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Dr. Khairi Al-Zubaidi

Associate Editor

Dr. Robert Arthur Coté

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

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Dr Abdul-Hafeed Ali Fakih,
Department of English, Najran University, Saudi Arabia

Dr. Eirlys Edwina Davies
King Fahd School of Translation, Abdelmalek Essaadi University, Morocco

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Universitas Pendidikan, Indonesia

Contents

Article Titles & authors	Pages
Team of this issue	1
Contents	1-2
Synergizing Formative and Summative Assessment of Presentation Slideshows Eddy White	3 – 29
A study of Cohesion in International Postgraduate Students' Multimodal Management Accounting Texts Hesham Suleiman Alyousef & Suliman Mohammed Alnasser	30 – 46
Effects of Structural Context Integration on Ambiguity Elimination for Students of Translation Reem Ibrahim Rabadi & Haytham Hamad Althawbih	47 – 63
Web-based English for Computer Science: Students' Evaluation of Course Effectiveness Mostefa Meddour	64 – 80
Exploring the Cognitive Processes of Students and Professors of Translation Karima BOUZIANE	81 – 93
Teaching Academic Writing to Undergraduate Saudi students: Problems and Solutions – A King Saud University perspective Nasser Saleh Al-Mansour	94– 107
Examining the Effectiveness of Utilizing Mobile Technology in Vocabulary Development for Language Learners Hind Alzahrani	108– 119
Compounding as a Near Universal Phenomenon with Special Reference to Standard Arabic Nominal Compounding Abdul-Hafeed Ali Fakih & Nadia Ali Al-Shwafi	120–136
Metaphor and Action Embodiment in the Glorious Quran As'ad J. Abu Libdeh	136 – 156
Moroccan University Students' Use of the English Regular Past and Plural Allomorphic Variations Smirkou Ahmed	157– 165
Saudi EFL Students' Perceptions toward the Online Interactions of their Peers and Instructors Ali Hussein Alamir	166 – 190
"I could right what had been made wrong": Laila Lalami's appropriation of Aphra Behn's <i>Oroonoko</i> Yousef Awad	191-204
English Triumphalism in Academic Writing: The Price of Global Visibility Randa Sibahi	205– 218
Transposition and Modulation to Translate Tourism Texts from English into Indonesian Budi Purnomo	219 –229

Contents

Adding More Fuel to the Fire: A Study of Attrition in Formulaic Sequences by Adult Learners Thamer Alharthi	230 –243
An Exploration of Freshman Students' Attitude towards English Literature Raghad Dwaik, Salah Shrouf & Bassem Sahib	244 – 260
The Challenges of World Wide Web in Teaching and Learning English Literature in Indonesia Tatit Hariyanti	261 – 274
Cultural Approximation, Alienation and the Role of English as a Second Language in Canadian Society Haja Mohideen Mohamed Ali & Tasdiq Nomaira Alam	275 – 292
An Investigation of Idiom Comprehension and Translation by Translation Students at KSU Dania Adel Salamah	293– 308
Code-switching in Daily Conversations among Iraqi Students in Malaysia Saka Sally Sardar, Alsamrayee Ahmad Ali Mahdi & Yasin Mohamad Subakir Mohd	309- 319.
Difficulties and Strategies in Translating Collocations in BBC Political Texts Khetam W. Shraideh & Radwan S. Mahadin	320- 356
Culturally Responsive Teaching and Bilingual Students' Literacy Skills in the Middle East Farah Omar Habli	357-366
Assessment of EFL Learners' Ability to Identify and Interpret Rhetorical Questions: A Pragmatic Perspective Study Khalid Sabie Khamees	367-381
The Effectiveness of Social Distance on Requests Sumayyah Qaed Alsulami	382-395
Variation in Address Forms for Arab Married and Unmarried Women in the Workplace: A Sociolinguistic Study Mays Qasem Ajlouni & Lutfi Abulhaija	396-421
Book Review Papers in Arabic/English Translation Studies 1: An Applied Perspective Author: Mohammed Farghal et al. Reviewer: Ahmad Al-Harashseh	422-423
Book Review Research Design, Creating Robust Approaches for the Social Sciences Author: Stephen Gorard Reviewer: Nadia Idri	424-426

Synergizing Formative and Summative Assessment of Presentation Slideshows

Eddy White

Center for English as a Second Language (CESL)
College of Humanities
University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA

Abstract

This report describes research carried out at in an EFL public speaking course at a Japanese university. While student presentations typically involve both delivery and student slideshows being assessed at the same time, this investigation looks at separating the two components and assessing presentation slideshows separately. Using a summative assessment instrument, a slideshow rubric, a series of related formative assessments were also developed and administered with the goal of creating an synergy of assessments whereby the combined effect of interweaving these assessments together would promote greater student learning. The 22 university students in this class engaged in trio of related assessments (two formative, one summative) in developing a slideshow for a persuasive speech. Students produced a first draft of their presentation slideshows, and these were used for a self-assessment, and also for a formative teacher assessment (ungraded) prior to the final graded summative assessment. The report into the formative use of summative assessment describes the processes and instruments used in this experiment in assessment synergy. Assessment information and data from five students in the class provide actual assessment examples to help delineate the processes described. These student examples, and the teacher feedback included, help demonstrate that the formative use of summative assessment had positive effects on student learning related to the effective construction of presentation slideshows. The report concludes with a call for more classroom based research and publications in EFL/ESL contexts related to the synergy of formative and summative assessment processes, practices and instruments.

Key words: assessment for learning, formative and summative assessment, presentations

I. Introduction

According to the on-line version of the Oxford English dictionary, the word *synergy* comes from the Greek term ‘sunergos’ meaning ‘working together’, and refers to the ‘*interaction or cooperation of two or more agents to produce a combined effect greater than the sum of their separate effects*’. This report describes an attempt to have two varieties of assessment, formative and summative, interact and cooperate; working together to improve classroom learning and teaching. In their book reporting efforts to put formative assessment procedures into practice in schools in the UK, Black et al., (2003) include the formative use of summative assessment as one of four practices that teachers found were effective ways of promoting student learning. This report also discusses the formative use of summative assessment, and describes such a procedure in a university course in Japan. It has been noted that, at the tertiary level, little is known about the classroom assessment practices of teachers of English as a second or foreign language (Cheng, Rodgers & Wang, 2008). This report seeks to make a contribution to this limited field of assessment knowledge and make public a synchronized assessment process as one ‘living example of implementation’ (Black & Wiliam, 1998).

These two varieties of assessment will be discussed in more detail below, but a useful starting point for what is meant by these terms notes that while summative assessment (SA) has the purpose of reporting on student learning achieved at a certain time, formative assessment (FA) has the single purpose of informing both learning and teaching (ASF, 2005). The concept of assessment *purpose* is to be noted in this description, because “with assessment, purpose is everything” (Stiggins, 2008, 3).

Formative assessment has been much discussed and researched in the years since Black & Wiliams’ (1998) seminal review of its’ uses and benefits. Yet, for teachers at all levels of education, the word ‘assessment’ is primarily associated with the end-of -unit, or end- of- term summative version when grades are calculated and distributed to students. This association is a reflection of the persistent view that assessment signifies making judgments rather than helping learning (Harlen, 2007, a). Yet, because of the importance of both formative and summative purposes in promoting successful learning, and the need for balance between them, assessment needs to be seen as an instructional tool for use while learning is happening, as well as an accountability tool to check if learning has occurred (Balanced Assessment, 2003). Stiggins & Chappuis (2005) neatly summarize the core of the issue as follows: “The teaching challenge is to use the assessment in advance of the graded event, as a vehicle to deepen the learning and to reveal to students their developing proficiencies” (p. 5).

This report discusses one response to this ‘teaching challenge’ of synchronizing FA and SA. In an EFL course called *Public Presentations*, in the Department of English at Tokyo Woman’s Christian University, students’ computerized slideshows for their end of term presentations were assessed formatively prior to the summative grading event. All slideshows were constructed using the most common presentation software, Microsoft PowerPoint. In academic Writing classes in higher education it is common practice for students to submit first drafts of their essays for teacher feedback prior to submitting the final version. The same process was engaged in here with regard to the slideshow component of students’ final presentations.

An oral presentation, supported by a set of slides (or “deck”), is a communicative event

with two main elements: the performance (the speaker) and the slideshow (visual aids) (Farkas, 2005). In this classroom assessment report, these two main elements of students' final presentations were assessed separately. Students submitted a working version of their slideshow, which was formatively assessed by both themselves and the teacher, prior to submitting the final version of the deck on the day of their presentation. The final version of students' slideshows were then summatively graded, and this score comprised 25% of their final course grade. As will be delineated below, the goal here was to use assessment to make learning and teaching more effective through this synchronized assessment process. The broader purpose of the assessment framework reported on here is captured in the following quote from Harlen (2007): *The overall purpose is to foster learning with understanding and the skills and attitudes that are needed for successful and continued leaning* (p. 132, italics added).

This report will describe how formative and summative assessment elements were synchronized together in a one-semester university course, with the focus on the formative use of summative assessment. In this case the same assessment tool, a PowerPoint slideshow scoring rubric, was used in three ways (student self-assessment, formative instructor assessment, and finally summative assessment) in order to promote and improve student learning. The assessment tool and the procedures for its' various uses in the Public Presentations (PP) course will be described. This will be followed by a discussion and analysis of the procedure, with examples of the different assessments collected during the course of this investigation.

In this report of FA and SA synergy, the aim is for the trio of assessment events to be synergized into "a balanced and integrated assessment system, with all parts working together in the service of student success" (Stiggins, 2006, p. 17). Dunn et. al, 2004 describe such interaction as "the interweaving of formative assessment tasks towards a summative event" (p. 18), and this description captures the assessment interplay evidenced in this report.

We begin by framing this investigation with an overview of the related literature on synchronizing formative and summative assessment within a course framework.

II. Literature Review

This review of the assessment literature will focus on a brief discussion of the following three areas: the formative and summative assessment distinction, synchronizing both assessment purposes, and assessing presentation slide shows.

1. The FA/SA distinction

It has been noted that summative and formative assessment functions can be seen as the "the ends of a continuum along which assessment can be located (William & Black, 1996, p. 542), and a distinction has been made between these two terms for more than forty years. It was Scriven (1967), in reference to program evaluation, who first suggested a distinction between formative evaluation and summative evaluation. The intention of formative evaluation was to foster development and improvement within an ongoing activity, product or program. In contrast, summative evaluation was used to assess whether the results of the object being evaluated met stated goals. Bloom, Hastings & Maddaus (1971) were the first to propose that teachers should engage in formative assessment activities after stages of teaching and that, rather than relying on summative outcomes, they should provide feedback to students to target teaching and learning.

