H ₀₃ : The two Means are identical (There is no significant difference of English anxiety between pre-anxiety test and post-anxiety test by control class).	Paired sample t test
H ₀₄ : The two Means are identical (There is no significant difference of English anxiety between pre-anxiety test and post-anxiety test by experiment class).	Paired sample t test
H ₀₅ : There is a significant difference in English anxiety between posttest by experiment class and posttest by control class.	Independent sample t test F-Test , t-Test.

Results and Discussion

Results

From observation results in control class and experiment class which was given the treatment English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory (Dynamic Discussion Model) in experimental research, it could be seen the effectiveness of the developed model.

The measurement of learning effectiveness in control class and experiment class was obtained from observation sheet through three rubrics to be assessed in terms of class activity; they were class management, activity of discussion, and cooperative attitude which was analyzed descriptively by finding the sum of scores.

In this part, the researcher described the learning activity both control class and experiment class. From control class, it was founded that the learning model used was conventional model. Learning approach was centered to the teacher. Firstly, the class was praying, and checking the

students' presence as the opening activity, directly followed by explaining the concept of learning material and doing the given exercises in the book. Finally, the teacher asked the students to answer and corrected them together. From rubric of class management, it was noted that the scores obtained for the meetings were less than 24.5 as the lowest category.

Scores for rubric of discussion and cooperative attitude were not obtained because there were not discussions in those meetings. It fits well with Goser (2008) who finds in his study that teachers do not apply a systematic strategy, method or technique in teaching a foreign language and they give lessons with traditional methods. He also adds that the teachers measure the students' acquisition level of language skill with oral tests, performance homework assignments, written exams and tests. Regardless of their measurement means, the first thing that the teachers look for is students' recalling degree of the information taught (cognitive proficiency). It is obvious that teacher in control class with conventional model did not aware to students' language anxiety, so this particular model could not bring the students to the activeness in the classroom because it could not reduce the students' language anxiety.

On the contrary, from experiment class, the learning model used was English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory (Dynamic Discussion Model). Learning approach was centered to the students. The learning activity was divided into three activity; they were opening, main, and closing activities. These parts of activities followed the six phases in cooperative learning; they were present goals and set, present information, organize students into learning teams, assist team work and study, test on the materials, and provide recognition (Suprijono, 2011:65). Then these six phases were elaborated into details activities; the first phase was conveying the ethical values, motivating the students in order to use English without anxious feeling, doing brainstorming, conveying learning objective, conveying the important of the learning material, the second phase was explaining the concept of material, the third and fourth phases were facilitating the students with pair discussion, followed with four to six in group discussion and class discussion, the fifth and sixth phases were doing reinforcement and feedback, making conclusion, evaluating and providing recognition.

From rubric of class management, it was noted that the scores obtained for the meetings were more than 45.51 as the highest category.

In experiment class, the first meeting showed scores 80 for discussion and 80 for cooperative attitude, while the last meeting showed the highest rating 90 for discussion and 100 for cooperative attitude. The scores were the result of evaluation and discussion between the English teacher and the researcher. From the observation, the developed English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory was more effective than the other model (conventional model). It could reduce the students' English negative anxiety so the students' activeness indicated increasing in English classroom. English classroom atmosphere became unstressed and pleasure. Students' cooperative attitude and activeness in discussion increased in every meeting as positive effect of students' negative anxiety reduction in English class.

From FLCAS questionnaire, it was found that the Cronbach's alpha obtained was 0.916. Sekaran (2000) explains that alpha exceeding 0.8 has a very high reliability. For alpha around 0.7

to 0.8, it is considered as average and could be accepted. Whereas for alpha which is lower than 0.6, the reliability is considered to be weak.

In table 3, score in column statistic K-S on control class is 0.144 and 0.156 for experiment class. Probability (sig.) shows that control class and experiment class are 0.2 which is higher than 0.05. So, H_0 is accepted. It means that data of control and experiment class follow the normal distribution.

Table 3. Tests of Normality

	Class	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Score	Control	.144	13	.200(*)	.966	13	.844
	Experieme	.156	21	.200(*)	.900	21	.035

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 4 indicates that measurement Levene statistic based on Mean is 3.810 and score obtained in column probability (sig.) is 0.060 which is higher than 0.05. So, H_0 is accepted. It means that variance of control and experiment class has similar variance or homogeneity.

Table 4. Tests of Homogeneity of Variance

		Levene			
		Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Score	Based on Mean	3.810	1	32	.060
	Based on Median	3.290	1	32	.079
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	3.290	1	29.054	.080
	Based on trimmed mean	3.710	1	32	.063

Table 5 shows the statistical summary from both samples. For pre-anxiety test result before treatment, the Mean is 85.8462. While for post-anxiety test result after treatment, the Mean is 85.6923.

Table 5. Paired samples statistics for control class

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean

Pair 1	Pre-anxiety	85.8462	13	5.98395	1.65965
	Post-anxiety	85.6923	13	8.84482	2.45311

Table 6 shows results of comparison test that is as the answer of the hypothesis null 3. From the table, probability is 0.940 which is higher than 0.05, so H_03 is accepted. Therefore, it can be concluded that both Means are identical, in other words, there is no a significant difference of English anxiety between pre-anxiety test and pos-anxiety test by control class. However, the hypothesis in this study; both Means are identical or there is no a significant difference of English anxiety between pre-anxiety test and pos-anxiety test by control class; is accepted. From the elaboration, implicitly, it can be understood that conventional English learning to control group is not effective in reducing students' English anxiety in English classroom.

Table 6. Paired samples test for control class

		Pair 1	
		Pre-anxiety – Post-anxiety	
Paired Differences	Mean	.15385	
	Std. Deviation	7.16294	
	Std. Error Mean	1.98664	
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	-4.17467
		Upper	4.48237
T		.077	
Df		12	
Sig. (2-tailed)		.940	

Table 7 shows the statistical summary from both samples. For pre-anxiety test result before treatment, the Mean is 82.3810. While for post-anxiety test result after treatment, the Mean is 67.2857.

Table 7. Paired samples statistics for experiment class

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 2	Pre-anxiety	82.3810	21	3.94305	.86044
	Post-anxiety	67.2857	21	5.02138	1.09576

Table 8 shows results of comparison test that is as the answer of the hypothesis null 4. From the table, probability is 0.000 which is lower than 0.05, so H_04 is rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that both Means are not identical, in other words, there is a significant difference of English anxiety between pre-anxiety test and pos-anxiety test by experiment class. However, the hypothesis in this study; both Means are identical or there is no a significant difference of English anxiety between pre-anxiety test and pos-anxiety test by experiment class; is rejected. From the elaboration, implicitly, it can be understood that English learning model based on negative anxiety reduction through constructivism theory to experiment group is effective in reducing students' English anxiety in English classroom.

Table 8. Paired samples test for experiment class

		Pair 2
		Pre-anxiety – Post-anxiety
Paired Differences	Mean	15.09524
	Std. Deviation	6.42577
	Std. Error Mean	1.40222
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	Lower	12.17026
	Upper	18.02021
T		10.765
Df		20
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000

Table 9. Results of the independent sample t-Test by class differences

		F	Sig.	T	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Overall Anxiety	Equal variances assumed	3.998	.054	7.999	.000	.69414
	Equal variances not assumed			7.029	.000	.69414
Communication Apprehension	Equal variances assumed	1.637	.210	5.679	.000	.66447
	Equal variances not assumed			5.243	.000	.66447
Fear of Negative Evaluation	Equal variances assumed	.310	.582	7.192	.000	.65275
	Equal variances not			6.581	.000	.65275

assumed						
Test Anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.148	.703	7.093	.000	.71722

Comparing the three types of English language anxiety, the difference in English language anxiety between control class and experiment class occurred on the three types of English anxiety; communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety; the differences English language anxiety between control class and experiment class was found significantly. Therefore, for overall anxiety, the difference English language anxiety by class was obtained significantly.

F value for overall anxiety with Equal variance assumed was 3.998 with $p = 0.054$. Because probability was higher than 0.05, it was assumed that both variances were similar or homogeny. t value for overall anxiety with Equal variance assumed was 7.999 with $p = 0.000$. Because 0.000 is lower than 0.025, it was assumed that Mean of control class anxiety ($\mu = 3.19$ and $s.d = 0.33$) was not similar with experiment class anxiety ($\mu = 2.49$ and $s.d = 0.18$). With Mean difference was 0.69414; this means that the difference of control class anxiety and experiment class anxiety was 0.69414.

This result shows that there was significant difference between control class anxiety and experiment class anxiety for overall anxiety. From the Mean of control class anxiety and experiment class anxiety obtained, it showed that control class was more anxious than experiment class in English anxiety.

For these reasons, it can be concluded that there is the difference in English language anxiety by class as a whole. The hypothesis in this study; There is a significant difference of English anxiety between posttest by control class and posttest by experiment class (H_05); is accepted.

Discussion

The researcher assumes that the reasons for the results can be explained in two factors, they are the appropriate election of English learning model and the role of learning materials. In terms of the appropriate election of English learning model, Wörde (2003) seems to fit perfectly: "A relaxed classroom environment was cited as key in reducing anxiety and is likely related to how the teacher conducted the class. The participants stressed that anxiety decreases when teachers make the class interesting and fun". This is in line with Tinjacá & Contreras (2008).

In this study, English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory was indicated more effective than conventional model. The data findings from this study indicate that the mean scores of students in the control group at the post-anxiety test level were as high as their mean scores at the pre-anxiety test level, while the mean scores of students' anxiety in the experiment group at the post-anxiety test level were lower than their mean scores at the pre-anxiety test level. This implies that when English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory called Dydi model was used to teach

the students, the model brought about reduction in students' level of English anxiety which was evidenced in the reduction of their mean scores at the post-anxiety test level.

This positive effect of Dydi model on students' anxiety for learning English was as a result of its positive interdependence attribute, which made it possible for students to see that their success is dependent on their contributions, inclusion, and success of the other students in the group. In view of this, students were able to exchange ideas on given tasks among themselves and this made it possible for students with low intellectual ability and slow learners to gain from members of their groups. Hence, they became more confident and felt secured participating actively in English classroom. Besides, promotive interaction as one of basic elements that makes cooperative learning more productive than competitive and individual learning (Huda, 2011) writes that students are expected to actively help and support one another. Members share resources and support and encourage each other's effort to learn. It is interaction in a group where all group members encourage and help each other to achieve a goal (Smith, 1996 in Barkley et al., 2005). It is in line with Vygotsky (1978) in Pritchard & Woollard (2010) who emphasizes that knowledge is built and constructed mutually; interaction with others can open the chance for learners to evaluate and fix their understanding when they face other people opinion and when they participate in finding the understanding. On the other hand, when the conventional model was used, it did not bring about reduction in the English anxiety level of the students in the group which was evidenced in their higher mean scores at the post-anxiety test level.