Sadler's (1989), *Formative assessment and the design of instructional systems*, has proven to be a seminal and oft-quoted work in the classroom-based assessment literature. He notes that the meanings attached to the word formative relates to the idea of "forming or molding something, usually to achieve a desired end", while summative "is concerned with summing up or summarizing the achievement status of a student and is geared towards reporting at the end of a course of study..." (p.120). Sadler (1989) was one of the first to note that the primary distinction between FA and SA was not related to the timing of the assessment, but rather to assessment purpose and effect. However, timing is a consideration and connects with a key difference between SA and FA; while summative assessment generally signifies the end of instruction (or part thereof), formative assessment anticipates that further action will be taken (Baroudi, 2007).

While a review of the literature shows that there are some differing interpretations of the meaning of the two terms, and, in particular, many teachers and researchers have misunderstood formative assessment (Black, 2003). McTighe & O'Connor (2005, p.10) provide a succinct gloss of the common current understanding of SA and FA and their uses:

- **Summative assessments** summarize what students have learned at the conclusion of an instructional segment. These assessments tend to be evaluative, and teachers typically encapsulate and report assessment results as a score or a grade.
- **Formative assessments** occur concurrently with instruction. These ongoing assessments provide specific feedback to teachers and students for the purpose of guiding teaching to improve learning. Formative assessments include both formal and informal methods... . Although teachers may record the results of formative assessments, we shouldn't factor these results into summative evaluation and grading.

Gibbs & Stobart (1993) made a significant distinction between assessment purposes (the intentions behind the assessment process) and assessment uses (actual use made of the results). Following this distinction, what determines whether an assessment may be labeled formative or summative is dependent on how the results are used; summative assessment documents how much learning has occurred at a point in time and its results are used to make some sort of judgment (typically a grade); while formative assessment is more dynamic and ongoing and its results are used by students and teachers to decide next steps in the learning process (Chappuis & Chappuis, 2008). A key point here is that an assessment may not be inherently labeled formative or summative, but application of these labels will be dependent on purposes and particularly results. Wiliam & Leahy (2007) are explicit about this stating:

... the terms formative and summative apply not to assessments themselves, but to the functions they serve. As a result, the same assessment can be both formative and summative. Assessment is formative when the information arising from the assessment is fed back within the system and is actually used to improve the performance of the system (p. 39).

The key idea here is that formative assessment is focused on the improvement of student performance.

In writing about the relationship between assessment for formative and summative purposes, Harlen (2006) notes that both purposes- to help learning and to summarize what has been learned- are central to effective educational practice. Harlen further notes that assessment systems become more dependable when teachers have a very good understanding of learning goals and of students' progression towards them. Like Wiliam & Black (1996), Harlen notes that the relationship between FA and SA should be described as a 'dimension' rather than a 'dichotomy'. The assessment purpose at the summative end of this dimension is to account for what has been achieved at a certain point, while with FA the key purpose is for both students and teachers to identify next learning steps and how to proceed with them.

While SA finalizes and is present-oriented, looking at what has been achieved by a student at a certain point in time, FA is future-oriented, looking ahead to next steps in improving student performance or development of knowledge and skills. It is also important to note that while all assessments have the potential to serve a summative function, only some have the additional capability of serving formative functions (Wiliam & Black, 1996). After their review of the literature, Wiliam & Leahy (2007) point out that the empirical evidence suggests that the assessment which has the greatest impact on student achievement is short cycle FA.

Added to this description of FA and SA presented above, "a more transparent distinction" in the context of classroom based student assessment (James & Pedder, 2006, p. 109), is between assessment **of** learning and assessment **for** learning. While summative-purposed assessment *of* learning is focused on grading and reporting, in the formative-oriented assessment *for* learning, assessment is considered part of teaching and is explicitly used to promote learning (Assessment Reform Group, 1999). The ultimate goal of assessment for learning is to get students involved in their own assessment so that they can think about where they are in their learning, understand what they need to do next, and the steps they need to take to improve (James, 2002). In this formative-purposed assessment, students and teachers work together to improve and maximize student learning and performance prior to the graded summative event.

2. Synchronizing FA and SA

The above discussion highlights the key idea of *purpose* in assessment use and in evaluating assessment programs. Yet, it is a fact that FA and SA can work at cross-purposes, and interfere with or hinder student learning rather than help develop it. Summative assessment especially can skew and distort formative practices that teachers may attempt to incorporate. A number of authors and publications have discussed the alignment of FA and SA so they work together rather than against each other. However, in the published literature, there are few published accounts of research related to the use of summative assessment for formative purposes. This is particularly true for English language teaching contexts.

More than ten years ago, Black et al. (2003) studied the assessment practices of 36 Math, Science and English teachers in secondary schools in England. In that context, the giving of regular tests was a familiar part of classroom practice and attempts were made to convert these summative tests into more formative assessment practices. The investigation conducted at these UK schools found that teachers struggled to reconcile formative assessment practices with the pressures of external high-stakes summative testing. Black et al. (2003) noted that it was unrealistic to expect teachers to practice separation between assessment for and assessment of

learning and that the challenge was to achieve a more positive relationship between them.

In a conference presentation reporting an account of the development of these formative assessment practices in UK schools, Black (2003) poses the question as to whether FA and SA can serve learning together. He summarizes the case for giving priority to formative assessment practices because they can; produce learning gains, are welcomed by students, are linked to basic principles of good learning, have a positive effect on student motivation and self-esteem, and also teachers engaged in using FA in their classes feel work is professionally rewarding. Regarding FA, Black (2003) makes the following key assertion: "For formative assessment, the learning caused by the assessment is paramount. . . . What really matters is whether the result of the assessment is successful learning" (p. 14).

Another published example of using formative assessment for summative purposes is one by Maxwell (2004), used for certification purposes in secondary schools in Queensland, Australia. Maxwell describes an assessment approach where student portfolios are used to collect evidence of learning over time. Maxwell defines this process as 'progressive assessment' and writes:

. . . progressive assessment blurs the boundary between formative and summative assessment. All progressive assessment necessarily involves feedback to the student about the quality of their performance. This can be expressed in terms of the student's progress towards desired learning outcomes and suggested steps for further development and improvement (2004, 2-3).

In order for such an assessment process to work, according to Maxwell, it is a necessity that learning expectations be clearly expressed for students in terms of criteria showing common dimensions of learning. Only when this is done can students be engaged as to whether they are on-target with regard to the learning objectives, and what is required for them to improve their performance in future assessments using the same criteria.

Retired professor John Biggs has been an influential voice in the area of teaching and assessment in higher education and has focused some attention on formative and summative assessment working together to assist the learning process. Biggs argued that "sensible educational models make effective use of both FA (formative assessment) and SA (summative assessment)" (1998, p. 105.) .88. He noted that:

. . . there is a powerful interaction between FA and SA that could usefully be incorporated in an overall synthesis, so that both backwash (from SA) and feedback (from FA) are conceptualized within the same framework. Then indeed one might have a powerful enhancement to learning, using such a synthesis to engineer backwash from SA so that the effects were positive, and backwash from SA supporting the feedback from FA (Biggs, 1998, 32).

The 'overall synthesis' referred to here was a goal of this research project, an attempt to conceptualize FA and SA within the same assessment framework.

In writing about assessment formats and their potential to enhance learning, Kennedy et al. (2006) contend that the coalescence of FA and internal summative assessment is possible. While noting that SA is different in form and function from formative assessment, these authors note that a synthesis between the two can occur if SA can be more inclusive of the basic principles of formative assessment, and this will have a positive effect on the learning and teaching that occurs in a course.

One of the few articles explicitly focused on the uses of formative and summative assessment is Harlen's (2005) *Teachers summative practices and assessment for learning-tensions and synergies*. In it, Harlen discusses how FA and SA can affect one another in both positive and negative ways. Harlen makes it clear that for an assessment to have a formative purpose it is essential to report to students the things that need to be improved to raise their performance to a higher level. Harlen (2005) contends that while formative and summative assessments are needed for different educational purposes, they can exist in synergy.

In her report regarding the perceptions and realities of formative and summative assessment, Taras (2008) points out that discussion about the tension between SA and FA is prevalent in the assessment literature. But she notes these two are more easily reconciled in a higher education context, with the absence of external summative testing, and the fact that all assessment is the responsibility of instructors and controlled by them. Her article reports on a small-scale study of lecturers at an English university and found that they had an incomplete and fragmented understanding of FA and SA and the relationship between them. Taras (2008) writes that future research needs to address the issue of reconciling FA and SA so that they are 'mutually supportive' and notes that reports of learners involvement in the assessment process has been a neglected area of research.

3. Assessing Student Slide Shows

Published research on the assessment of student presentation slideshows is extremely limited. Only one other example (Dobson, 2006) has been identified in the literature review for this research. In an article about understanding and using PowerPoint, Farkas (2005) notes that while this medium has generated much casual commentary, very little careful analysis or empirical research has been done. In considering the assessment of slideshows he makes the following points:

PowerPoint seems simple. Almost anyone can type slide titles and bulleted points. . . . PowerPoint, in fact, is complex. It is complex because it encompasses the challenges of public speaking; because graphs and diagrams and (increasingly) multimedia components often appear on slides; but also because we must carefully consider the layout and appearance of the slides, the phrasing of the slide text, and the overall structure of the deck-both as visual communication and as support for the oral channel (Farkas, 2005, 320).

Dobson reported on such an assessment with undergraduates at a Norwegian university college and focused on the validity of assessing PowerPoint slideshows. On the basis of his case study, Dobson concluded that PowerPoint presentations can be set as student assignments and used for assessment purposes, in particular for formative purposes; assessment for learning. He

also called for further case studies of PowerPoint presentations used for assessment within an academic setting.

The above review of the literature related to the formative use of summative assessment shows that there are some valuable sources for teachers/researchers to consult in engaging in such related research. However, we can also see that there are few published accounts and discussions of attempts to synchronize FA and SA into a framework that both promotes and evaluates student learning.

We now move on to describe and discuss the research reported on in this paper.

III. Methodology

This investigation into using formative assessment for summative purposes involves a course, taught by the author, in the Department of English at Tokyo Woman's Christian University called *Public Presentations* (PP). This two-semester course involved 22 students, all Japanese, in their third year of study. The PP course introduced students to the theory and practice of public speaking. Topics covered included methods of organizing a speech, delivering a speech, the types and uses of evidence as supporting material, and the effective use of visual aids, particularly computerized slideshows. In addition to regularly occurring mini-presentations during class time, students were required to prepare and deliver a main final presentation at the end of each semester. In the first semester this was an informative speech, while the second semester it was a speech with a persuasive purpose. These two main presentations were required to be between 8-10 minutes in length and supported by a computerized slideshow (typically using Microsoft PowerPoint software). Essentially, the PP course was designed to develop in students' the communication skills necessary to analyze verbal discourse and to perform effectively in public speaking situations. Course objectives included students gaining the skills, experience, and self-confidence for speaking in public settings, including a thorough technological competence for multimedia presentations. The course textbook was *The Essential Elements of Public Speaking, 2nd Edition* (DeVito, 2006).