Consequently, student's English anxiety and English teacher role play an important role in the study of English. English teacher could be a student's anxiety reducer when the English teacher could determine and develop the appropriate English model for English class. Dydi model which was the English learning model referring to cooperative learning was one of many models that can be used in running English class. Since cooperative learning has been found to have positive effect on the reduction of students' English anxiety according to the findings of this study and those of Nagahashi (2007), Tsu (2008), Yan (2009), Yeh (2008), Suwantarathip & Wichadee (2010), and Swain & Miccoli (1994), they prove that cooperative learning approach is appropriate to implement in English classroom in order to reduce student's foreign language anxiety. So, English teachers should be encouraged to incorporate cooperative learning methods into their methods of teaching so that students could develop positive interest and enhanced their self-confidence in English, which would bring their activeness in English classroom. Matsumoto (2008:58) adds that one reason in using cooperation in the language classroom is that it makes students feel less anxiety and less stress. He suggests that the teacher should act as a counselor, make the students to encourage each other in the group, especially the students who are suffering from anxiety and competitiveness, and give them a sense of belonging, thus enhancing their learning.

In terms of the role of learning materials, learning materials are important because they can increase student activeness. For example, an interesting topic and worksheet might provide a student with important opportunities to practice a new skill gained in classroom. This process aided in the learning process by allowing the student to explore the knowledge independently. In this study, learning materials were not depended on only from one source of text book. Teacher could determine the learning material from wherever he or she wanted but it should refer to the

determined curriculum. For example, for second (2nd) grade senior high school had to refer to the three genres; reports, narratives and analytical expositions. In Dydi model, the topic determined by teacher could be interesting because the students discussed the topic freely, they might explore the information deeply and widely as background knowledge for them to prepare themselves to the larger group discussion. The learning materials in developed syllabus and lesson plans were just samples, but they might be changed depends on what teacher and students needed.

As a whole, this study indicated that there was a significant difference of effectiveness English learning model in experiment class and control class, which was English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory was more effective than conventional model, this results supported the conclusions reached by several investigators in earlier studies (Nagahashi, 2007; Tsu, 2008; Yan, 2009; Yeh, 2008; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2010; and Swain & Miccoli, 1994).

Conclusion

In this research, the results showed that the students' English anxiety at pre-anxiety test in the experiment class and control class were at high level. The students' English anxiety at the post-anxiety test in the control class was at a high level. In the mean time, the students' English anxiety at post-anxiety test in the experiment class was at a moderate level. This experimental research indicated that there was a significant difference of effectiveness English learning model in the experiment class and the control class. English learning model through negative anxiety reduction based on constructivism theory (Dynamic discussion model) to experiment group was effective in reducing students' English anxiety in English classroom. There was a significant difference between control class anxiety and experiment class anxiety for communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. It showed that control class was more anxious than experiment class in English communication, negative evaluation, and English test.

About the Author:

Dr. Ridha Fadillah, M.Ed. is a lecturer at the English Education Department, Antasari State Institute for Islamic Studies Banjarmasin, Indonesia. His research mainly concerns with student's differences in language learning focused on foreign language anxiety. And he is interested in research in English language teaching.

References

- Barkley, E. F., Cross, K. P., & Major C. H. (2005). *Collaborative Learning Techniques: A Handbook for College Faculty*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Borg, W. R. & Gall, M. D. (1983). *Educational Research: An Introduction*. New York: Longman.
- Dörnyei, Z. & Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing (2nd Ed.)*. New York: Routledge.
- Fadillah, R. (2013). *Developing English Learning Model through Negative Anxiety Reduction Based on Constructivism Theory*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Semarang State University, Semarang.
- Fadillah, R. (2015). *Model Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris Berbasis Pengurangan Kecemasan Negatif*. Banjarmasin: IAIN Antasari Press.

- Goser, A. (2008). Teaching Strategies and Class Practices of the Teachers who Teach Turkish as a Foreign Language (A Qualitative Research). *Journal of Social Sciences*, 4, (4), 288-298.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.
- Huda, M. (2011). *Cooperative Learning: Metode, Teknik, Struktur dan Model Penerapan*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Matsumoto, Y. (2008). *Investigating Classroom Dynamics in Japanese University EFL Classrooms*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Birmingham, England.
- Nagahashi, T. L. (2007). Techniques for reducing foreign language anxiety: Results of a successful intervention study. In *Annual Research Report on General Education*, Akita University, No. 9, 53-60.
- Pritchard, A. & Woollard, J. (2010). *Psychology for the classroom: Constructivism and Social Learning*. New York: Routledge.
- Sekaran, U. (2000). *Research methods for business: a skill building approach*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Suprijono, A. (2011). *Cooperative Learning. Teori dan Aplikasi PAIKEM*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Suwantarathip, O. & Wichadee, S. (2010). The Impacts of Cooperative Learning on Anxiety and Proficiency in an EFL Class. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning*, 7, (11), 51-58.
- Swain, M. & Miccoli, L. S. (1994). Learning in a Content-Based, Collaboratively Structure Course: The Experience of an Adult ESL Learner. *TESL Canada Journal*, 12, (1), 15-28.
- Tinjacá, R. A. B. & Contreras, R. A. (2008). Overcoming Fear of Speaking in English through Meaningful Activities: A Study with Teenagers. *PROFILE*, 9, 23-46.
- Tsu, Y. A. (2008). *Learners' Anxiety and Behaviors in a Cooperative Language Learning Classroom*. Unpublished Master Thesis. Ming Chuan University.
- Wörde, R. V. (2003). Students' Perspectives on Foreign Language Anxiety. *Inquiry*, 8, (1). Retrieved January 16, 2008 from <http://www.vccaedu.org/inquiry/inquiry-spring2003/i-81-worde.html>
- Yan, Y. (2009). *An Examination of the Relationship between Foreign Language Anxiety and Cooperative Learning*. Unpublished seminar paper. University of Wisconsin-Platteville.
- Yeh, A. T. (2008). *Learners' Anxiety and Behaviors in a Cooperative Language Learning Classroom*. Unpublished master thesis. Ming Chuan University, Taipei.

Evaluation of Listening and Speaking Syllabus in EFL Situation at the Preparatory Year Program

Taj Mohammad

Preparatory Year Program, Najran University
Saudi Arabia

Bilal A. Itoo

Preparatory Year Program, Najran University
Saudi Arabia

Abstract:

The present study aims to find out whether the syllabus of listening and speaking at Preparatory Year Program Najran University fulfils the desired learning outcomes or not. Despite immense efforts made by teachers, students are not able to acquire a desired level of competency (as stated in the objectives of the syllabus) in listening and speaking course/skills. This study attempts to analyse the contents of the syllabus with special reference to listening and speaking skills, to identify the gaps between the syllabus and students' performance in listening and speaking and suggest some remedies in order to fill the gaps between the syllabus and learning outcomes. A survey questionnaire with 10 statements focusing on the key elements of the syllabus (as outlined in the objectives of the present syllabus) was used as a tool to collect data from 20 EFL teachers. Their responses were analysed using a likert scale. In addition, an interview with 5 key statements on the current syllabus was also conducted with the same teachers in order to know their opinion and suggestions on the present syllabus. The interview included 5 key statements on the current syllabus. The analysis of data demonstrates that the present syllabus meets out its objectives to certain extent but not completely. As the result shows that most of the statements based on the key elements of the syllabus fall in the category of 'moderate', it is suggested that the syllabus should be revised so that it could fulfil the objectives of the course completely and fill the gaps between the syllabus and learning outcomes.

Keywords: content analysis, evaluation, listening and speaking skills, syllabus analysis

Introduction

Proficiency in English language is the main target for both the learners and teachers of English language especially in ESL/EFL situations. Developing communicative competence in learners is an important task for the teachers. For an effective language program the responsible factors are learners, teachers, syllabus, methods, materials, settings and testing. Richards mentions, "listening skills are a core component of second-language proficiency, and also reflecting the assumption that if listening isn't tested, teachers won't teach it" (Richards, 2008, p. 01). The goal of English language program is to develop fluency and accuracy in language, aiming to provide the learners of English with a base to improve their communicative competence (Morozova, 2013; Kurniasih, 2011) where, the learners are expected to be able to use English language in different situations and contexts (Sevik, 2012). It is therefore important to evaluate the listening and speaking syllabus in the light of aims and objectives of language program based on the expectations and current innovative practices of language teaching.

The researchers find that students of PYP (Preparatory Year Program), Najran University (NU), Saudi Arabia face problems in listening and hesitate to speak. Students who attend PYP at Najran University are not required to appear in a placement test. That is why there is a variety of learners. It becomes a real challenge for the teachers to accommodate different level of students in the same classroom.

Students who successfully pass PYP program are assigned different courses like medical engineering and administrative courses according to their ranks.

To the surprise of the learners, students are not able to comprehend an audio text as they cannot understand the instructions in English. The students do not show an excellent improvement in listening and speaking skills though the objectives of the course of listening and Speaking are well-defined. The objectives of the syllabus taught at PYP, NU are to:

1. Hold short and meaningful conversations among themselves;
2. Express themselves at an intelligible and acceptable level of spoken English;
3. Identify the main ideas in a text (audio);
4. Identify fine details in a text;
5. Use the acquired vocabulary;
6. Eliminate the use of the first language (Arabic) inside the classroom.

The present study is based on the evaluation of syllabus of listening and speaking skills only as taught at NU in Saudi Arabia. The respondents are 20 EFL teachers whose experience of teaching listening and speaking varies from at least one semester to ten years.

Reviewing the present situation, a thorough analysis of the aims and objectives of the syllabus has been done. The syllabus is critically examined and modifications are recommended according to the set objectives of the course. The syllabus is analysed on the parameters based on course objectives. A thorough analysis of the aims and objectives of the syllabus has been done and modifications are recommended according to the set objectives of the course. An attempt has also been made to provide remedies to certain problems students face. Suggestions are offered on how to improve the syllabus so that it can be exploited to the best uses of the students.

Literature review

The growing needs for fluency in English around the world have given priority to find more effective ways to teach English. Speaking skills have been found to be fundamental skills necessary for success in life. Learners of English language often evaluate their success in language learning on the basis of how much they have improved spoken language proficiency. It is claimed that someone's fluency in speaking measures his/ her proficiency in that language (Matin, 2013). Students having ability to translate their thoughts and ideas into words are found to be more successful in school. Without developing good listening and speaking skills, students have to suffer lifelong consequences (Wilson (1997) cited in Smith, 2003, p. 03). Without proper knowledge of grammar, sentence structure and not knowing proper pronunciation one can write, read and listen to some extent; whereas, speaking depends on the total knowledge of a language i.e. vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, listening, etc. (Matin 2013). The ability to speak English also plays an important role in developing reading and writing skills. As River (1968, p. 20) says that when we read and write, we use what we know of the language orally. Speaking skill is required everywhere, from simple conversation to formal public speaking.

Listening is an active process by which people receive, make sense of, assess, remember and respond to what they hear. In the opinion of Smith (2003) students' development of skills and learning starts from listening and from having someone listen to them. In a study, Smith (2003) mentions that listening is a matter of choice, not ability, yet listening is something students should be taught to do well. According to Grognet & Van-Duzer (2002) listening is an attentive process where the listener selects and sums up by using the available aural and visual clues. Practice of good listening helps in better understanding, resolving problems, asking questions and responding in expected manner. It also results in learning. The classroom experience results frustrating for those who cannot or do not listen properly (Swanson (1997) cited in Smith, 2003, p. 02). Roberts and Sheraden (2002) determine students' academic performance could be improved by the quality listening skills as well as improvement in their social interaction.

Evaluation is the most important aspect of a language program. The purpose lies can be varying according to the different goals to achieve such as 'course improvement,' 'decisions about individuals,' or 'administrative regulation' (Cronbach, 1991, as cited in Tunc, 2010, p. 17). To identify and analyse the problems students encounter in target language will help a teacher in assisting learners through appropriate anticipation, remedial work and additional practice (Heaton, 1975).

Feeling a need for periodic evaluation of syllabus and redesigning and/change of classroom activities the present study has been designed. A time to time evaluation of syllabus is needed to test the effectiveness and to revise the contents of the syllabus if required. It 'is the formal determination of the quality, effectiveness or value of a program, product, process, objective or curriculum' (Tunc, 2010, p. 17). It has been found by the researchers that evaluation of contents is important to accomplish the idea of a systematic developing curriculum. Teaching requires fulfilling the needs of the learners, achieving the goals of the syllabus and fulfilling the course objectives.

Research Objectives:

1. To analyse the content of the syllabus with special reference to listening and speaking skills
2. To identify the gaps between the syllabus and student's performance in listening and speaking skills
3. To suggest some remedies in order to fill the gaps between the syllabus and learning outcomes
- 4.

Purpose of the Study

The study aims to identify the gaps between course objectives and learning outcomes. In order to understand the operational realities of the syllabus, the study envisages administering a survey questionnaire among teachers and considering their opinions and suggestions through a follow-up interview. The study also attempts to look into perceived breeches between the syllabus and learning outcomes and provide remedies to certain problem areas

Context of the study

This action research evaluates the syllabus of listening and speaking at PYP, Najran University. It tries to evaluate whether the prescribed syllabus for listening and speaking meets the course objectives or not. As Calhoun (2002) describes action research as studying what's happening in a school, deciding if improvement in instruction is needed, examining the effects of what was tried, and then beginning the process again. This process is utilized in the following study. At the core of this process was a sincere effort to improve the ability to teach speaking and listening skills. The study provides some suggestions in the form of recommendations on how to improve the syllabus through changes in practice.

Methodology*Tools*

A survey questionnaire (containing 10 statements) was developed to gather data from the participants. The aim of the questionnaire was to measure how teachers perceived and rated the current syllabus of listening and speaking at PYP. The contents of the questionnaire were based on both listening and speaking sections, using 5-Point Likert-scales of agreement. In addition, an interview session was also conducted with the teachers to have their expert opinion and suggestions. The interview included 5 key statements on the current syllabus.

Pilot Study

To ensure the validity of the survey questionnaire, it was first piloted by 10 EFL instructors; their feedback was useful for modifying some items. The survey was also given to four Asst. Professors to examine its validity. Some items were modified as per their suggestions so as to meet the content validity.

Participants

Twenty EFL teachers from PYP were selected for this study. Participants' age ranges 28-47. Their experience of teaching of English varies between 2-20 years. Most of the participants' experience of teaching listening and speaking ranges from four years to one semester.

Procedures

The data has been collected in two phases using questionnaires and interview. The researchers circulated the questionnaire to forty participants and thirty were returned. Finally, twenty questionnaires given serious attention were selected as a sample of this study. Twenty teachers teaching listening and speaking were also interviewed. Twenty samples were selected out of 30 which were filled in with complete information. Their suggestions and opinions were taken into consideration.

Analysis of Data

The study will be in two parts: the first will contain detailed analysis and discussion on the statements of the questionnaire and the second one will be a detailed analysis and discussion on the responses of interview.

Results

Questionnaire Analysis

Table-1 *Descriptive statistics of the survey's statements and result discussion*

S. No.↓	Scales → Statements ↓	5 Strongly agree	4 Agree	3 Can't say	2 Disagree	1 Strongly disagree	M	SD
1.	The syllabus enables students to express themselves in target language at an intelligible and acceptable level	0 0%	9 45%	9 45%	2 10%	0 0%	3.35	0.67082
2.	The syllabus enables students comprehend the main idea of the audio tracks after listening to questions	1 5%	11 55%	5 25%	3 15%	0 0%	3.5	0.82717
3.	The syllabus enables students enhance vocabulary acquired through the audio tracks	0 0%	6 30%	9 45%	5 25%	0 0%	3.05	0.759155
4.	The syllabus helps students use target language, as desired, in the classroom without taking much help of their mother tongue	1 5%	3 15%	5 25%	10 50%	1 5%	2.65	0.988087
5.	The syllabus helps students comprehend English materials	2 10%	11 55%	5 25%	2 10%	0 0%	3.6	0.812728
6.	The syllabus helps students distinguish between the British and/or American accents to understand instructions in a better way	3 15%	7 35%	5 25%	4 20%	1 5%	3.35	1.136708
7.	The syllabus facilitates students to work in groups to be exposed to the target language	3 15%	6 30%	5 25%	5 25%	1 5%	3.25	1.164158
8.	The syllabus helps students make inferences while listening to the audio tracks	1 5%	9 45%	6 30%	3 15%	1 5%	3.3	0.978721
9.	The syllabus helps students develop the linguistic capability to listen and then practice the same register as their lingua franca	0 0%	6 30%	11 55%	3 15%	0 0%	3.15	0.67082
10.	The prescribed textbook meets out the syllabus' objectives of Listening & Speaking	2 10%	9 45%	3 15%	3 15%	3 15%	3.2	1.281447

Reed (1989) is of the opinion that Likert-type rating scale should be used to generally gather data on student's listening and speaking behaviours. Jung, Osterwalder & Wipf (2000)

support the Likert scale: “this was the only assessment instrument I found that was practical for the classroom” (Jung, Osterwalder, & Witpf, 2000: p.2). To interpret the level of means, the authors applied Siti Rahaya & Salbiah’s (1996) model of explaining means. It is summarized in

Table 2. *Score category breakdown adopted from Siti Rahaya & Salbiah (1996)*

Means	Corresponding level
1.0 - 1.80	Very low
1.81 - 2.60	Low
2.61 - 3.40	Moderate
3.41 - 4.20	High
4.21 - 5.0	Very high

The first statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus enables students to express themselves in target language at an intelligible and acceptable level*, reveals that there is no participant who felt that the course enabled students to express themselves in target language at an intelligible and acceptable level. 45% of the participants admitted to it though the same percentage (45%) of the participants did not express their opinion. 10% of the participants disagreed. The mean of the statement is 3.35 that lies in the category of ‘Moderate’ as per the breakdown adopted from the scale of Siti Rahaya & Salbiah (1996).

The second statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus enables students comprehend the main idea of the audio tracks after listening to questions* displays that there are 5% of the participants who opined that the syllabus enabled them to comprehend the main idea of the audio tracks after listening to question. 55% of the participants agreed though (25%) of the participants had no idea. 15% of the participants did not accept the statement. The mean is categorized as high.

The third statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus enables students enhance vocabulary acquired through the audio tracks*, shows that no participant is of the opinion that the course assisted students to use the vocabulary acquired through the audio tracks. 30% of the participants agreed to the statement though 45 % (a significant percentage) of the participants had no opinion. 25% of the participants dissented. The mean is moderate.

The fourth statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus helps student use target language, as desired, in the classroom without taking much help of their mother tongue* exhibits that there are 5% of the participant who strongly agreed that the course encouraged students to use target language, as desired, in the classroom without taking much help of their mother tongue. 15% of the participants also admitted to it that is very negligible in comparison to 50% of the participants who disagreed to the statement. 25% had no response while 5% of the participants strongly disagreed. The mean is ranked as moderate.

The fifth statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus helps students comprehend English materials* divulges that there are 10% of the participants who strongly agreed to the statement that the

course *helped students comprehend English materials*. 55% of the participants agreed with the statement though (25%) of the participants did not express their opinion. 10% of the participants disapproved. The mean is high.

The sixth statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus helps students distinguish between the British and/or American accents to understand instructions in a better way* discloses that there are 15% of the participants who concurred that the course *helped students distinguish between the British and/or American accents to understand instructions in a better way*. 35% of the participants agreed to the statement though 25% of the participants were not sure about it and the 20% of the participants state an opinion and 5% of the participants strongly dissented. The mean is moderate.

The seventh statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus facilitates students to work in groups to be exposed to the target language*, shows that 15% of the participants stated that the course *facilitated students to work in groups to be exposed to the target language*. 30% of the participants accepted the statement and 25% of the participants had no opinion. 25% of the participants did not accept the statement and 5% of the participants were in complete disagreement. The mean is categorized as moderate.

The eighth statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus helps students make inferences while listening to the audio tracks*, unveils that 5% of the participants were in absolute agreement to the statement that the *The syllabus helps students make inferences while listening to the audio tracks*, 45% of the participants agreed while 30% of the participants did not state an opinion. 15% of the participants did not agree with the statement and 5% were in absolute disagreement. The mean falls in the category of moderate.

The ninth statement in the questionnaire *The syllabus helps students develop the linguistic capability to listen and then practice the same register as their lingua franca* reveals no participant thought that the *The syllabus helps students develop the linguistic capability to listen and then practice the same register as their lingua franca* 30% of the participants agreed with the statement though 55% (a significant percentage) of the participants disagreed. 15% of the participants do not state an opinion. There was none with complete disagreement. The mean is placed as moderate.

The tenth statement in the questionnaire *The prescribed textbook meets out the syllabus' objectives of Listening & Speaking* reveals that 10% of the participants did not agree at all with the statement that *The prescribed textbook meets out the syllabus' objectives of Listening & Speaking*. 45% of the participants agreed to it while 15% of the participants did not express their opinion. 15% of the participants did not agree with the statement and the same 15% of the participants came up with wholly disagreement. The mean is ranked as moderate.

Interview analysis

The participants responded to the following questions in the interview:

1. Teachers rate (on a scale of 1-5) the students' proficiency in Listening and Speaking
2. Mention some common learning difficulties students face during Listening and Speaking
3. Mention some pedagogical (teaching) problems teachers face during teaching of listening and speaking

4. Suggestions for improving students' general language proficiency in listening and speaking
5. Is the course designed in accordance to the learner based approach? Comment briefly

Table 3 *Results of Interview Question no. 1*

Q. 1.	Number of teachers	Students' proficiency level on 5 point likert scale
	17	3
	1	4
	2	2

As shown in Table 1, in response to the first question, 17 teachers rated the proficiency of the students as 3 on a scale of 3-5 as mentioned earlier. 1 teacher rated students as 4 and 2 other teachers rated as 2. The majority of the teachers rated students as 3s.

Table 4 *Results of Interview Question no. 2*

Q.2.	Number of participants	Some common learning difficulties students face during Listening and Speaking
	5	Students lacked motivation. Impractical listening tracks.
	6	Most of the students had poor background in listening. Students were reticent to speak in target language. Limited vocabulary.
	5	Listening tracks were not as practical as they should be. Students were not exposed to listening at an early stage. Students were too shy to speak target language.
	4	Most of the students were unable to understand American accent. Students faced difficulties in understanding stress, intonations and reductions. Students lacked motivation.