The Public Presentations course was divided into Part 1, in the first semester (April-July) and Part 2 for the second semester (Sept. – Jan.). The assessment framework for Part 1 was as follows: three chapter tests (45%), final slideshow presentation (40%), and a final presentation self-report (15%). This self-report involved answering a series of questions about the final presentation after viewing a video recording of their performance. As mentioned, the final presentation for Part 1 was an informative speech, which according to the course textbook, "... seeks to create understanding; to clarify, enlighten, correct misunderstandings, or demonstrate how something work" (DeVito, 2006, 18).

Chapter tests, used in both semesters, were taken from the Instructors Manual and Test Bank accompanying the course textbook and were included to ensure that students were reading and engaging with the textbook content and the ideas and information therein which would help in the design and delivery of their major presentations. Chapter test scores were recorded and used for summative grading purposes.

In the second half of the course (PP2) changes were made to the assessment framework of the course. The biggest change was that I decided that the presentation slideshow and the

delivery of the presentation itself would be assessed separately. This was primarily due to the problematic nature of student slideshows for their informative presentations at the end of the first half of the course. Problems with slideshows (such as excessive textual information, unclear progression of ideas, layout, and writing mechanics) were common in students' informative speeches and I decided to pay special attention to improving slideshows in the second semester. An additional reason for splitting up assessments for the slideshow and spoken performance (delivery) was that it also lightens the assessment load on the teacher on presentation day allowing for a primary focus on the delivery of the speech.

The assessment framework for the second part of Public Presentations was as follows: three chapter tests (45%), slideshow (25%) and final presentation delivery (30%). Students were required to submit a final version, color copy, of their presentation slides on the day of their final presentation and it was these slides which were formally graded. While the purpose of the final presentation in the first semester was an informative one, in the second semester students were required to deliver a persuasive presentation, one which "... seeks to influence attitudes or behaviors: to strengthen or change audience attitudes or to inspire hearers to take some specific action (De Vito, 2006, 18). Persuasive topics selected by students included those opposing TV advertising for kids, cosmetic surgery, school uniforms, and those supporting vegetarianism, gay marriage and abortion.

The class textbook takes students through ten steps in preparing and presenting a public speech. They are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 10 Steps in preparing and presenting a speech (in De Vito, 2006)

1. Select your topic and purpose
2. Analyze your audience
3. Research your topic
4. Develop your thesis and main points
5. Support your main points
6. Organize your speech materials
7. Word your speech
8. Construct your introduction, conclusion and transitions
9. Rehearse your speech
10. Deliver your speech

Approximately a month before doing their final presentation students should have reached the construction step (8) in the process, including working on their slideshow. At this point students were required to bring to class a printed first draft of their presentation slideshow. In class, students first were given a rubric to self-evaluate their slides. They took 20 minutes of class time to complete this self-evaluation. Slides were then given to the teacher for a formative assessment, using a teachers' version of the same evaluation rubric.

It should be noted that in the two classes prior to students submitting their first drafts, classroom instruction specifically paid attention to all the slideshow criterion used on the assessment rubric (introduction, content, text elements, layout, graphics/visuals, writing mechanics and citations). In addition, the course textbook chapter entitled, *Using Supporting Materials and Presentation Aids* (De Vito, 2006) was reviewed, with particular emphasis on the extensive section related to computer-assisted presentations. Students were told to use this textbook section to help plan and organize their slideshows, and classroom instruction made use of these textbook pages also.

In the next class, a week later, the first draft of slides along with teachers' formative assessment were returned to students. Class time was used to begin revisions and the teacher circulated talking with individual students and engaging in troubleshooting. After this class students had approximately two weeks to further edit and revise their slides and prepare for their final presentation. Final presentations for the 22 students were completed over a three-day period during the final exam week, with approximately 7 presentations being completed in a 90-minute session on each day. In addition to evaluating presentation delivery, final versions of the slideshows were picked up from students and summatively evaluated, using the same criteria included in both formative assessments (student self-assessment and teacher assessment).

A student self-assessment version of the slideshow evaluation rubric is shown below in Table 2. This rubric is a modified version of the PowerPoint rubric by Vandervelde (2001). The teacher versions, both formative and summative, were very similar to this, with the same criterion specified.

Table 2: *Slideshow evaluation rubric (student self-evaluation version)*

Presentation Slideshow (first draft)		<u>Self-evaluation</u>			
Student name: _____		Topic: _____			
Part 1					
4 = very good		3 = good		2 = average/OK	
1 = weak					
Criteria		Rating			
1. Introduction	Introduction presents the overall topic and draws the audience into the presentation. It is clear, coherent and interesting.	4	3	2	1
2. Content (most important)	Information is accurate and serves the purpose of <u>persuading</u> the audience. The content is clear and concise with a logical progression of ideas and supporting information.	4	3	2	1
3. Text elements	Fonts, point size and colors make text easy to read. Text is easy to follow and understand.	4	3	2	1
4. Layout	The layout is visually pleasing and contributes to the overall message with appropriate use of headings, sub-headings and white space. Layout is not cluttered or confusing.	4	3	2	1
5. Graphics/visuals	Graphics/visuals assist in presenting an overall theme and enhance understanding of concepts, ideas, etc.	4	3	2	1
6. Writing mechanics	The text is clearly written with no/few errors in grammar, vocabulary, and spelling. Easy to read and understand.	4	3	2	1
7. Citations	Sources of Information are properly cited so audience can determine credibility and authority of information.	4	3	2	1
Slideshow: Overall Evaluation	<u>first draft</u>	4	3	2	1

Students were required to carefully examine the first draft of their slideshow according to the seven different criteria and mark each element from 4 (very good) to 1 (weak). An overall mark for the draft of the slideshow deck was also required, for a more holistic view of the slideshow. On Part 2 of this evaluation, shown on the reverse side of the student version, students were instructed to make notes in three boxes related to (1) strong points of their slideshow, (2) weak areas, and (3) things to work on for the final version. This self-evaluation was completed during class time, while looking at the first version of their slides. After this time, both the slides and student self-evaluation were submitted to the teacher.

The above rubric, and the three versions of it used in the assessment system described here, makes concrete for students the key element of *task clarity* in that they can clearly understand the learning goal and how their learning will be evaluated (McTighe & O'Connor, 2005).

The teacher formative assessment of the 22 student slideshows involved examining the slides in each deck and using an instructor's version of the same rubric with an added space at the bottom for teacher commentary. Notes were also made on the slides themselves, identifying confusing parts, or suggesting changes. For example, awkward phraseology was marked "R" for 're-write'. Students were required to make their own revisions and any errors were not fixed by the teacher. Student self-evaluations were not viewed by the teacher prior to formative assessment, and only given a cursory viewing later. While providing formative feedback, notes were made by the teacher about recurring problems (e.g. lack of citations) and these notes were used to plan for re-teaching in subsequent classes. First drafts of slideshows with teacher notations and the formative assessment were returned in the following weeks class. Students were given time to work on revisions during class and the teacher was able to talk briefly and individually with most students. Students were able to answer questions, and time was also made in the final classes for re-teaching or reminding students about weak areas noticed in the first drafts. On the day of the final presentations, coming a few weeks after formative assessment was engaged in, students submitted a final edition of their slideshows. These were summatively assessed separately after the presentation. A week later students were able to pick up both the final slideshow evaluation, and the grade for their presentation delivery, worth, respectively, 25% and 30% of their final grades.

It should be noted that on the day of final presentations, aside from the PowerPoint slideshow, a grading rubric for evaluating student performance of the persuasive speech included the following criteria:

1. **Introduction** (effective opening to the speech)
2. **Vocal delivery** (clear (pronunciation), easy to understand, good pace, communicative speaking style)
3. **Physical delivery** (eye contact, body language, gestures)
4. **Language use** (clear, good explanations, easy to understand)
5. **Organization** (introduction, body, conclusion, coherent, easy to follow)
6. **Claim/Position** [for or against] clear, persuasive
7. **Reasoning** (position clear, effective reasons, facts, details to support position)
8. **Conclusion** (summary of main points, effective ending)

These criteria were based on an assessment rubric included in the course book teachers' guide. On the day of the final presentations, a peer assessment element was also included in order to keep students engaged and reinforce the key elements of delivery. A student version of the scoring rubric for delivery, including the above points, was copied and students evaluated their peer's presentations. These peer evaluations were collected at the end of each final presentation session. They were not included in the scoring framework for the course.

Students' final grade sheets contained two summative assessments (with feedback and scores), one on each side of the grade sheet. One side contained the summative PowerPoint slideshow rubric, while the other contained an overall assessment of the speech itself, based on the elements mentioned above.

This process of synchronizing course assessment by making formative use of summative assessment of student PowerPoint slideshows will be further delineated and analyzed in the following section, and some particular student examples will be presented.

IV. Results and Discussion

This discussion will be divided into three parts: first an analysis of the two formative assessments of slideshow first drafts (student self-assessment, teacher assessment), followed by a discussion of the summative assessment and grading of the final version of student slideshows, and finally a drawing of all element together to assess whether a synergy of FA and SA was demonstrated.

Readers will be able to have a clearer picture of the process engaged in through the inclusion of five examples of student involvement with the assessment process. The complete assessment documentation of one of these students' slideshows (Yuka) will be included as exemplar in the appendices to this report.

At the beginning of this section it may be useful for the reader to briefly turn now to the Appendices section, as it will remind readers of the assessment process used for each student, and will help clarify the discussion to follow. The following three appendices are included for one student, Yuka, and her slideshow in favor of the controversial topic of abortion:

1. Appendix A (formative assessment 1, student self-assessment, parts 1 and 2)
2. Appendix B (formative assessment 2, teacher evaluation) and,
3. Appendix C (summative assessment and grade for final draft of slideshow).

The reader is reminded here that the assessment procedures used in this process stem from the teacher practices described by Black et al. (2003) in UK secondary schools as they tried to work out useful strategies in making formative use of summative tests. Black et al. (2003) reported that there were three main possibilities for improving classroom practice in attempting to have a more positive relationship between FA and SA:

1. Students should be engaged in a reflective review of the work they have done to enable them to plan their revision effectively;
2. Students should be encouraged to set exam questions and mark answers;
3. Students should be encouraged through peer and self-assessment to apply criteria to help

them understand how their work might be improved (p. 56).

In this report students' final PowerPoint presentation may be considered a summative test. Two of the three practices used by the teachers in Black et al.'s (2003) report (i.e. numbers 1 and 3 above) were made use of in the assessment process described here: engaging students in a reflective review of their work to plan effective revisions, and using self-assessment and applying specific assessment criteria to show how their slideshows could be improved.