As shown in Table 4, in response to question number 2, there were varied responses but some of the responses were common. Many teachers agreed on that students lacked motivation and they were reticent to speak target language.

Table 5 *Results of Interview Question no. 3*

Q.3.	Number of participants	Pedagogical (teaching) problems teachers face during teaching of listening and speaking:
	5	Some teachers had the task of finishing the syllabus at their earliest. Teachers had no liberty to use external resources. There is no language lab. Students do not participate actively. Technical problems in the classroom related to speakers and computers. No exposure of listening and speaking outside the classroom.
	8	Students are reluctant and that makes teachers feel dissatisfied. For teachers, it is difficult to explain some words, situations and expressions. There is no language lab.

7	Some students do not know English at all and teachers do not know Arabic at all. It often results into lack of communication. No exposure of listening and speaking outside the classroom.

As shown in Table 5, in response to question number 3, there were some common difficulties faced by the teachers. 13 teachers stated that there was no language lab and there was no exposure of listening and speaking outside the classroom.

Table 6 *Results of Interview Question no. 4*

Q.4.	Number of participants	Suggestions for improving students' general language proficiency in listening and speaking:
	4	Students should be oriented to phonetics. They must be taught some parts of phonetics before jumping to listening tracks. A placement test must be conducted before admitting students. Mother tongue should not be allowed in the classroom.
	4	The listening track should not be only audio rather it should be audio visual so that students can visualise what they listen.
	3	There must be oral exercises, seminars, debates and storytelling in order to motivate students to speak up. Expose students to situations where they have to speak target language. Mother tongue should not be allowed in the classroom.
	5	Expose students to situations where they have to speak L2
	4	Listening and speaking should be formed Mother tongue should not be allowed in the classroom.

As shown in Table 6, in response to question number 4, there were some common suggestions by the teachers. 8 teachers agreed that a language lab should be established. 11 teachers suggested that mother tongue should be banned in the classroom.

Table 7 *Results of Interview Question no. 5*

Q.5.	Number of participants	Is the course designed in accordance to the learner based approach? Comment briefly
	15	The course is learner centred.
	05	To some extent, it is learner centred.

As shown in Table 7, in response to question number 15 teachers completely agreed that the course was learner centred while the rest of five teachers accepted that the course was learner centred to some extent. It shows that textbook needs to be reviewed in order to analyse all the activities to make sure that they are learner centred.

Findings and recommendations:

Questionnaire

The analysis of the syllabus shows that most of the key elements in the syllabus fall in moderate category. As a result, the prescribed syllabus for PYP is well designed although it does not meet its objectives completely. The responses of the teachers reveal that it is better if the

syllabus is updated. There is no need for an immediate revision though this need cannot be eliminated completely. The statements of the teachers based on the key elements of syllabus, course objectives, pedagogy, etc. show their non-satisfactory response. Only some of them agree with the statements. It shows that the syllabus is not very much perfect. In order to increase the performance of the students and meet course objectives completely the syllabus needs revision.

Despite the sincere efforts made by the teachers, most of the students are not able to express themselves at an intelligible and acceptable level. Students are not very much successful in picking up English vocabulary in the classroom and then practice the same in their day-to-day life. The teachers and students should develop a common understanding on what activities should be used in the classroom and what skills they have to develop respectively. As Jung, Osterwalder & Wipf (2000: 5) are of the opinion that 'We realized that students needed lessons and activities that would introduce them to the language and terminology associated with the skills they would be expected to learn. If our goal was to enable students to transfer their knowledge and apply it to everyday speaking and listening situations, teachers and students would need a solid base of common understanding regarding the skills they were working towards.'

In order to fill these particular gaps between learning outcomes and syllabus objectives, it is recommended that the syllabus should include more task-based exercises to encourage students develop communication skills. Textbook may include some exercises based on situational settings like at the supermarket, at the post office, flight booking offices, restaurant, hotels, hospitals, etc. Students can be peered and grouped to practice these real life situations while the teacher facilitates them. It will also discourage students to use mother tongue in the classroom. Students should be injected with some daily use vocabulary and encouraged to use them. Students can also be engaged in role play activities. Teachers can assign different roles to play like doctor, patient, vendor, receptionist, etc. in order to give them real feel of the situations. Teachers can record the conversation on a video recorder and upload them on the university website for the students to watch and write a feedback on the performance of their peers by following peer evaluation method. Feedback is an effective tool to engage students in identifying the flaws in their performance. This way, students will themselves take the charge of their learning. It will help them listen to any other audio track outside the textbook and comprehend it in a better way.

It is imperative for students to become responsible for their own learning. They have to play an active role in the learning process. They need to see themselves as active members of the learning process. Students must be assigned peer evaluation so that they can learn from the mistakes of each other. Through involvement in evaluation they can see their performance more clearly. They are not victims at the mercy of the teacher's red pen. Instead, they are encouraged to realistically assess their own skills and compare them with others (Jung, Osterwalder & Wipf, 2000).

In addition, the textbook should also include listening tracks on different academic topics like counselling a student, explaining the nature of different topics related to science, arts and commerce in a simple language. It will also help them listen and comprehend English study materials on various topics.

Jung, Osterwalder & Wipf (2000: 05) state 'After teaching the skills, teachers should be regularly applying the learning to all curricular areas. In order for students to dutifully apply these skills, they must be assessed.' The teachers must assess the students on what they taught. Assessment must be a continuous part of learning process. Therefore, it is recommended that summative and formative assessments should also be considered a part of learning process. As no grades are awarded in formative assessment, it will motivate students to be more open to their subject and learning process. It will help teachers to judge the performance of their students in a better way.

Interview

In response to question 1, 17 teachers rated the proficiency level 3 of students on a scale of 3-5 that lies in the moderate category. It shows that the syllabus is doing well. The responses of the most of the teachers do not lie in the category of 'high' and 'very high' that shows there is still room for improvement in the textbook, teaching pedagogy and learning strategies. Therefore, it is advisable to review the syllabus and make amendments wherever needed in order to meet the objectives completely.

In response to question 2, the most noteworthy difficulties were that the students lacked motivation and they were too hesitant to speak. The teachers must be more open to the students and bridge the gap between the teachers and students. It is possible only when teachers are more sympathetic and concerned about students. Teachers should also take other issues into concentration like educational background of the students, socio-cultural influences etc.

In response to question 3, the most common response was that there was no language lab and there was no exposure of listening and speaking outside the classroom. It is strongly recommended that a language lab should be constructed as soon as possible. The students must also be motivated to speak English outside the classroom. For this purpose, a speaking club should be formed and students must be motivated to speak English. The teachers must greet students in English outside the classroom. The teachers need to revisit their pedagogy.

In response to question 4, there were some valuable suggestions by the teachers. It is necessary that students should be discouraged to use mother tongue in the classroom. The teachers can divide students into groups in order to motivate them to speak target language. Students should also be given input in phonology to practice certain letters and words. A placement test should be conducted before admission so that students can be classified and assigned classes according to their proficiency level. Teachers should also create situations for the students to speak English. The teachers can rely on multiple intelligence theory to achieve it.

In response to question 5, 15 teachers agreed that the course was designed on learner centred approach though five of them agreed to some extent. The course, undoubtedly, follows learner centred approach though with an exception of a few activities. It is advisable that textbook needs a revision in order to assure that all the activities are based on learner centred approach. Moreover, the teacher needs to bring some changes to their pedagogy so that learners can be involved in the business of learning as much as possible. The teachers can give some mock test to practice it. Audio visual aids should be used in the classroom in order to sensitize students.

Conclusion

The listening and speaking syllabus at PYP needs attention though not immediately. The syllabus was examined keeping in mind its aims and objectives. There is no doubt in the fact that the syllabus fulfilled some of its aims and objectives, however there were many which were either not fulfilled or partially fulfilled as the responses of teachers fall in the category of 'moderate'. It is noticeable that they do not fall in the category of 'very high' that confirms the need to go over the syllabus. The interview with the teachers helped a lot in knowing the practical and present problems of the syllabus. The interview proved that they are just satisfied with the syllabus. However, they did not speak very high of the syllabus. Therefore, it is advisable to review the course content and revise the syllabus so that the desirable aims and objectives must be fulfilled completely.

There are other factors too which influence students' performance. For example, one cannot completely ignore the socio-cultural background of the students. Students come from a very poor educational background. Usually, English starts in class 6th here. Moreover, they are not very much motivated to perform well. Most of the parents are uneducated. As a result of all these unavoidable circumstance, students lack motivation and cannot increase the level of competency. They are accustomed to speak mother tongue in the classroom. It is the first time in their academic career when they formally attend English classes.

It is also a matter of serious concern that a significant percentage of the teachers was unable to comment that shows there were problems in the assessment method of the teachers. The teachers were not given aims and objectives of the course at the start of the course as accepted by them. Therefore, it is strongly recommend that the teachers must be provided with the aims and objective at the start of the course. The teachers must also improve their assessment method. They must conduct weekly tests and quizzes in order to continuously assess students on the parameters of aims and objectives. Teachers must also be trained through workshops on how they have to assess their students in order to bring a change in assessment methods.

Researchers found that syllabus meets certain course objectives, although, the students are not able to develop communicative competence to a desired level. It has been shown in most of the responses provided by the teachers lie in the category of 'moderate' yet they cannot be categorized as 'high' or 'very high'. Teachers' responses on the present syllabus were also taken into consideration through interview sessions which also lie in the category of 'moderate'

The Listening and speaking syllabus at the preparatory year of Najran University serves its purpose but the result shows that it has not been very successful in yielding the desired learning outcomes as per the present English communicative requirements of the students. The syllabus needs a periodic revision in order to make sure that it achieves desired goals and objectives of the course.

Acknowledgements

This project has been funded by the Deanship of Scientific Research, Najran University, grant No. NU/SHED/13/016.

About the Authors:

Taj Mohammad, PhD, is an Assistant Professor at Preparatory Year Program, Najran University. He has been a Fulbright fellow at North Carolina State University, Raleigh, USA. He got his TESOL from University of Wisconsin, USA and a few courses in ESL/ EFL from NCSU, USA. Before he joined Najran University, he worked at GLA University, India on the same post. He has also been engaged in teaching at English Access Micro scholarship Program in India funded and supported by US Government. His research interests primarily are on Indian writing in English/ EFL/ESL.

Bilal Itoo is an EFL instructor at Najran University. He is an MA in English Language Teaching from AMU, Aligarh India. He has around seven years of experience of teaching at PYP, Najran University, KSA. He has been engaged in research with EFL students. He has published research on the issues of EFL learners specially Arab ones.

References

- Barr, L., Dittmar, M., Roberts, E., & Sheraden, M. (2002). *Enhancing Student Achievement through the improvement of listening skills*. Research Project, Saint Xavier University and SkyLight Professional Development Field-Based Master's Program, Chicago, IL.
- Calhoun, E. F. (2002). *Action research for school improvement*. *Educational Leadership*. 59(6): 18-24. Retrieved from http://educationalleader.com/subtopicintro/read/ASCD/ASCD_408_1.pdf
- Grognet, A. & Duzer, C. V. (2002). *Listening Skills in the Workplace*. Retrieved from <http://www.springinstitute.org/Files/listeningwkplc.pdf>
- Heaton, J. (1975). *Writing English Language Tests – Handbook for language teachers*. New York. Longman.
- Jung, T., Osterwalder, H., & Wipf, D. (2000). *Teaching and Assessing Middle-Year Students' Speaking and Listening Skills*. *Teaching and Learning Research Exchange*. Retrieved from: http://www.mcdowellfoundation.ca/main_mcdowell/projects/research_rep/52_teaching_a_ssuming.pdf
- Kurniasih, E. (2011). *Teaching the four language skills in primary EFL classrooms: Some considerations*. *Journal of English Teaching*. 1(1): 70-81. Retrieved from <http://jet.uki.ac.id/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/Teaching-the-Four-Language-Skills-in-Primary-EFL-Classroom-Some-Considerations-pp-70-81.pdf>
- Liton, A. H. (2013). *EFL teachers' perceptions, evaluations and expectations about English language courses as EFL in Saudi Universities*. *International Journal of Instruction*. 6(2): 19-34. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED544068.pdf>
- Matin, Z. N. (2012). *Speaking assessment at secondary and higher secondary levels and students' deficiency in speaking skill: A study to find interdependence*. *Stanford Journal of English* 7: 234- 251. Retrieved from <http://www.banglajol.info/SJE/article/view/14476/10281>
- Morozova, Y. (2013). *Methods of enhancing speaking skills of elementary level students*. *Translation Journal*. 17(1). Retrieved from <http://translationjournal.net/journal/63learning.htm>
- Reed, V. (1989). *Adolescent Language Disorders: General Strategies for Teaching Language Comprehension/Listening*. Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.

Richards, J. C. (2008). *Teaching Listening and Speaking – Theory to practice*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

River,

S. No.	Scale → Statements ↓	5 Strongly agree	4 Agree	3 Can't say	2 Disagree	1 Strongly disagree

W. M.
(1968).

Teaching Foreign-language Skills. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED205037>

Sevik, M. (2012). *Teaching listening skills to young learners through “Listen and Do” songs*. *English Teaching Forum*. Retrieved from

http://americanenglish.state.gov/files/ae/resource_files/50_3_3_sevik.pdf

Siti Rahaya Ariffin & Salbiah Mohamad. (1996). *Pemikiran Guru cemerlang: kesan terhadap prestasi pengajaran. Kertas kerja seminar isu-isu pendidikan Negara. Fakulti pendidikan, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, 26-27 November*.

Smith, C. (2003). *How can parents model good listening skills?* Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED376481.pdf>

Tunc, F. (2010). *Evaluation of An English Language Teaching Program at A Public University Using CIPP Model*, a Thesis Dissertation.

Wilson, J. A. (1997). *A Program to Develop the Listening and Speaking Skills of Children in a First Grade Classroom*. Research Report.

1.	Did the course enable students to express themselves in L2 at an intelligible and acceptable level					
2.	Did the course enable students comprehend the main idea of the audio after listening to questions					
3.	Did the course enable students use the vocabulary in their daily life acquired through the listening audio tapes					
4.	Did the course help students use target language frequently in the classroom with each other without taking the help of their mother tongue					
5.	Did the course help students to understand and comprehend English materials					
6.	Did the course help students comprehend the British/ American accent to enable them to understand their native teachers in a better way					
7.	Did the course motivate students to speak in pair and groups in order to practice target language					
8.	Did the course enable students make educative guesses while listening to the audio					
9.	Did the course help students develop the linguistic capability to listen and then practice the same register as their lingua franca					
10.	Is the textbook fully equipped to meet out the course objectives of Listening & Speaking					

Appendix - A Survey Questionnaire

Appendix - B

Interview Questionnaire

1. Rate (on a scale of 1-5) the students' proficiency in Listening and Speaking:

.....

2. Mention some common learning difficulties students face during Listening and Speaking:

.....

3. Mention some pedagogical (teaching) problems teachers face during teaching of listening and speaking:

.....

4. Suggestions for improving students' general language proficiency in listening and speaking:

.....

5. Was the course designed on learner based approach? Comment briefly:

.....

The Effects of Computerized Instructional Program on Saudi High School Students' Academic Achievement in English

Khalid I. Al-Nafisah

Department of English Language and Translation
College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University.

Ibrahim M. Al-Domi

Community Service and Training Center,
King Saud University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the effect of computer- assisted language learning program on Saudi high school students' academic achievement in English. The researcher prepared the computerized program used. The sample of the study consists of 100 students randomly selected from Al-Riyadh Directorate of Education and were assigned to experimental and control groups. An achievement test was used to collect data from the students who participated in this research. The findings of the study indicate the use of Computer-Assisted English Language Learning (CALL) has a positive effect on the experimental group students' achievement. This technology-driven method fosters their educational performance and achievements and somehow enhances their respective attitudes towards the interactive instructional process. It is deemed a stimulus, not an impediment, functioning to pave way to create a better quality interactive atmosphere. It, thus, fosters the students' immersion in the academic materials presented at the classroom, a bid in the right direction to achieve an integrated instructional process.

Keywords: Computer-Assisted English Language Learning (CALL), Computer-Based Instruction (CBI), English language instruction, Saudi high school students.

Introduction

Many countries worldwide place great emphasis on computer-based instruction in the educational curricula. One of the major aims of the said instruction is to empower students to keep in pace with the new developments, and concomitantly to utilize the latest technological discoveries in the relevant fields. Researchers have been so interestingly revealing of the effect of computer-based instruction, which has begun to be used with the invention of the computer, and which has become one of the most important technological devices of the time.

As a result of the rapid developments in the information and communication technology, the use of computers in education has become inevitable and provides students with a more suitable environment to learn; it serves to create interest and learning centered-atmosphere, and also helps foster students' motivation. The use of technology in this way plays an important role in the teaching and learning processes (Isman, Baytekin, Balkan, Horzum, & Kiyici, 2002) along with the technological advances and devices; in particular the computer, has been used in educational environments to develop audio-visual materials, namely animation and simulation that spearheaded development of computer-based instruction techniques.

The use of computers in teaching methodologies and learning activities is roughly defined as Computer-Based Instruction (CBI). The CBI is the integration of computers in teaching methodologies and learning activities (Brophy, 1999). It empowers students to learn by self-evaluation and to reflect on their learning process. It motivates children to learn better by providing them with prompt feedback and reinforcement and by creating an exciting and interesting game-like atmosphere. The relevant studies in the field reveal that the students' achievements increase when the CBI is more effective on less below-average students.

The reason for this is that the CBI empowers children to progress at their own pace and provides them with the appropriate alternative ways of learning by individualizing the learning process (Senemoglu, 2003). A familiar function of English education is to teach children English vocabulary in a meaningful way and to enable them to learn how they can make use of these words in their daily lives (Cepni, Tas, Kose, 2006).

Computer-based teaching has had a noticeable impact on the development of educational technology in the 21st century, which resulted in the production of the computer-based instruction software. The primary purpose of educational software is to solve learning problems in English courses encountered by the primary school students, to increase their motivation and achievements, and to fend off negative effects of the rote-memory-based educational system.

Technological developments give rise to new teaching and learning facilities. At present, human beings continue to find out how to use computer in educational activities in a more productive way rather than searching to reveal whether the use of computers in teaching and learning activities is effective (Yakar, 2008). Educational technologies, especially computers play an important role in facilitating teaching and learning.

Computer-based instruction makes teaching techniques more effective than those of traditional teaching methods as it is used for presenting information, practicing testing, and evaluating and providing feedback. It makes a great contribution to the differentiated instructions of education and motivates students and spurs them to take an active part in the learning process.

Further, it helps to bolster creativity and problem solving skills, as well as identity and to develop learners' self-reliance. The CBI provides drawings, graphics, animation, music and plenty of materials for students to proceed at their own pace and in line with their individual differences; it serves to control diverse variables that have an impact on learning, which cannot be controlled by means of traditional educational techniques (Kasli, 2000; Chang, 2002).

Liao (2007) finds that the computer-based instruction had a positive effect on individuals by comparing 52 research studies carried out in Taiwan in his meta-analysis study. Senteni (2004) also found the CBI empowered students to increase their motivation and achievement and to develop positive attitudes. According to related studies in literature, the use of the CBI fosters students' attitudes and achievements significantly (Berger, Lu, Belzer, voss, 1994, Geban, 1995). There is a lot of research on the CBI in Turkey; and different results were unraveled. Some of these studies reveal the CBI serves to establish more effective learning situations than traditional teaching methods, which involve teacher presentation, question-answer techniques, and discussions (Boblick, 1975; Hughes, 1974). It has been found that the CBI serves to develop students' meta-cognitive skills, helps them to learn in a meaningful way instead of rote-memory learning, and enables them to increase their achievements as well (Renshaw & Taylor, 2000). According to some studies, there is no significant difference between the CBI and traditional teaching methods (Bayraktar, 2001; Al Acapinar, 2003; Cetin, 2007).

This study, which aims to test effects of the use of CBI technology, is thought to be important as it will contribute to the wise use of educational software, which triggers active participation and enables students to make their own meaning. The research, carried out to this end, is intended to make English education more enjoyable, productive and functional.

Theoretical Background of the Study

With the use of computers in education, several terminologies have come into and gone out of use in education (Ownsu, Monney, Appiah, Wilmot, 2010). The overlapping terms related to the uses of computer associated with technologies in English education are categorized into three categories by Bybee, Poewll, and Trowbridge (2008) as follows: learning about computers, learning with computer and learning through computers.

- 1- Learning about computers involves the knowledge of computers at various levels such as knowing the uses of the computer and the names of the various parts, knowing how to use the keyboard and computer packages and so on (Owusu et al 2010).
- 2- Learning with computers, meanwhile, engages students' use of computers as a tool in the acquisition, analysis, and communication with other people, information retrieval and a myriad of other ways (Owusu et al 2010).
- 3- The term, "learning through computers," involves the use of the computer as an aid for the teacher to do his/her presentations, and/or to get the learners to practice and drill.

This study mainly involves learning through computer as well as learning about computers. Its theoretical basis derives from the operant conditioning by Skinner as described by Owusu et al (2010) in their research. Operant conditioning is a type of conditioning in which a learner achieves some outcome by producing an action, called the operant. If the operant is followed by something pleasant, the outcome is positively reinforced, but if it is ensued by removal of something unpleasant, the result is negatively reinforced. The theory, deemed influential during the heyday of the Audio-Lingual method and lost favor in the 1960s, was revived after the integration of computers into education. Skinner's reinforcement theory is

central to computerized learning, especially drill, practice and tutorial learning (Tabassum, 2004). In this computer-facilitated learning environment, students' behaviors are reinforced by being permitted to proceed to the next frame when they get the right answer (Bigge and Shermis, 2004). Tabassum (2004) indicates that Skinner illustrated how to develop a programmed learning sequence being used directly to design tutorial modules. Owusu et al. (2010) highlights the crucial role of the behaviorist view of tutorials attributing his approach to "the principle of practice and reinforcement," and advised tutorials' developers to integrate this orientation in their programmes.

The study makes use of the operant conditioning derived from the practices of Skinner's behaviorism. The materials and activities are presented in graded steps. Learners have three opportunities to be active in the learning process, receive immediate feedback and work at their own pace.