Part A. The Formative Assessments

1. Student self-assessment

In refocusing attention on assessment used for formative purposes, it is useful to be reminded of what the term entails. Black and Wiliam (1998) argue that FA is "at the heart of effective teaching" (p.2). In an earlier work these authors state that, "in order to serve a formative function, an assessment must yield evidence that, with appropriate construct-referenced interpretations, indicates the existence of a gap between actual and desired levels of performance and suggests actions that are in fact successful in closing the gap" (Wiliam & Black, 1996, 542). As will be seen, the rubric used for assessing slideshows notifies students of this gap between actual and desired performance levels for their slideshows, and points them towards the gap-closing actions needed.

In this case two types of formative activities were put in play, a student self-assessment of their slides, and a teacher assessment. Both assessments used the same PowerPoint slideshow rubric, with the addition of a comments section at the end of the teachers' version.

All twenty of the students in the Public Presentations course brought first drafts of their slideshows to class on the assigned day. The student version of the assessment rubric was distributed and a few minutes were taken to review the criterion items on the rubric. Students were then instructed to closely examine their slideshow first drafts and were given approximately 20 minutes to complete the self-assessment.

As noted in the methodology section of this report, students' were required to self-assess their slideshows according to seven criterion (introduction, content, text elements, layout, graphics/visuals, writing mechanics, citations) prior to giving an overall evaluation of their first draft (4= very good, 3= good, 2= average/OK, 1= weak). On the reverse side of the rubric, for part 2, students made notes related to strong and weak points and things to work on for the final version of the slideshow. Table 3 below reports how four students completed the self-assessment of their first draft (note that SA refers to self-assessment).

Table 3. Formative Assessment 1: Slideshow first draft, student self-assessment (verbatim)

Student	Persuasive topic	SA overall mark	Slide show: strong points	Slide show: weak points	Things to work on for final version
Ikuko	Against GM foods	1 (weak)	- sources	- too many words on slides - few visuals - same titles for some slides - not enough slides	- I'd like to put many visuals, graphs and so on. I want to increase the number of slides because I want to find more information
Emi	In favor of School Uniforms	2 (average)	- good visuals	- few slides - point size is small - not enough evidence for support - a little confusing	- more, better evidence - more slides - content is clear
Sayaka	(Being) Conscious Consumers	2 (average)	- 'Buy Nothing Day' slides are fine	- Not enough explanation - Not enough visuals - Introduction is not interesting for audience - I need to explain the negative effects of huge consumerism - lack of citations and references page	- More on negative effects of consumerism - find more visuals - get more information to explain and introduce topic
Risa	Supporting Gay Adoption	3 (good)	- Chart and map are effective to explain topic and help audience to understand topic easily. - Basic information is also enough to explain topic.	- Have to analyze situation after adoption and focus more on adoptive children's issues	- I need more research about adoptive children, and I'd like to make my slides better in terms of visuals.

Black & Wiliam (1998) contend that self-assessment is an essential component of FA but they also importantly point out that students “can only assess themselves when they have a sufficiently clear picture of the targets that their learning is meant to attain” (p.9). In this case the rubric criteria identifies the key elements for an effective slideshow and a sufficiently clear target picture is presented for students to compare their slideshows against. The rubric criteria also provide information in how their work may be improved (for example, ‘sources of information are properly cited’). Students were explicitly reminded that that exactly the same criterion would be used to grade the final version of their slides, as they use here in this ‘practice run’. The importance of the formative use of student self-assessment is captured by Sadler (1989); “A key premise is that for students to be able to improve, they must develop the capacity to monitor the quality of their own work during actual production” (p. 119). This first formative assessment

encourages such monitoring as students work toward producing their best final version of their slideshows.

2. Teacher assessment (formative)

After completing their self-assessments, the first drafts of the slideshows were collected for teacher assessment and the provision of feedback. The feedback, provided in the next class a week later, included returned slideshows with marginal notations, questions or suggestions, including the use of a limited correction code (e.g. ? = not understood, **R**=rewrite). Attached to the returned first draft was the teacher's version of the slideshow rubric, with the added 'comments' section.

Table 4 shows teacher marks and feedback comments for the same four students in Table 1 above (note that TA refers to "teacher assessment").

Table 4. Formative Assessment 2, teacher feedback on slideshow first drafts

Student/ Topic	TA overall mark	Rubric comments
Ikuko - Against GM food	2 (average)	Your position on the issue is clearly given Ikuko, and you do present the other side also. You provide three main reasons but this could be more effectively done. Editing and revising should make the slides stronger and clearer. Pay attention to the items I have scored 2 and 1 (citations) above.
Emi - In favor of School Uniforms	2 (average)	A good start Emi, but the content needs to be a bit stronger and deeper. Are you focusing on the U.S.A? More factual information about the situation there would be useful (e.g. costs). More pictures of uniform types would also help, and better organization of your content (reasons why you are in favor of uniforms).
Sayaka - Being Conscious Consumers	1 (weak)	Content needs to be stronger in order to persuade people to be aware of/care about this issue. Lots of work to do to turn this into an effective slide show, Sayaka. Too much about 'Buy Nothing Day' – a third of your slides.
Risa - Supporting Gay Adoption	2 (average)	Some good parts, Risa (e.g. visuals), but the problem is the content is too informative and not persuasive enough. What are your arguments supporting gay adoption? Make them stronger and clearer for the audience.

Readers will note some discrepancies between teacher and student first draft scoring, including a higher teacher assessment (for Ikuko), and lower teacher assessment for both Sayaka and Risa. This may be explained by the fact that, while being familiar with the key components in an effective slideshow, the student's self-assessment was the first time for them to see the criterion in one rubric. It may be that the teacher has a firmer grasp of the key components and looked at slideshows with a more critical eye. Perhaps these students do not yet share a concept of quality roughly similar to that held by the teacher (Sadler 1989).

The key consideration here is directing formative feedback "towards 'closing the gap' between present understanding and the learning aimed for" (James, 2002, p. 5). Students need to see what needs to be improved in order to raise their performance (slideshow effectiveness) prior to submitting the summative version for grading. While the teacher commentary should provide useful feedback, assessment on individual parts of the rubric (for example, a mark of 1 (weak) or 2 (average) indicates to students where they need to focus their attention in order to be scored higher in the summative assessment to follow. Gusky (2003) notes that: "Teachers who develop useful assessments, provide corrective instruction, and give students second chances to demonstrate success can improve their instruction and help students learn" (p.6).

This point in the assessment process enables teachers to see what needs to be focused on for the purposes of re-teaching or focusing further attention on. Noting areas that scored 1 (weak) or 2 (average) in teacher assessment of student slides showed that key areas that needed to be improved upon were content, writing mechanics and citation of sources. In particular, the first draft of student slides often contained a lot of informative content, but lacked in persuasive reasons for taking a position and making these reasons explicit for the audience on the slides. These areas were re-focused on in the two subsequent lessons following the return of the first drafts and the teacher feedback.

After returning the teacher assessment at the beginning of the following class, time was made for re-teaching and then students worked on editing and revising. The following two classes followed a similar pattern and there was approximately three weeks between the formative and final summative assessments. This was time enough to make necessary changes and close the gaps that exist between the first version of slides and the ideal final version, as specified in the rubric criterion.

The two formative assessments described here are an attempt to promote a situation described by Wood (1987, 242) in which 'the teacher/tester and the student *collaborate* actively to produce the best performance' (emphasis in the original).

Part B. The Summative Assessment

As the summative assessment day arrives, the teacher must put aside this 'active collaboration' with students, and put some distance between themselves and the students while putting on the judge/assessor hat. This can be a very challenging transition to make after spending month in helping, guiding and supporting students. Nevertheless there comes a time when,

"Formative assessment must at some point-or points- give rise to a summative assessment of achievement at a predetermined stage of the learning process. Eventually formative assessment, which forms the platform for teaching in a course, must give rise to measurement of desired learning outcomes" (Dunn, et al., 2004, 74).

On the day of the final presentation, the focus was on student's performance and, as mentioned, they were separately graded on this most important element of the final presentation (worth 30% of the final grade). At the end of the three final presentation sessions, students submitted the final drafts of their slides, those used during their performance, for the summative assessment. Approximately a week later students were able to pick up both assessments from the departmental office. Table 5 below gives a summary of the final grades and teacher commentary of their PowerPoint slideshows of the four students previously mentioned. While the same evaluation criteria were used a different scoring range was used (from 3 to 10), offering a finer scale of options for the grading of the final edition of the slides.

Table 5. Summative Assessment: Slides show Grades (final drafts).

Scoring framework: **Weak** (3-4), **Average/OK** (5-6), **Good** (7-8), **Very Good** (9-10)

Student/topic	Presentation slide show score	Teacher comments
Ikuko - Against GM food	8 (Good)	A persuasive argument is effectively presented on the slides, with a good selection of visuals. Better editing and organizing of content and better writing mechanics would have made it even stronger. A good slide show, Ikuko.
Emi - In favor of School Uniforms	8 (Good)	A good slide show Emi, especially the visual elements. Organization of information and reasons for your position could have been a bit stronger and better.
Sayaka - Being Conscious Consumers	9 (Very Good)	Very good slide show Sayaka, which effectively supports your persuasive message to care about being conscious consumers. Good choice of supporting visuals also. Some textual elements could have been a bit clearer and easier to read.
Risa - Supporting Gay Adoption	9 (Very Good)	A strong slide show Risa, with great visuals. Reasons for your position are organized and easy to follow. But a little more background information about the issue would have made the slide show even stronger.

Many students (for example, Sayaka and Risa) made substantial improvements in their slideshows after the formative assessments of their first drafts. Wiliam and Leahy ((2007, 36) note “ A key issue in the design of assessment systems, if they are to function formatively as well as summatively, is the extent to which the system can respond in a timely manner to the

information made available". In the assessment system reported on here, students had time to assess their current level of performance, prior to the graded event, and make the necessary adjustments while it still counted.

According to Black (2003): "Summative tests should be, and be seen to be, a positive part of the learning process in which pupils come to see that tests are helpful to them, not merely, not even principally, ways of judging them" (p.16). The summative test discussed here, the assessment of the final draft of PowerPoint slideshows, had such an intention, as a positive helpful part of the learning process. While it did serve as an exercise in judging student it was principally intended to help students produce a better slideshow for their final presentation. I believe it was successful in doing that.

Part C. Assessment Synergy

The fact that the same slideshow criterion was used for all assessments is the glue that bonds the assessment versions together into a synergized whole.

Biggs (1998) contended that FA and SA are best connected when they are deeply criterion-referenced, specifying what counts for quality work.

In this situation, . . . where reflective learning takes place, the backlash from the summative assessment tool can be very positive. A condition is that that assessment is deeply criterion-referenced, incorporating the intended curriculum, which should be clearly salient in the perceived assessment demands. When that happens you get aligned instruction, where teaching to the test is exactly what you want because it is teaching the intended curriculum. . . . the summative assessment is defining the parameters for the formative assessment... (p.32).

That is what happened in this case, where the summative assessment rubric clearly defined, indeed was almost identical to, the two formative assessments used, and students constructed and adjusted their slideshows to the assessment criterion specified.