Statement of the Problem

The researcher noticed many Saudi high school students encounter diverse difficulties in learning English language. Moreover, they lack motivation to learn English and consequently develop negative attitudes towards English. The researcher thinks the use of technology in general and CALL in particular may help in changing the situation. As a result, the need arises to study the effect of using computers on the students' achievement in English. The researcher intends to investigate the effect of Computer-Assisted EFL Instruction alongside the traditional method on the high school students' achievement in English.

Purpose of the Study

The basic aim of this study is to investigate the effect of computer-based instruction (CBI) on the academic achievements of English Language among Saudi eleventh grade students.

Significance of the Study

It is common for teachers to use different techniques in the language class to help their students improve their language skills. The use of CALL programs to improve learners' academic achievement in English is widely recommended in the educational literature and its role in the foreign language classroom has been the concern of many teachers and scholars. In the current environment of research-based practices, many educators may be skeptical about allowing the use of a new educational tool until the effects of that tool have been clearly documented through quantitative research. It is important as its results would serve to compliment the previous studies conducted on the CBI and to provide a basis for further efforts in this field.

Therefore, it is hoped this study results in the advantages below:

- 1- It will help researchers involved in the educational process gain insights into CALL and seek to improve it over time.
- 2- It may encourage further research, which in turn, may lead to the enrichment of the field of CALL in general, and language teaching and learning in particular.
- 3- It will help teachers to better understand the issue and integrate CALL into their classroom routine.
- 4- The information gathered in this study will aid proponents of CALL in better understanding the educational effects of their craft.

5- The findings of this study may help expose importance of using CALL to improve to students to improve their performance in English.

6. The findings of this study and other research papers may help students to see difficulties in learning English they may encounter if they do not use CALL in acquiring this foreign language.

Question of the Study

The present study aims at answering the questions below:

The main research question of the study is stated as follows:

"Does computer-based English instruction have any effects on the academic achievements of eleventh grade students?"

Sub-Questions of the Study

The study also seeks to answer the sub-questions below:

- 1- Is there a significant difference between the means of the post-test achievements scores and the pre-test counterparts of the control group taught based on the traditional method and the experimental group taught based on the computer-based instruction program?
- 2- Is there a significant difference in retention rate between computer-based instruction and its traditional counterpart?
- 3- Is the amount of time spent in the course a significant factor in student's academic achievement and retention?

Hypotheses of the Study

The study supposes the following hypotheses in order to reach the findings.

- 1- Computer-Based English Instruction has many effects on the academic achievements of eleventh graders.
- 2- There is a significant difference between the means of the post-test achievement scores corrected according to the pre-test achievement scores of the control group taught according to the traditional method and the experimental group taught according to the computer-based instruction program.
- 3- There is a significant difference in retention rate between Computer-Based Instruction and the traditional one.
- 4- The amount of time spent in the course is a significant factor in students' achievement and retention.

Limitations of the study

The study is restricted to the topics: "vocabulary, grammar, and short test" of the English course and to the 100 eleventh graders studying in two high schools at AL-Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, during the academic year 2013-2014.

Review of related literature

The effect of CALL on learners' academic achievement in English triggers considerable emphasis in English as a first language; however teachers traditionally discourage it.

Al-Seghayer (2001) examines effectiveness of a hypermedia-learning program designed to provide users reading a narrative English text with a variety of glosses or annotations for

words in the form of printed text, graphics, video, and sound on aiding vocabulary acquisition. The findings of his study indicate that a video clip is more effective in teaching unknown vocabulary words than a still picture. This result can be explained as follows: video better builds a mental image, better creates curiosity leading to increased concentration, and embodies an advantageous combination of modalities (vivid or dynamic image, sound, and printed text).

Al-Makhzoumi and Abu Al Sha'r (2003) compare effects of using computer multimedia approach and context-based approach on EFL major university students' learning of English. The findings of their study reveal that students in the experimental group, who received instruction via computer multimedia, significantly outperformed their peers in the control group, who received instruction via context-based materials. The authors stress the need for more emphasis on the use of computer-assisted multimedia to promote instruction and learning of English among English major students and teachers.

Abu Seileek (2004) investigates effect of a computer-based program on Jordanian first high grade students' writing ability in English. The study reveal that there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores on the writing task of the experimental group who received instruction via computer and the control group who received instruction via the traditional method in favor of the experimental group.

Al-Jarf (2004) tries to find out whether there were significant differences between EFL freshman students exposed to traditional in-class writing instruction depending on the textbook only, and those indulged in a combination of traditional in-class writing and web-based instruction in their writing achievement. The findings of the study show that the students in the experimental group taught using a combination of web-based writing instruction and traditional in-class writing instruction scored significantly higher than the control group taught using traditional in-class writing instruction depending on the textbook only. The findings of the study also indicate the use of technology had a positive effect on their attitude towards the writing process.

Al Bakrawi (2005) investigates effect of a computerized ESP program on the proficiency of secondary school hotel- stream students in English. The findings of the study indicate that the computerized ESP program has a measurable effect on the participants' proficiency in English. The researcher concluded that the high level of the proposed program apparently lead to an effective process of teaching and learning resulting in a significant improvement.

Al Qomul (2005) investigates effect of using an instructional software program on basic school students' achievement in English language grammar. It was found that there were significant differences in the means scores of students in the experiment group taught using computer-assisted instruction (CAI) and those in the control group taught using the traditional method. The findings of the study confirm the positive effects of the CAI in teaching English.

Almekhlafi (2006) investigates effect of CALL on elementary school students' achievement and their attitudes towards learning English in the United Arab Emirates UAE. The findings of the study show that the students in the experimental group had a positive attitude towards CALL. The findings of the study also reveal that CALL affected the students' achievement positively.

Abu Seileek (2007) investigates effectiveness of two-mediated techniques – cooperative and collective learning – designed for teaching and learning oral skills, listening and speaking. He also investigates students' attitudes towards using a CALL approach and its relevant techniques for teaching oral skills. The findings of the study show that the cooperative computer-mediated technique is a functional method for learning and teaching the said skills. The survey, conducted in the study, also show that students react positively to both the CALL approach and the cooperative computer-mediated technique.

Al- Menei (2008) studies effect of computer-assisted writing on Saudi students' writing skill in English. The findings of the study show that computer-assisted writing has a significant effect on EFL Saudi students' writing ability in two areas: paragraph writing and correcting grammar.

Bani-Hani (2009) investigates effectiveness of a computerized instructional program for teaching English as a foreign language in Jordanian basic schools and the teachers' and students' opinions about computer-assisted language learning (CALL). The findings of the study show that there were statistically significant differences in the students' achievement in favor of the experimental group. The findings of the study also indicate that teachers and students had the inclination to use computers in teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

Mahfouz and Ihmeideh (2009) finds out that using video and text chat can give English foreign learners more opportunities to make real-life communication and authentic interaction with native speakers and to widen perspectives of the learning environment beyond the boundaries of the classroom.

Al- Mansour and Al-Shorman (2009) investigate the effect of computer-assisted instruction on Saudi students learning of English at King Saud University. The findings of the study indicates that using computer-assisted English language instruction alongside the traditional method has a positive effect on the experimental group students' achievement.

Al-Abed Al-Haq & Al-Sobh (2010) investigate the effectiveness of a web-based writing instructional EFL program on Jordanian secondary students' performance. The findings of the study show that there were statistically significant differences in the students' mean scores of the overall English writing achievement post-test in favor of the experimental group. The findings of the study also indicate that there were statistically significant differences due to gender in favor of the female students compared with males. The findings finally show that there was a significant difference among the mean scores of the students' achievement post-test for the discursial component "content" in favor of the experimental group.

Arishi (2011) tries to explore attitudes of English faculty toward computer-assisted language learning (CALL) in Saudi Arabia and to find out whether these attitudes are associated with factors like age, qualifications, teaching experience, general training in using computers, training on CALL, and the use of a language laboratory in teaching English. It was found that faculty teaching English in Saudi Arabia express neither positive nor negative attitudes toward CALL. It was also found that there was no clear correlation between their attitudes and the proposed variables listed above.

Eyadat (2011) investigates students' attitudes toward the use of computers in the classroom at "New Horizon" school. The findings of the study indicate that students generally

had positive attitudes toward technology and toward learning via technology. The findings of the study also reveal that neither gender nor grade level impacted student's attitude toward technology or their attitude toward learning using technology. Finally, the study provides a number of field suggestions, one states that the relevant data do not provide any conclusive evidence pertinent to students' attitudes toward the subject-specific learning as affected by their technology-based learning experiences.

Fageeh (2011) studies the use of a blog in an intermediate level EFL college writing class and its effect upon students as well as its impact on developing positive attitudes towards writing compared with oral presentation traditions of writing instruction. The findings of the study reveal that students perceived Weblog as a tool for the development of their English, in terms of their writing proficiency and the relevant attitudes. The findings of the study also show that students viewed Weblog as an opportunity for self-expression in English, writing for both a local and global audience, creating actively dualistic social exchanges in blogs, and maintaining an interactive relationship with a real-time readership. Generally, it was found that students have had positive attitudes towards the Weblog use.

Ezza (2012) explores integration of the Web resources into the EFL classroom activities at the University of Khartoum, Sudan. It was found that (1) most EFL teachers use web-based materials to enrich courses content; (2) most EFL teachers integrate their students' Internet skills in the classroom activities; and (3) there are no gender differences with respect to the integration of web-based materials into the EFL course content.

Method and Research Design

The pre-test/ post-test control group design (PPGD) was used in this study. The (PPGD) is a mixed design, which is widely used. A mixed design is a factorial design widely used in social sciences, especially in education and psychology. The (PPGD) as one of the mixed designs is one of the most widely used experimental designs. In PPGD, in order to determine effectiveness of the experimental process, whether the variation between the two groups is significantly different is tested by means of the "t" or "f" test (Buyukozturk, 2010).

Participants

The participants of the study were 100 eleventh graders from two public high schools in Al-Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, during the academic year 2013-2014. The targeted eleventh graders were put into two groups by lot, and later 50 eleventh graders in the control group by lot again in order to avoid effects of the gender variable. All male students were delivered in order to avoid effects of instruction environment variable. Each group from one school, so, the first school held the control group, and the second one comprised the experimental group. The students' ages in both groups ranged from (13-15) years. The average of which was from a middle- class rank as well as the same socioeconomic status.

Instruments

In order to determine the eleventh graders' comprehension levels of the topics in the English course materials, an achievement test of 25 items was designed. Before designing the achievement test, the behavioral objectives were determined by means of the content analysis. With the help of experts in the field, it was determined that there were 25 types of critical behavior to be tested, and 75 questions were prepared to test these behavior types. The tentative

form was administrated to a group of 100 eleventh graders of another high school. The results of the administration were analyzed using Transition Assistance Program (TAP). 25 questions that test critical behaviors were included in the final test. On the basis of the items analysis, the achievements test was prepared with the item difficulty ranging from 0.25 to 0.90. This test was finalized with the KR-20 reliability as 0.72.

The Experimental Process and Collecting Data

The “computer-based English teaching program” was applied to the experimental group and not to its control counterpart. It was found that there was statistically no significant difference between the pre-test means of the experimental and control groups. Accordingly, it can be concluded that there is a no significant difference between the Achievement Test for Children, pre-test means of the experimental and control groups. In this case, it can be assumed that the achievements levels of the control and experimental groups were equivalent before the experiment began.

For the experimental group, the white board was not used while studying the unit in the English class. Instead, the interactive computer-based “learning package,” consisting of educational games that could be played when connected to the internet, was prepared with the Macromedia Flash 8 program.

The control and experimental groups were balanced gender-wise. Furthermore, care was taken that the individuals in the control and experimental groups did not interact with each other. Six sessions of teaching 12 hours was allocated equally to both groups. At the end of the three-week computer based English program, the experimental and control groups were again administered the “vocabulary, grammar, and short text Achievement Test” on the same date.

Analysis of Data

To analyze the data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov single sample test was used to see if the data were suitable for normal distribution, and the “independent groups’ t-test” was used to test equivalence of the achievement and problem-solving skills of the experimental and control groups at the beginning of the study. At the end of the experimental process, and in order to test effectiveness of the experimental process, the co-variance analysis technique, (ANCOVA), was used to see whether there was a significant difference between the post-test score averages, which were corrected according to the pre-test results of the experimental and control groups (Bonate, 2000; Büyüköztürk, 2006). The significance level was taken as 0.05 in the study.

Findings

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z was used to find out whether the scores of the dependent variables followed a normal distribution within each subgroup, and whether the variances were equal in order to measure whether there was a significant difference between the means of the pre test and post test results of the control and experimental groups’ achievements by means of ANCOVA.

The measurements related to the experimental and control groups follow a normal distribution and the variances are equal. Moreover, when the correlations between the measurements related to the groups were studied, it could be seen that there was a correlation at 0.49 (the lowest) between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group’s

Achievements. There was a correlation at 0.52 (the highest) between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group's Achievements. All of the correlations are significant at the 0.05 level. The results can provide evidence to the fact that there is a linear correlation between the pre-and-post test scores. With respect to these results, the co-variance analysis was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the means of the corrected post-test scores based on the control and experimental groups' achievements.

It was found that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the students' post-test achievement scores in the control and the experimental groups corrected according to the pre-test. It can be seen that there is a significant difference between the means of the achievements post-test scores corrected according to the pre-test in favor of the experimental group. It has been found that the program (computer-based English teaching package) used with the experimental group had an effect on the success of the English course according to the research findings. When the eta-square values of the dependent variables are examined, it will be seen that the extent of effect is high and the 17.4 % of the variations in the achievements post tests can be accounted for attributed to being in different process groups.

It can be stated that the F values and significance levels related to the models are significant from the perspective of the achievements post test scores and the 23.9 % of the variances in the achievements post tests can be attributed to being in different process groups, whereas the 58.7 % of the variances in the achievements' post tests can be attached to being in different process groups.

Discussion and Suggestions

The fundamental aim of this study was to investigate the effects of computer-based instruction (CBI) on the academic achievements of English high school students. To this end, the scores obtained from the Achievement Test administered to the experimental and control groups were compared. The findings obtained from the results of the pre-and-post tests administered at the end of the computer-based English program reveal that there was a significant difference between the achievements post-test scores corrected according to the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups. It can be stated that the use of CBI has positive effects on the learners' achievements; the high eta-square values obtained from the study indicate that the group and pre-test variables can provide an explanation for the variances in the post-test scores. The results of the research indicate that the use of the interactive learning package assists the learners in increasing their achievements.

The significant upsurge in learners' academic achievements in this study can also be seen in Olgun's research, entitled "The Effect of the Computer Assisted Instruction Given to Sixth Grade Primary School Students on the Students' Attitude toward Science and their Meta-Cognitive Skills and their Achievement," which show that the computer-assisted English instruction positively affected the students' attitude toward English and their meta-cognitive skills. Tekmen (2006) determines the effect of the Computerized Adaptive Testing (CAT) method on the students' attitude deemed significantly higher in comparison to the traditional techniques. Yildiz (2009), in her study, entitled "the Effect of Computer-Assisted Instruction on the Attitude and Achievement of 8th Grade Primary School Children in the Subjects of Geometrical Objects, their

Surface Areas and their Volume", concludes that the computer-assisted instruction positively affected students' attitudes.

Finally, the suggestion derived from this research findings can be presented as follows: this study is limited to the study of "vocabulary, grammar and short text" in the English course. Similar research can be carried out on diverse topics in different classes. Quantitative and qualitative studies can also be conducted on the achievements of high achievers and low achievers in the other school subjects. The duration of this research was limited to three weeks. In another study, more time should be allocated to find out effectiveness of the experiment of the teaching package used with the experimental group; teachers can be asked to take part in in-service training and can be taught how to use the programs such as macromedia flash, Adobe Photoshop, Macromedia Auth or ware. They can be encouraged to develop computer-based English software and similar research can be conducted in different primary and high classes.

Acknowledgment. The researchers would like to thank the Research Center of the College of Languages and Translation and the Deanship of Scientific Research at King Saud University for the support offered to this research.

About the Authors:

Dr. Khalid I. Al-Nafisah is an Associate Professor in the Department of English Language and Translation at the College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University. He was former head of English Department , and former vice-dean for Academic Affairs at Teachers College, and currently besides teaching at KSU, he is a consultant for the Ministry of Educauion.

Dr. Ibrahim Al-Domi is an Assistant Professor in the Training & Community Service Center at King Saud University (KSU) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Riyadh. Dr. Al-Domi specializes in teaching Methodology, Testing, Composition, English to college-level learners and diverse training courses for in-community students.

References

- AbuSeileek, Ali. (2004). *The effect of using a computer-based program on students' writing ability in English*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Arab University, Amman, Jordan.
- AbuSeileek, Ali. (2007). Cooperative vs. individual learning of oral skills in a CALL environment. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 20,(5),493-514. Available at: <http://www.informaworld.com/smpp/title~conten=t716100697~db=all~tab=issueslist~branches=20-v2o2o>
- Al-Abed Al-Haq, Fawwaz & Al-Sobh , Mahmoud Ali. (2010). The effect of a web-based writing instructional EFL program on enhancing the performance of Jordanian secondary students. *The JALT CALL journal*, 6 (3), 189-218.
- Alacapinar, F. G. (2003). The Effect of Traditional Education and Education via Computer on the Students' Gain. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 10, 40-45.

- Al- Bakrawi, Hussein. (2005). *The effect of a computerized ESP program in Jordanian hotel stream secondary stage students' English proficiency*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Amman, Arab University for Graduate Studies, Amman, Jordan.
- Al-Jarf, Reima. (2004). The Effects of Web-based Learning on Struggling EFL College Writers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37,(1), 46-56.
- Al- Makzoomi, Khalaf & abu Al-Sha'r, Awatif. (2003). The effect of multimedia-computer approach and context-based approach on learning vocabulary by Al-al-bayt university students. *Al-Manarah*, 10(4), 37-68.
- Al-Mansour, S. Nasser & Rae'd A. Al-Shorman. (2009). The effect of computer-assisted instruction on Saudi university students' learning of English. *Journal of King Saud University- languages and Translation*, 24(1),51-56.
- Almekhlafi, A. (2006). The effect of computer assisted language learning (CALL)on United Arab Emirates English as a Foreign Language (EFL) school students' achievement and attitude. *Journal of Interactive Learning Research*, 17(2), 121–142.
- Al-Menei, Ahmed. (2008). *An investigation of the effect of computer-assisted writing instruction on EFL Saudi learners' ability*. Unpublished Master Thesis, King Saud University, Riyadh, KSA.
- Al-Qomul, Mohammad. (2005). *The effect of using an instructional software program of English language functions on the basic stage students' achievement*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Amman Arab University for Graduate Studies, Amman, Jordan.
- Al-Seghayer, Khalid .(2001). The effect of multimedia annotation modes on L2 vocabulary acquisition: A comparative study. *Language Learning & Technology*, 5(1), 202-232.
- Arishi, Sultan Ahmed M. (2011). . *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, 8(12), 45-58.
- Bani-Hani, N. (2009). Designing an English computerized instructional program for Jordanian sixth grade students and measuring its effect on their achievement. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan.
- Bayraktar, Ş. (2001). A Meta analysis of the effectiveness of computer assisted instruction in science education. *The Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 34 (2), 173-188.
- Berger, C.F., Lu, C.R., Belzer, J.B., & Voss, B.E. (1994). *Research on the uses of technology in science Education*. D.L. Gabel (Ed.), *Handbook of research on science teaching and learning* (177-210). NewYork: Simon and Schuster Macmillan.
- Bigge, M. L., & Shermis, S. S. (2004). *Learning theories for teachers*. Boston: Pearson Education Inc.
- Boblck, J. M. (1972). Writing chemical formulas: A comparison of computer assisted instruction with traditional teaching techniques. *Science Education*. 56, 221-225.
- Brophy, A. K. (1999). *Is computer assisted instruction effective in the science classroom?* Unpublished Master's Thesis California State University, Dominguez Hills
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2010). *A booklet on data analysis for social sciences*. Ankara: Pegem A Publishing
- Bybee, R. W., Poewll, J. C., & Trowbridge, L. W. (2008). *Teaching secondary school: Strategies for developing scientific literacy*. USA: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Çepni, S., Taş, E. & Köse, S. (2006). The effects of computer assisted materials on students' cognitive levels, misconceptions and attitude toward science. *Computers and Education*, 46, 192-205.

- Çetin Ü. (2007). A comparison of traditional teaching and the computer assisted education software based on ARCS motivation model in accordance with students' achievements and permanence of learning. Unpublished Master's Thesis University of Gazi, Ankara, Turkey.
- Chang, C. Y. (2002). Does-computer-assisted instruction, problem solving = improved science outcomes? A Pioneer study. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 95 (3), 143-150.
- Eyadat, Waleed. (2011). Assessing Students' Attitude towards the Use of Computers in the Classroom. *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, 8(9), 11-18.
- Ezza , El-Sadig Y., El-Booni, Gamar A. & Mohammed ,Mohammadain Y. (2012). Integration of the Internet in a Sudanese EFL Classroom. Available at: <http://faculty.mu.edu.sa/public/uploads/1333630404.5677New%20Submission.pdf>
- Fageeh, Abdulaziz Ibrahim. (2011). EFL learners' use of blogging for developing writing skills and enhancing attitudes towards English learning: An exploratory study. *Journal of Language and Literature*, 2(1), 31- 48.
- Geban, Ö. (1995). The effect of microcomputer use in a chemistry course. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 11, 25-28.
- Hughes, W. R. (1974). A study of computer simulated experiments in physics classroom. *Journal of Computer Based Instruction*, 1, 1-6.
- İşman, A., Baytekin, Ç., Balkan, F., Horzum, M. B., & M. Kıyıcı, M. (2002). Science education and Constructivism. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology (TOJET)*, 1 (1), Article 7.
- Kara, İ., & Yakar, H. (2008). Effects of computer supported education on the success of students on teaching of Newton's Laws of Motion, *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 3 (1), 51-56.
- Kaşlı, A. F. (2000). *Fundamentals of computer aided education*. Izmir: E.Ü. Faculty of Education.
- Liao, Y. C. (2007). Effects of computer-assisted instruction on students' achievements in Taiwan: A Meta Analysis. *Computer and Education*, 48, 216-233.
- Mahfouz, S. M. & Ihmeideh, F. M. (2009). Attitudes of Jordanian university students towards using online chat discourse with native speakers of English for improving their language proficiency. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 22 (3), 207-227.
- Olgun, A. (2006). The effect of the computer-assisted instruction given to 6th grade primary school students on the students' attitude toward science and their Meta cognitive skills and achievements. Unpublished Master's Thesis University of Osmangazi, Eskişehir, Turkey.
- Owusu, K. A., Monney, K. A., Appiah, J. Y., & Wilmot, E. M. (2010). Effects of computer-assisted instruction on performance of senior high school biology students in Ghana. *Computer & Education*, 55, 904-910.
- Renshaw, C. E., & Taylor, H. A. (2000). The educational effectiveness of computer-based instruction. *Computers and Geosciences*, 26, 677-682.
- Senemoğlu, N. (2003). *Development learning and teaching*. Ankara: Gazi Publishing
- Senteni, A. (2004). Mathematics and computer-aided learning. *Academic Exchange Quarter*, 22.
- Tekmen, S. (2006). *The effect of computer assisted instruction given in the physics lesson in the 9th grade on the achievements of the students, their attitude toward the lesson and its retention*. Unpublished Master's Thesis University of Abant İzzet Baysal, Bolu, Turkey.