Gusky (2003) makes a similar point:

If the test is the primary determinant of what teachers teach and how they teach it, then we are indeed "teaching to the test." But if desired learning goals are the foundation of students' instructional experiences, then assessments of student learning are simply extensions of those same goals. Instead of "teaching to the test," teachers are more accurately "testing what they teach." (p.7).

As noted earlier, after the first semester of the Public Presentations course, a desire and need for more student attention was paid to the improvement of student slideshows. This desire resulted in the modification of the final presentation assessment into two components, the slideshow and the performance, rather than just one. By isolating the slideshow element like this a new assessment diet was constructed aimed at improved students performance through a series of three assessments steps; self-assessment, teacher assessment (both formative) and the final summative assessment. In this way, assessment originally designed for summative purposes can

was converted into formative-purposed assessment for learning (James, 2002).

The assessment process described here shows formative and summative assessment working together in tandem, and this synergy did result in improved student learning and improved teacher instruction about the construction of effective presentation slideshows. The synchronized process described here is an example of an assessment system that is balanced and integrated to promote student success.

In their Student Assessment Handbook, Dunn et al. (2004, p. 18) write that in an ideal situation, SA should come at the conclusion of a series of systematic and incremental learning activities which have FA tasks set at key points along the way. In such a system, the FA tasks are “interwoven with the teaching and learning activities”, and followed by a summative task in place.

This is a good description of what happened in this case, and this report concludes that a synergy of formative and summative assessment was achieved to promote, maximize, and then measure, student learning in this EFL university course in Tokyo.

V. Conclusion

It has been asserted that if they are to support learning, assessments must not just be isolated events but happen in an ongoing, interconnected series (Stiggins, 2006). The formative and summative assessment processes described here demonstrate such ongoing interconnectivity. Such a “synergy of assessment” led to improved student learning, more focused teaching, and more effective student-centered assessment in this course.

It has also been noted that the primary goal of assessment is to support the improvement of learning and teaching (Frederickson & Collins, 1989). This report about a process of formative and summative assessment synergy in an EFL public speaking course at a Japanese university also describes a “synergy of learning” - students learned more about effective slideshow construction, and the teacher/author learned more about both effective teaching and assessing, and the multiple interconnections that should exist between them in engineering a learning- centered classroom environment.

Finally, as this report notes, there are few examples in the literature of synergizing formative and summative assessments in EFL/ESL classrooms. I would like to encourage professional colleagues and researchers to explore and publish in this rich area that interconnects formative and summative assessment, teaching, and, always of primary importance, student learning.

About the Author:

Dr. White is the Assessment Coordinator at the University of Arizona's Center for English as a Second Language (CESL), and also Associate Professor in the College of Humanities. He specializes in classroom-based assessment, English proficiency testing, and the promotion of assessment literacy development in the English language teaching profession.

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Appendix A1 Formative Assessment 1- Student Self-Assessment (Part 1)

Student Name: Yuka Topic: Abortion

4 = very good	3 = good	2 = average	1 = weak

Criteria		Rating
Introduction	Introduction presents the overall topic and draws the audience into the presentation. It is clear, coherent and interesting.	4 3 <u>2</u> 1
Content (most important)	Information is accurate and serves the purpose of <u>persuading</u> the audience. The content is clear and concise with a logical progression of ideas and supporting information.	4 3 <u>2</u> 1
Text elements	Fonts, point size and colors make text easy to read. Text is easy to follow and understand.	4 <u>3</u> 2 1
Layout	The layout is visually pleasing and contributes to the overall message with appropriate use of headings, sub-headings and white-space. Not cluttered or confusing.	4 <u>3</u> 2 1
Graphics/visuals	Graphics/visuals assist in presenting an overall theme and enhance understanding of concepts, ideas, etc.	4 <u>3</u> 2 1
Writing Mechanics	The text is clearly written with no/few errors in grammar, vocabulary, spelling. Easy to read and understand.	4 3 <u>2</u> 1
Citations	Sources of information are properly cited so audience can determine credibility and authority of the information	4 3 2 <u>1</u>
	Slideshow: Overall evaluation (first draft)	4 3 <u>2</u> 1

➔

Appendix A2 Formative Assessment 1- Student Self Assessment (Part 2)

Part 2

Make some notes (bullet points are fine) in the following boxes about your slideshow (what looks good, weaknesses, things to work on).

Strong points:

- Font size
- Photos (visual aids). ← but I should include other photos.
-

Weak Points:

- Introduction is not enough to gain more attention and interests from audience.
- Contents are not so clear.
- Organization is not easy to follow and not easy to understand
↳ not effective.
- No work consulted page and No in-text citation

Things to work on for the final version:

- Put more interesting introduction before "What is abortion?" page.
- I found other useful information and material, so I change all my contents page. and make it more effective by using examples.
- I'll finish to make work consulted page and citation.

Appendix B Formative Assessment 2- Instructor Feedback

Slideshow (First Draft)		Instructor Evaluation			
Student Name: <u>YuKa</u>		Topic: <u>Abortion</u>			
[4 = very good 3 = good 2 = average 1 = weak]					
Criteria		Rating			
Introduction	Introduction presents the overall topic and draws the audience into the presentation. It is clear, coherent and interesting.	4	3	<u>2</u>	1
Content (most important)	Information is accurate and serves the purpose of <u>persuading</u> the audience. The content is clear and concise with a logical progression of ideas and supporting information.	4	<u>3</u>	2	1
Text elements	Fonts, point size and colors make text easy to read. Text is easy to follow and understand.	4	<u>3</u>	2	1
Layout	The layout is visually pleasing and contributes to the overall message with appropriate use of headings, sub-headings and white-space. Not cluttered or confusing.	4	<u>3</u>	2	1
Graphics/visuals	Graphics/visuals assist in presenting an overall theme and enhance understanding of concepts, ideas, etc.	4	<u>3</u>	2	1
Writing Mechanics	The text is clearly written with no/few errors in grammar, vocabulary, spelling. Easy to read and understand.	4	<u>3</u>	2	1
Citations	Sources of information are properly cited so audience can determine credibility and authority of the information	4	3	2	<u>1</u>
	Slideshow: Overall evaluation (first draft)	4	<u>3</u>	2	1
Comments: A good first draft, YuKa. It looks like an interesting presentation and the visuals work well. Stronger, a bit deeper content in favor of a woman's right to choose would make it even better. Work on citations also.					

Appendix C Summative Assessment- Slide show final draft

Persuasive speech: Slideshow evaluation

[4 = very good 3 = good 2 = average 1 = weak]

Criteria		Rating			
1. Introduction	Introduction presents the overall topic and draws the audience into the presentation. It is clear, coherent and interesting.	4	3	2	1
2. Content (most important element)	Information is accurate and serves the purpose of <u>persuading</u> the audience. The content is clear and concise with a logical progression of ideas and supporting information.	4	3	2	1
3. Text elements	Fonts, point size and colors make text easy to read. Text is easy to follow and understand.	4	3.5	2	1
4. Layout	The layout is visually pleasing and contributes to the overall message with appropriate use of headings, sub-headings and white-space. Not cluttered or confusing.	4	3	2	1
5. Graphics/visuals	Graphics/visuals assist in presenting an overall theme and enhance understanding of concepts, ideas, etc.	4	3	2	1
6. Writing Mechanics	The text is clearly written with no/few errors in grammar, vocabulary, spelling. Easy to read and understand.	4	3	2	1
7. Citations	Sources of information are properly cited so audience can determine credibility and authority of the information	4	3	2	1

Weak (3-4) Average/OK (5-6) Good (7-8) Very Good (9-10)

Overall Slideshow score: **9 / 10**

Comments: A very good slideshow Yuka, with strong persuasive content and good choice of text elements and layout. The slideshow works well to effectively support the presentation. Some language use could have been smoother and clearer (e.g. title slide, "approval for").

A study of Cohesion in International Postgraduate Students' Multimodal Management Accounting Texts

Hesham Suleiman Alyousef

Department of English Language and Literature
Faculty of Arts
King Saud University, Saudi Arabia

Suliman Mohammed Alnasser

Department of English Language and Literature
Faculty of Arts
King Saud University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

This study investigates the key multimodal academic literacy and numeracy practices of five international postgraduate students enrolled at an Australian university. Specifically, it aims to provide an account of the salient textual and the logical patterns through the analysis of cohesive devices in a key topic in the *Management Accounting* course, namely budgeting schedules. The research study employs a Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) of texts (Alyousef, 2013, 2015; Alyousef & Mickan, forthcoming). This approach is framed by Halliday's (1985) Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) approach and Halliday & Hasan's (1976) cohesion analysis schemes. SFL provides powerful analytical tools for foregrounding the processes through which students construct disciplinary specific knowledge in a community through academic literacies. Lexical cohesion formed the largest percentage of use, and in particular repetition of the same lexical items, followed by reference. The findings contribute to the description of the meaning-making processes in these multimodal artefacts. They provide a potential research tool for similar multimodal investigations across a broad range of educational settings. Implications of the findings are finally presented.

Keywords: business discourse, cohesion analysis; literacies; literacy practice research; management accounting; multimodal; numeracy practices; SFL; SF-MDA; systemic functional multimodal discourse analysis

Introduction

Textual cohesion in business discourse plays a vital role in the maintenance of a text's style and in maximising students' learning experiences in the Master of Commerce Accounting program. Although some studies have explored the linguistic (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2009; Crawford Camiciottoli, 2010; Perren & Grant, 2000; Thomas, 1997) and the technical (Craig & Moores, 2005) characteristics of *Management Accounting* discourse produced by corporate writers or speakers, the academic literacy and numeracy practices of tertiary students in a *Management Accounting* course have been overlooked.

The present paper reports a case study designed to investigate the way five international postgraduate business students construct cohesive multimodal texts in the *Management Accounting* course. This course is one of the accounting courses in the Master of Commerce Accounting coursework program. It also aims to investigate Saudi students' explanations of their engagement in a key topic and their perceptions of the relevance and significance of their tertiary literacy and numeracy practices to those in workplace and in private life situations.

The research study employs an approach for the analysis of multimodal business discourse, namely a Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) of texts (Alyousef, 2013, 2015; Alyousef & Mickan, forthcoming). This approach is primarily based on Halliday's (1985) Systemic Functional Linguistics (hereafter SFL) theory and Halliday & Hasan's (1976) and Halliday & Matthiessen's (2014) cohesion analysis schemes.

In the remainder of this paper, we present a review of the literature related to academic literacies research, in particular research studies on SF-MDA. Then we present the methodology, followed by an overview of the context by describing and analysing the academic literacy and numeracy practices students were expected to engage in to perform the assignment task sheet. This is followed by the analysis, an SF-MDA, of a key topic in the *Management Accounting* course, budgeting schedules, to reveal the salient textual and the logical patterns of this discourse. Following that is the discussion of the findings and the conclusion. We then consider the implications of the study.