Yıldız, Z. (2009). *The effect of computer-assisted instruction on the attitude and achievements of 8th grade Primary school children in the subjects of geometric objects' surface areas and their volume*. Unpublished Master's Thesis University of Gazi, Ankara, Turkey.

Appendix

Achievements Motivation Questionnaire

First: Socio-Psychological Domain

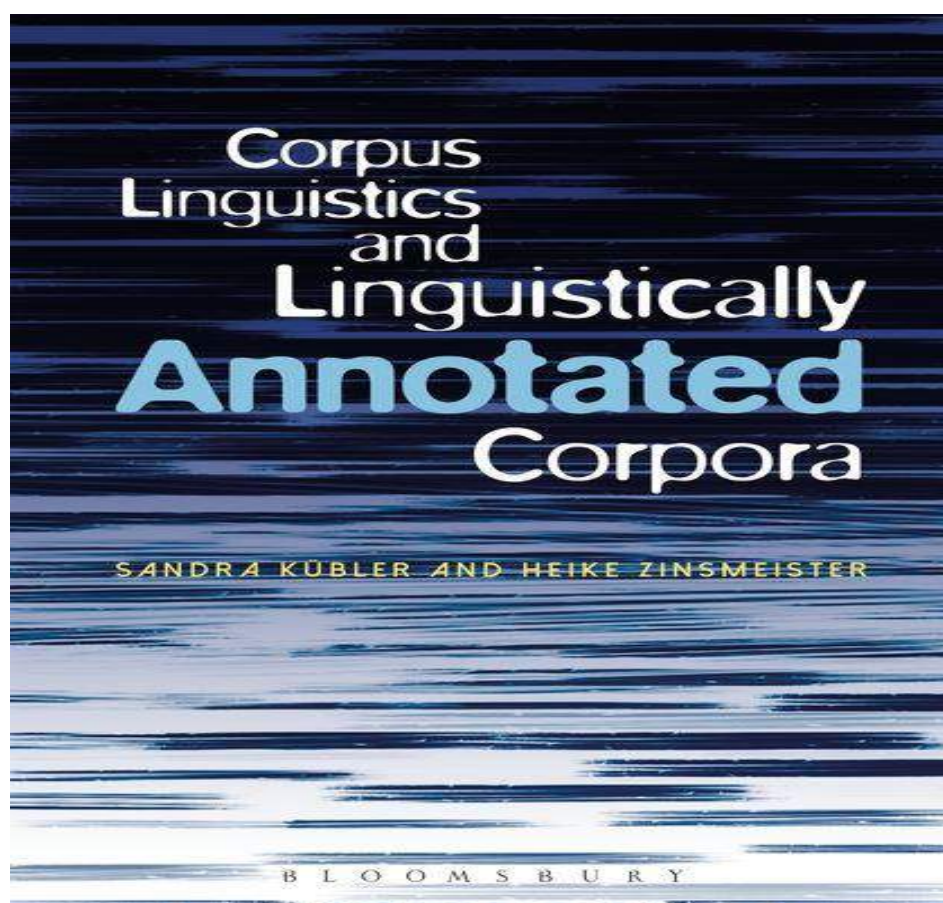
N	Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	The availability of suitable environment for studying				
2	Good economic level for student and his family				
3	Centering the students' attention				
4	The accessibility of mobile phone and other technologies				
5	The increasing of students motivation level toward learning				
6	The availability of time for student to study				
7	The comfortable family climate				
8	Positive attitudes among parents toward learning				
9	The clarity of the purpose of learning				
10	The positive influence of peers				
11	The amount of derivatives to motivate students intelligence				
12	Parents' attention paid toward their kids' levels				
13	Students interests in their lessons				
14	Pleasure taken in studying				
15	The various electronic resources				

Second: The School Domain

N	Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Students liking teachers and the school system				
2	Teachers' positive treatment of students				
3	Students liking the instructional materials				
4	Teaching materials by specialized teachers				
5	The availability of instructional equipment				
6	Students preparing their assignments and homework				
7	The rapid intake of the information				
8	Acquiring the computer skills in addition to the material				
9	Scientific and educational preparation of teachers				
10	The small size of students in each class				

Book Review

Corpus Linguistics and Linguistically Annotated Corpora



Authors: Sandra Kubler & Heike Zinsmeister

Title of the Book: Corpus Linguistics *and* Linguistically Annotated Corpora

Publication Date: February 2015

Publisher: Bloomsbury – London & New York

Pages: 320

Reviewer: Lee McCallum

Corpus Linguistics and the creation of corpora center on the creation of a collection of naturally occurring authentic texts that can be electronically stored and their language patterns studied through the use of corpus software. Corpus Linguistics has seen rapid growth in the last two decades especially with the use of learner and multilingual corpora covering both European and non-European languages. Corpus Linguistics and Linguistically Annotated Corpora by Sandra Kubler and Heike Zinsmeister aims to introduce a range of corpus tools and the uses of annotated corpora to traditional linguistics and linguistics students who are not familiar with corpora or the linguistic value they offer. The concept of annotating a corpus involves ‘tagging’ the corpus’ texts to highlight word classes and semantically and syntactically relevant words or longer phrases known as language ‘chunks’.

The 320 page book is supplemented by a companion webpage that lists annotated corpora and existing query tools, a further reading list and an exercise section at the end of each chapter. These additions allow readers to build on their initial reading in this book and also practice using the tools the book promotes. In a similar manner, the appendices provide the basic annotation schemes of two well-known corpora: the Penn Treebank corpus and the International Corpus of English (ICE) while the bibliography provides readers with a reference dense reading and resource list of both historic and modern articles, books and tools.

Part 1, from pages 1-21, gives an introduction to Corpus Linguistics and the annotation of corpora. The introduction covers important terminology including what a corpus is and the long-standing history of manual paper-based corpora and now electronically stored corpora. This introductory chapter also details the sampling and collecting of texts when designing a corpus. The authors also stress that the issues of balance and representativeness depend on the purpose of the corpus. The chapter then moves onto the language choice and time frames that the chosen texts will cover i.e. whether or not the corpus will be a static corpus of texts or if it will be a monitor corpus that is regularly updated and added to. Similarly, the reader is encouraged to consider if the texts will be all from one source/genre or if they will be taken from a range of genres/sources. These selection decisions depend on the purpose of the corpus and its intended uses.

Part 1, Chapter 2 covers the different levels of annotation a corpus may take. It introduces word-level and discourse-level annotation involving whole texts. The authors note that the surrounding word company is important for allocating a label to the word under study. The chapter details how English nouns and verbs may be annotated according to mood and number whereas other European languages can annotate adjectives according to gender and number. Nouns can also be annotated according to word class by the use of a POS (Part-Of-Speech) tagger. Words can also be syntactically and semantically annotated at sentence or larger word chunk level to determine structural or meaning patterns. Finally, the authors illustrate discourse annotation to gauge the coherence of a text. The chapter concludes by outlining the argument for and against annotating

a text, searching an annotated corpus and where to find further guidelines on annotation. Part 1 succeeds in raising awareness of the breadth and depth of corpora use and the value of annotated corpora. The strengths of the book become apparent with corpus output introduced and reference is made to other languages besides English.

Part 2, from pages 44-156, expands on Part 1 by devoting an individual chapter to annotation at word-level, syntactic annotation, semantic annotation and discourse annotation. Each chapter goes into a lot of detail and the output from the actual corpora followed by an explanation of how to read and analyze it means the average linguist is walked through the generation of output and its subsequent analysis. As a novice corpus creator and user myself, I feel this is a really valuable addition to the book because first time corpora users can find being faced with seemingly complex output daunting and overwhelming.

Part 3, from pages 157-194, starts by outlining the advantages and limitations of using annotated corpora and serves to remind us that computer annotation, while efficient, is never 100% accurate and manual correction will still in many cases be required. Chapter 8 then uses output from well-known corpora such as the British National Corpus (BNC), the Brigham Young University (BYU) search interface and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) to demonstrate what scholars have used annotation for. The selection of output here is useful as it exposes the reader to (1) more than one corpus and (2) different varieties of English however, readers who want to see other languages in action may be disappointed that they do not feature in this particular chapter.

Part 4, from pages 196-273, defines concordance lines as lines of text taken from a corpus that show the occurrence of a search word in its text position. Part 4 outlines what concordance lines are used for and where to download and access commercial concordancers that allow texts to be queried. Once again, concordance output is vital for the reader to understand how to read the lines and how they might be used for research and pedagogic purposes. Chapter 10 deals with searching for common/frequent expressions or expressions that interest the linguist. This chapter contains useful shortcuts and search tips to generate different corpus output. The chapter outlines how to search for instances of more than one word or class. For example, the reader is shown how to search for the colours red, blue, yellow or green and this is shown as: “red|blue|yellow|green” where | = or. The chapter also outlines how to search for number and letter ranges as well as different word forms like: begins, begun and beginner. The remainder of Part 4 continues in a similar manner by using symbols and shortcuts to search for word level items (Chapter 11); syntactic structures (Chapter 12) and semantic and discourse phenomena (Chapter 13). Part 4 is resource dense with many corpus tools demonstrated which opens up endless research and pedagogic possibilities to readers.

Overall this book is useful for novice corpus linguists or those who have extensive linguistics experience and are interested in discovering how corpora can assist and deepen their

understanding. The book offers extensive training in annotation and adequately demonstrates how annotation can be linguistically exploited. While the book covers other languages beside English, there is a lack of non-European corpora referenced and this is something readers should be aware of. Despite this, the book remains a solid contribution to Corpus Linguistics and will greatly help those needing guidance in annotation through its clear explanations, extensive demonstrations and example packed chapters.

Reviewer: Ms. Lee McCallum, Prince Sultan University.