Literature review

Literacy practices are multifarious, proliferating and ever changing with social contexts and cross-cultural diversity. Multisemiotic resources include the visual including the wide array of diagram genres, the written, the auditory, and the haptic. A multiliteracies model (Cazden et al., 1996; Cope & Kalantzis, 2000, 2013; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012) takes into account the multimodal social literacy practices that are contested around material acts of meaning. Perren & Grant (2000), for example, studied the development of management accounting by exploring the idiosyncratic accounting knowledge and the effects of its transmission over the history of small firms. Psycholinguistics concepts like transmission, strategies, assimilation, retention, internalisation, externalisation, and construction of knowledge often characterise this kind of research. Since the internal learning mechanisms of individual learners are unobservable, the present study is framed by the socio-cultural model of learning, which emphasise the importance of social processes.

Although some studies have explored the linguistic (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2009; Crawford Camiciottoli, 2010; Perren & Grant, 2000; Thomas, 1997) and the technical (Craig & Moores, 2005) characteristics of *Management Accounting* discourse produced by corporate writers or speakers, the academic literacy and numeracy practices of tertiary students in this business course have been overlooked. SFL-based research in multimodal communication and representation has been confined to school and workplace contexts. In her book *The Handbook of Business Discourse*, Bargiela-Chiappini (2009) reviews a range of business discourse studies in workplace settings. Thomas (1997), for example, investigated the linguistic structures in a series of management messages in the annual reports of a company, employing Halliday's (1985) systems of TRANSITIVITY, thematic structure, cohesion and condensations. The transitivity analysis showed the prevalence of relational process types (37.80%) which often suggest objectivity and a predictable increase in passive constructions as the profits decrease. Camiciottoli (2010) found that discourse conjunctive devices in financial disclosure texts were more frequent in the earnings presentations than in the earnings releases, suggesting their pragmatic use influences the interpretation of the message. Whereas multimodal communication research has been conducted across the fields of mathematics (de Oliveira & Cheng, 2011; Guo, 2004; O'Halloran, 1996, 1999a, 1999b, 2000, 2004, 2005, 2008; 2009), science and computing (AlHuthali, 2007; Drury, O' Carroll, & Langrish, 2006; Jones, 2006; Wake, 2006), and nursing (Okawa, 2008), tertiary business discourse has not been fully explored. Applications of SFL in the study of tertiary business discourse are, to the best of our knowledge, limited but include two studies by Alyousef (2012, 2015), who investigated, respectively, the system of TRANSITIVITY in tertiary finance texts and the systems of Theme and Information Structure in tertiary management accounting texts. He employed a multidimensional approach to describe the epistemologies of two business courses, including the experiential and the textual meanings in the multimodal texts.

As Garzone (2009, p. 156) points out that "so far, contributions from linguists specifically dealing with multimodality in business discourse have been relatively few". Given that most international ESL/EFL students in Australia and elsewhere are enrolled in business and commerce programs (Alyousef & Picard, 2011), it is necessary to explore and analyse their multimodal literacy and numeracy social practices. Although the participants in this study cannot be claimed to be a representative sample, the findings may offer insights for students and tutors. Lea & Street (2006) argue that multimodal analysis reveals the range of meanings expressed in learners' activities and genres. As they put it, multimodal analysis aids in theorizing "the multimodal nature of literacy, and thus of different genres, that students needed to master in order to represent different types of curriculum content for different purposes, and therefore to participate in different activities" (Lea & Street, 2006, p. 373). Similarly, Pauwels (2012, p. 250) argues "multimodal analysis not only takes different modes into account but also has a strong focus on the effects of their interplay" between images and texts.

The literature review suggests a lack of studies investigating the textual and the logical meanings in *Management Accounting* numerical tables and their use as conventionalised multimodal Business artefacts.

Methodology

This study is framed by the socio-cultural model of learning which emphasises the importance of social processes in multimodal meaning-making. Literacy practices' knowledge is conceived as

the product of the ongoing situated and multimodal social literacy practices that are contested around acts of meaning. As the *Management Accounting* texts comprised multimodal data, we used the nomenclature Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) (Alyousef, 2013, 2015; Alyousef & Mikan, forthcoming) to explore the peculiar aspects related to the organisation of meaning. The multimodal meaning resources in this course are mainly comprised of multimodal texts that include visual and numeral semiotic resources. Numeracy practices are conceived as “literacy practices involving 'numerate' texts” (Barwell, 2004, p. 21), a sub-set of literacy practice, since they are social processes of making meaning with numerate texts. The importance of examining the use of cohesive devices becomes pertinent since they play a vital role in maximising the participants’ rich and broad learning accounting experiences.

This approach is primarily based on Halliday’s (1985) Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory and Halliday & Hasan’s (1976) and Halliday & Matthiessen’s (2014) cohesion analysis schemes. Halliday’s (1978, 1985) social semiotic theory of language, SFL, views language as a social semiotic resource for making meaning and constructing knowledge within social contexts. SFL suits the context of the present study as it takes into account the functions of language in social interaction. It provides a wide range of linguistics resources for handling and interpreting multimodal socio-cultural literacy events which are mediated by written texts. The core of these resources is the lexico-grammatical stratum of language which is used to explore the three language metafunctions that construe meaning *ideationally*, by representing and ordering our experience, perceptions, consciousness, and the basic logical relations (oriented towards the field of discourse), *interpersonally*, by enacting certain social relationships (oriented towards the tenor of discourse), and *textually*, by weaving ideational and interpersonal meanings into a textual whole (oriented towards the mode of discourse). These metafunctions correlate respectively with three register semiotic variables: FIELD (what is talked about?), TENOR (how social roles and identities are constructed?), and MODE (How are the meanings organised). Due to space constraints we investigate here only the salient textual and the logical patterns of the *Management Accounting* discourse, through the analysis of cohesive devices.

A cohesive relation is defined by Halliday & Hasan (1976) as “the semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it”. Halliday & Hasan (1985) state that coherence exists in a text when ‘meaning relations’ are realised by cohesive ties or chains (or the lexical and the grammatical patterns) that allow sentence sequence to be understood as connected discourse. Cohesion consists in the continuity of lexico-grammatical meaning and semantic connection with a preceding text. Halliday & Hasan (1976, p. 26) argue that cohesion “does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice”. They list five types of cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

While the first three types are expressed through the grammar, lexical cohesion is expressed through the lexis, and conjunction is “mainly grammatical, but with a lexical component in it” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 6), i.e. it contains ties that are both grammatical and lexical. Halliday & Matthiessen (2014, p. 579) argue that “structural and cohesive resources work together in the marking of textual transitions and in the marking of textual statuses” as shown below.

Table 1. Textual resources.

	Structural	Cohesive
Textual transitions [‘organic’]	(clause complex=>logical)	CONJUNCTION
		LEXICAL COHESION
Textual statuses [‘componential’]	THEME: Theme ^ Rheme; INFORMATION: Given + New	REFERENCE; ELLIPSIS/ SUBSTITUTION

(Adapted from Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 579)

Halliday (1985, p. 38) defines Theme as the constituent which serves as “the point of departure for the message”. It is the element which comes in first position in the clause. Typically, a Theme is *backgrounded* since it refers to something that has gone before, while Rheme refers to new information which is *foregrounded* because it triggers the subsequent Themes. Unlike THEME/RHEME, cohesion is a non-structural system since it links “elements that are structurally unrelated to one another” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 27) to create a unified, coherent text. Whereas conjunctions are concerned with textual transitions that form logical relations of clause complexing, the other cohesive resources (THEME, INFORMATION structure, reference, ellipsis, and substitution) are concerned with textual statuses that form textual cohesion between Theme and Information. Due to space constraints we investigate here only the five types of cohesion. Unlike reference and ellipsis, lexical cohesion does not only include components of messages, but also creates relations between whole messages, as do conjunctions. Conjunctive textual cohesion is captured through two types of logical-semantic relations that guide the rhetorical development of a text: expansion and projection. The projection relation is formed out when the secondary clause projects through the primary clause, thereby instantiating it as a locution (wording) or an idea (meaning). Expansion is formed out when the secondary clause expands the primary clause through the use of one of the three main sub-types of expansion: elaboration, extension, and enhancement (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). It is formed out of a mixture of paratactic (equal status) or hypotactic (unequal status) interdependency nexus. A paratactic relation is set up when two or more independent clauses are connected by conjunctive devices, while a hypotactic relation is set up when a dependent clause is connected to an independent (dominant) clause by a conjunctive device. Reference includes three types: personal, demonstrative and comparative. Endophoric reference, unlike homophoric and exophoric reference, is retrievable from within the text (Eggins, 2007). It can be of three kinds: anaphoric, cataphoric, or esphoric. Anaphoric reference occurs when the referent precedes the cohesive device. Whereas the referent follows the cohesive device in another sentence in cataphoric reference, it follows the cohesive device within the same nominal group/noun phrase in esphoric reference.

What follows is an overview of the context by briefly describing and analyzing the academic literacy and numeracy practices students were expected to engage in to perform the assignment task sheet.

An overview of the context

In this section we investigate the requirements and the documented aims of the group assignment task sheet by briefly describing the rhetorical structure of the expected text types or discourses.

This assignment aims to measure students' competency in constructing 'budgeting' schedules. A task sheet defines the requirements students need to achieve in order to complete the assignment. Generally speaking, assignment task sheets usually include detailed instructions on what the two groups were expected to do. The participants were given the pseudonyms: Abdulrahman, Abdullah and Steve (Group 1), Omar and Peter (Group 2). The task sheets did not constrain students in terms of space. The two groups' assignment task sheets were similar. The task sheet consisted of four pages, excluding the task's guidelines which included notes such as the submission date, the importance of performing this task within a group of no more than three students, and signing the acknowledgement of the university's policy on plagiarism. The literacy requirements were clearly stated in the four pages in terms of three numerical tables, seven paragraphs, and ten requirements. The three tables provided information for working out the budgets. In addition to the textbook, these tables represent the *Management Accounting* multimodal tools students needed to employ in order to successfully accomplish the 10 requirements: i.e. formulating budgets in order to eventually compile a 'Budgeted Balance Sheet' (requirement 10). The conceptual knowledge in these tasks is highly complex since students were expected to employ a range of contemporary *Management Accounting* tools. These 10 budgets help businesses in the decision making process, as each one serves a specific purpose.

Having provided an overview of the context by briefly describing the academic literacy and numeracy practices students were required to master to meet the demands, next we present the findings of the SF-MDA of a key topic in this course, namely budgeting schedules.

An SF-MDA of cohesion in the *Management Accounting* assignment

Students construct disciplinary-specific *Management Accounting* knowledge through the meaning-making processes which involve the interaction of the ideational (experiential and logical), the interpersonal, and the textual meanings. The SF-MDA of these meanings sought to provide an explanatory account of how texts are typically constructed and how they relate to their context of use. As stated earlier, due to space constraints we investigated here only the way the two groups represented the textual and the logical, conceptual knowledge. The textual metafunction realising the mode of discourse is partly represented in the text by the students' use of lexical cohesion, reference, ellipsis, and substitution. The logical metafunction concerns the representation of the relations between one clause and another that are achieved through conjunctions.

The corpus was composed of two assignments written in English (6,239 words) in the field of *Management Accounting*. The two texts were written by two groups: Group 1, Abdulrahman, Abdullah and Steve, and Group 2, Omar and Peter. Each group received a distinction mark: 45 and 45.50 out of 50 respectively. Abdulrahman attended three 2-hour meetings with his group members. Group 2 organised three 3-hour meetings in order to accomplish the assignment together. The total number of words in Group 1's (Abdulrahman, Abdullah and Steve) text was 2024 words (1416 in the tables and 608 in the footnotes and the memo) while it was 4239 words in Group 2's (Omar and Peter) text (1495 in the tables and 2744 in the explanatory text). The following table compares numeracy representations in the two groups' texts:

Table 2. A pivot table of numeracy representations in the participants' texts.

Group	Words			Tables	Footnotes
	Tables	Text	Total		
1. Abdulrahman , Abdullah & Steve	1416	608	2024	14	26
2. Omar and Peter	1495	2744	4239	12	0

Group 1 concisely presented its findings in 14 tables, in addition to a 206-word memo and 402-word footnotes. Abdullah (personal communication, March 19, 2011) argues that although the task sheet did not require them to write a memo, they strongly believed that in workplace settings they would normally attach a memo along with the 10 budgeting schedules when presenting the findings to a manager.

Group 1 prepares the balance sheet by starting with the heading which indicates the name of the entity, the title of the statement and the statement date, as illustrated in Table 3 below. The remaining entries are set out as a table. Then the main categories *assets*, *liabilities* and *equity* are listed in column 1. Next, each sub-category is assigned to its respective main category. With the exception of 'Total', the other main categories do not align with the figures. Column 2 refers to debit, whereas the right column is the credit side.

Table 3. Group 1's Budgeted Balance Sheet.

Frame-it Ltd Budgeted Statement of Financial Position as at 31 December 2011		
	Notes	
Current assets		
Cash at bank		\$ 204,500.00
Accounts receivable		192,000.00
Inventory:		
Raw materials	83,200.00	
Finished goods	235,000.00	
Total inventory		318,200.00
Total current assets		\$ 714,700.00
Non-current assets		
Plant and equipment y)		8,920,000.00
(net of depreciation)		
Total assets		\$ 9,634,700.00
Liabilities		
Accounts Payable		143,400.00
Net Assets		\$ 9,491,300.00
Equity		
Ordinary shares		5,000,000.00
retained Earnings		4,491,300.00
Total equity		\$ 9,491,300.00

The Group inserted a footnote, Y, next to the sub-category 'Plant and equipment' in the table above to show their calculations.

- y) Plant and Equipment Calculation:
- | | |
|---|--------------|
| Plant and equipment 1 Jan 2011 | 8,000,000.00 |
| add: Purchased plant and equipment | 1,000,000.00 |
| less: depreciation for the year | z) 80,000.00 |
| Plant and equipment 31 Dec 2011 (net of depreciation) | 8,920,000.00 |
- z) No depreciation for the robot in 2011 because it will take most of year (2011) to train staff and gain benefits in 2012.

Generally speaking, some students may face, at times, difficulties in assigning a given classification to its respective category. These difficulties are related to the logical interconnections between the lexical strings in the balance sheet, i.e. what does the lexical string 'accounts receivable mean? Is it assigned to *assets*, *liabilities* or *equity*? Or, is it assigned to *current* and *non-current assets* or *liabilities*? Both groups successfully compiled the balance sheet, though they lost only half mark because they did not show the total liabilities and equity (i.e. \$ 9,634,700.00). They did not face difficulties in the logical metafunction that is construed in the relations between the categories and the sub-categories.

The cohesive devices used in the two texts were analysed. Table 4 compares the numbers and percentages of the different subcategories of grammatical and lexical cohesive ties identified in the two texts.

Lexical cohesion was the most frequently occurring cohesive type in the two texts (96.66% and 79.84% of the total cohesive devices), and in particular repetition of the same lexical items (74.17% and 68.68%), while the second most frequently occurring cohesive type was reference (1.68% and 14.77%). Most of the repetitions in text 1 occurred in tables (612 out of the 666 instances or 91.89%); while in text 2 they mostly occurred in the text (922 out of the 1540 instances or 59.87%). This is ascribed to the fact that Group 1's text, unlike Group 2, was comprised of only tables, footnotes and a 206-word MEMO. As a result this group used fewer reference cohesive devices than did Group 2, 1.68% and 14.77% respectively. Group 2's explanatory text was considered redundant as the task sheet required students "to provide supporting schedules 1-9 that are needed to compile a budgeted balance sheet".

Table 4. Types of cohesive ties in the two texts.

Category	Sub-category	Type of tie	Text 1		Text 2	
			Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage

Category	Sub-category	Type of tie	Text 1		Text 2	
			Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Conjunctives	Elaboration	Appositive	1	0.11%	2	0.08%
		Clarification	2	0.22%	20	0.90%
	Extension	Additive	6	0.67%	25	1.12%
		Variation	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Enhancement	Temporal	1	0.11%	25	1.12%
		Manner/comparative	1	0.11%	37	1.65%
		Causal	3	0.33%	7	0.31%
		Concessive/conditional	0	0.00%	2	0.08%
		Total	14	1.55%	118	5.26%
Substitution		0	0.00%	0	0.00%	
Ellipsis		1	0.11%	3	0.13%	
	Total	1	0.11%	3	0.13%	
Lexical Cohesion	Repetition	666	74.17%	1540	68.68%	
	Synonym	1	0.11%	10	0.44%	
	Hyponym	65	7.23%	68	3.04%	
	Hypernym	15	1.67%	11	0.49%	
	Meronym	98	10.92%	125	5.58%	
	Antonym	23	2.56%	36	1.61%	
	Total	868	96.66%	1790	79.84%	
Reference	Demonstrative	0	0.00%	41	1.83%	
	Definite	14	1.57%	208	9.28%	
	Comparative	0	0.00%	5	0.22%	
	Pronouns	1	0.11%	13	0.58%	
	Possessive	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	
	Anaphoric	0	0.00%	11	0.49%	
	Cataphoric	0	0.00%	53	2.37%	
	Total	15	1.68%	331	14.77%	
	Sub-total	898	100.00%	2242	100.00%	

The high frequency of lexical cohesive devices is mainly attributed to the abundance of lexical ties in financial statements. For example, the use of meronyms in Group 1's text was 10.92%. As the major discourse consisted of financial statements, taxonomic classifications contributed to the texts' cohesiveness. They led to the cohesiveness of well-formed texts not only through the top-down paradigmatic and left-to-right syntagmatic lexical relations, as in orthographic texts, but also through the bottom-up and right-to-left relations: e.g. the lexical strings 'Cash at bank' and 'Accounts receivable' are meronyms (part of) of the hyponym 'Current assets' (cf. Table 3 above). Hyponymy is a sign whose denotation class is properly

included in the denotation class of another sign. A meronym, on the other hand, denotes a part in respect to a lexical item denoting a whole. Sense relations in financial statements occur between single lexemes but also between lexical strings. In addition, when taking into account the meaning making processes of the general categories 'Liabilities' and 'Equity' it appeared that they are not only hypernyms of their sub-classes, but also meronyms of 'Assets' since the sum of numerical value for the two general categories equals 'Assets', i.e. part-whole relations exist. A hypernym refers to the lexeme with the more general or inclusive meaning.

It should be noted here that both groups used only one sub-component of extension devices, namely the additive conjunctives. The frequency of the extending sub-component additive conjunctions in the two groups' texts was higher than the other sub-components of elaborating and enhancing, as in:

c) Other raw materials, such as [C: Elaboration: Appos.] cardboard backing, are insignificant in cost and [C: Extension: Add.] are treated as indirect materials. (Group 1's text, no. 4)

Z) No depreciation for the robot in 2011 because [C: Enhancement: Caus.] it will take most of year (2011) to train staff and [C: Extension: Add.] gain benefits in 2012. (Group 1's text, no. 61)

For [C: Elaboration: Clari.] the S line, Q1 2011 sales were calculated at 55,000, based on the instructions where 50,000 units were budgeted in Q4 2010 and [C: Extension: Add.] were projected to then [C: Enhancement: Temp.] grow at 5,000 units per quarter. (Group 2's text, no. 3)

In addition, [C: Extension: Add.] 20% of the credit sales from the previous quarter were included, which amounted to \$60,000. (Group 2's text, no. 16)

Group 2 used more temporal and manner conjunctive devices (1.12% and 1.65% respectively) than did Group 1 (only .11% for each device type). Enhancement devices were used to expand the proposition by providing circumstantial details such as time, place, manner, cause or condition. The most frequent reference type in the two texts was the definite article (1.57% and 9.28%). Halliday & Hasan (1976, p. 74) argue that the definite article 'the' "creates a link between the sentence in which it itself occurs and that containing the referential information", though, unlike the demonstratives, it contains no specifying element of its own. Whereas Group 1's text lacked the use of demonstrative devices, they occurred 41 times in Group 2's text in order to refer to the Rheme in the previous clauses. The group employed nominalisations in subject-head position and in conjunction with the deictic *this* (e.g. "*this process*"), which are called *retrospective labels* as they do not only contribute to the organisation of the text, but also have the potential to reveal the writer's opinion or evaluation within the text (Baratta, 2010): e.g. *This process* was then repeated for each of the following quarters in the 2011 year/ *This process* is repeated for each subsequent quarter

The frequency of occurrence of the lexical and grammatical cohesive devices in text 2 exceeded text 1 by 150%. This is not surprising since the length of both texts was not comparable. In addition, rather than using the synonyms *total*, *sum*, and *added up to*, group 2 excessively

repeated the word “amount(ed) to” forty-nine times in the text. The cohesive density index was higher in Group 2’s text than in Group 1’s.

Table 5. Cohesive density index in the two texts.

Participant Category	Abdulrahman, Abdullah & Omar and Peter, Text 2 Steve, Text 1	
Word count	2024	4239
Number of ties	898	2242
Ratio of ties/100 words	44.36%	52.88%

This index revealed that Omar and Peter’s text contained higher frequency of cohesive devices (52.88 ties per 100 words) than Abdulrahman, Abdullah and Steve’s text (44.36 ties per 100 words). This is not surprising when taking into consideration text length.

Having presented the findings of the SF-MDA of two *Management Accounting* assignments, next we present a discussion of the main findings of this case study and the conclusion.

Discussion of the findings

The focus (or topic) of the task sheet was to produce nine schedules that lead to a “Budgeted Balance Sheet”. The focus of the analyses was on students’ construction of disciplinary-specific *Management Accounting* knowledge. The description of the task sheets showed that the participants simulated workplace practices by adopting the role of management accountants in order to provide nine supporting schedules that were needed to compile a “Budgeted Balance Sheet”.

Drawing on Halliday’s (1985) SFL theory and Halliday & Hasan’s (1976) and Halliday & Matthiessen’s (2014) cohesion analysis schemes, we have conducted an SF-MDA of the textual and the logical meanings in the *Management Accounting* texts. The findings showed that lexical cohesion was the most frequently occurring cohesive type in the two texts, and in particular repetition of the same lexical items, while the second most frequently occurring cohesive type was reference. This is normal as topic maintenance involves talking about the same entities (or nouns). The high frequency of reference in text 2 is ascribed to the fact that although financial tables constituted the major part in *Management Accounting* discourse, Group 2 preferred to accompany the tables with explanatory text. Taxonomic classifications of synonyms, hyponyms, hypernyms, meronyms, and antonyms play a major role in the organisation of financial statements’ discourse. These devices also add interest and subtlety to the text. The well-formed taxonomic lexical relations in financial statements bind the separate lexical strings in a hierarchical networked structure, thereby constituting a tight semantic unit. Lexical relations between financial statements’ categories are organised into a network. Thus the abundance of hierarchically networked lexical ties is one of the key features that characterise financial statements.

The findings also showed that the participants underused other lexical and grammatical cohesive devices, namely conjunction, reference, substitution, and ellipsis. These findings support those in other studies (Abusharkh, 2012; Alharbi, 2011; Aljabr, 2011; Alshammari, 2011; Fazelimanie, 2004; Hinkel, 2001; Johns, 1980; Kamal, 1995; Khalil, 1989; Liu & Braine, 2005; Mohamed-Sayidina, 2010; Mohamed & Omer, 2000), which found that ESL/EAL students extensively used lexical repetition to convey the interrelationships among ideas, direct the attention of reader/listener, and show the relative *foregrounding* and *backgrounding*. For example, Johns (1980) found that lexical cohesion was the most frequently occurring cohesive type in the written business discourse, while reference was the second most common category.

Conjunctions were minimally used to signal extension and enhancement relationships. Extension devices are typically used to provide further related information or to establish counterclaims (e.g. and, also, furthermore, but, however, etc). On the other hand, enhancement devices are used to provide reason (e.g. because, thus, so, etc), to illustrate the manner in which an action takes place (e.g. as, though, although, etc.), and to order the sequential structure of events (e.g. first, second, etc.). Thus whereas these devices expand the utterance by providing circumstantial details such as time, place, manner, cause or condition, elaboration devices expand an utterance by reformulating the message to provide focus on the content (e.g. more specifically, in fact, etc). The findings showed that Additive conjunctions that aim to extend the meaning, in particular ‘and’, ‘also’, and ‘in addition’, had the highest frequency, compared to the variation cohesive devices (on the other hand, alternatively, rather, in contrast, or, etc) whose occurrence was 0.00%. This implies that the participants had difficulties in employing the logico-semantic resources of extension for construing the inter-clausal relations, particularly in the use of variation devices. The lack of these devices in international students’ texts in general, and in the Saudi students’ texts in particular could be ascribed to a number of reasons, including the use of the rhetorical organization in L1, limited writing opportunities, and the Saudi educational system that relies heavily on memorizing (Alyousef, 2014; Fageeh, 2003; McMullen, 2009; Mohamed-Sayidina, 2010).

While ellipsis rarely occurred in the two texts, substitution never occurred. The findings showed that ellipsis was used in the accounting discourse calculations as a means to avoid redundancy. The scarce occurrence of these two devices in the participants’ texts has also been reported in a number of other studies (Abusharkh, 2012; AlJarf, 2001; Fazelimanie, 2004; Hessamy & Hamed, 2013; Hinkel, 2001; Johns, 1980; Khalil, 1989; Mohamed-Sayidina, 2010). For example, Khalil (1989, p. 363) found that substitution rarely occurred in ESL students’ texts, while ellipsis never occurred. Similarly, AlJarf’s (2001) findings showed that EFL college students’ difficulties in resolving substitution, reference and ellipsis relationships were due to difficulties in organizing the meaning-making processes through the use of the cohesive devices. The rare occurrence of these ties, however, seems to be natural as these ties are more characteristically found in dialogues, where the typical sequence is based on pairs or triads or longer structures that are related by interpersonal meaning. Hessamy & Hamed (2013), however, ascribe the rare occurrence in their study to the participants’ limited knowledge and the influence of their L1, Persian, which permits the use of repetition of words more than English.

Conclusion

In summing up, the description of the *Management Accounting* task sheets revealed the key

academic literacy and numeracy practices students were expected to perform. The SF-MDA contributes to the multimodal description of the representation of meaning-making processes in texts along with the visual and numeral semiotic resources. The students demonstrated their grasp of *Management Accounting* language through their selections of cohesive devices and through resolving the logical interconnections between the lexical strings. The documentation revealed the interdiscursive multimodal literacy and numeracy practices that are embedded in *Management Accounting* discourse.

This study adds to our stock of knowledge as it is the first to analyse the use of cohesive devices in *Management Accounting* course, and in particular in budgeting tables. It adds to our understanding of this disciplinary specific discourse and of the learners' knowledge and experiences as they engage in the practices of accountancy and employ the relevant lexical and grammatical cohesive resources.

Based on the multimodal exploration of the participants' literacy and numeracy practices, next we discuss the implications of the study.

Implications of the study

Management Accounting students need to successfully represent the logical connection between each sub-category and its main category in the schedules. The findings we presented in this study represent instances of a broader recognisable set of features, as they reflect only a sub-set of the full range of the literacy and numeracy practices. The explicit analysis of academic literacy and numeracy practices in academic programs and in professional contexts builds cross-institutional links, opening up possibilities for collaboration with potential for detailed research into the relationship of academic preparation and professional applications (Alyousef & Mickan, forthcoming). SFL provides a potential research tool not only for the SF-MDA of finance and accounting discourses but also for similar multimodal investigations across both disciplinary and professional communities.

About the Authors:

Dr. Hesham Suleiman Alyousef is an assistant professor in the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. His research focuses on Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), academic literacies, metadiscourse, reading comprehension, syllabus design, multimodal discourse analysis (MDA) and the use of Web 2.0 technology in higher education. Dr Hesham has over 25 years of experience in teaching ESL/EFL. He is currently supervising postgraduate students and working on research projects and papers.

Dr. Suliman Mohammed Alnasser is an assistant professor in the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. His research interests include L2 writing, corrective feedback, washback effect, learning strategies and Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). He is currently supervising postgraduate students and working as a vice chair of the Department of English Language & Literature

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Effects of Structural Context Integration on Ambiguity Elimination for Students of Translation

Reem Ibrahim Rabadi

School of Applied Humanities and Languages
German Jordanian University, Jordan

Haytham Hamad Althawbih

School of Basic Sciences and Humanities
German Jordanian University, Jordan

Abstract

Linguistic ambiguity causes translation students to be confronted with several problems in the translation process from Arabic into English. This causes their translation to be inconsistent with the professional standards of translation. Thus, this study is concerned with the effects of structural context integration on ambiguity elimination for the students of translation. It aims to identify the negative effect of the ambiguity aspects in Arabic by answering the questions of the study. These questions are: What is the effect of the modes of structural context integration on improving the translation of undergraduate Translation students? Does each way of structural context integration have the same effect on ambiguity aspects? The instrument used in this study to answer these questions was a diagnostic test. This test gauged the performance of two groups (15 each) of undergraduate Translation students at the German-Jordanian University. They were asked to translate (24) sentences that included an ambiguity at one of the four levels of the Arabic Language. The (t-test) was utilized to test the statistical significance of the differences between the two groups. Results showed statistically significant differences in mean scores between the experimental group and control group to the reference of the experimental group. It was found that the phenomenon of ambiguity in Arabic has negatively affected the performance of translation students, while the structural context integration has significantly contributed to the enhancement of students' performance, probably due to the study plans of Translation Department which do not include any study materials that contribute to increase the students' awareness of significant Arabic language details related to phonology, morphology, syntax and lexical items.

Keywords: Arabic language, linguistic ambiguity, translation, structural context integration, levels of language ambiguity

1. Introduction

The basic function of a language is communication which can be achieved when the native speakers of a language analyze the audible and readable events of utterance through the reliance on language. If they ignore the common systemized reference (the language), they would have insignificant communication opportunities.

This system is not limited to the knowledge of lexical meanings, since this would not create an absolute system leading to communication, but it is a group of overlapping structural levels that completely operate harmoniously, where the first leads to the second, and the second is based on the third and so on. Such levels can only be separated within a rough theoretical framework. However, a native speaker of a language would gather the language phonemes, convert such phonemes into words, and, then put them down in their positions depending on a third level which is syntax. According to Hassan (1986), the tool of communication about meaning would still be under the supervision of the linguistic system including its coherent levels (phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic).

Although such an integrated linguistic system conduces to communication and explanation, it sometimes results in ambiguity, which is a linguistic phenomenon recognized by all languages including Arabic. Therefore, the benefits from the process of utterance are to achieve the linguistic communication based on the integration of the three utterance elements (addresser, utterance, and addressee).

Ambiguity usually takes place in the linguistic system at its four levels (Versteegh, 2006). The first level of ambiguity occurs in phonation through distinctive features (See Katamba, 2013; Kramsky, 1974; Lyons, 1981), intonation (Crystal, 2008; Singh & Singh, 2006), stress (See Alkhuli, 1990; Katamba, 2013; Mukhtar, 1991; Robins, 1989) and juncture (Crystal, 2008; Robins, 1989). Its second level occurs in morphology through derivation, morphological molds, suffixes and affixes (See Crystal, 2008; Katamba, 1993; Robins, 1989), and mold shifting. The third level is the lexical one, ambiguity occurs through homophones and semantic domains (Jackson & Zé Amvela, 2007; Robins, 1989). Finally, the syntactic level of ambiguity; it takes place through pronoun reference and the flexibility of sentences and syntactic meanings. Ambiguity is an incidental phenomenon in the linguistic system which causes translators to be confronted with several problems.

1.1. Statement of the Problem:

The researchers noticed during their careers that the undergraduate students of translation at the German-Jordanian University encounter some difficulties and problems in the translation process from Arabic into English, which caused their translation to be inconsistent with the professional standards of translation. Furthermore, such ambiguity might result in a linguistic overlap between the utterances of other languages' addressees, and when it comes to simultaneous interpretation, such difficulties and problems would be more complicated since that might create political or economic problems.

The researchers found that studying the solutions of such a problem has not obtained any sufficient interest by Arab and foreign researchers. Despite the attempts of modern and ancient Arab linguists represented by discussing the aspects of all different ambiguity types, they could not find any study that shows the effects of linguistic ambiguity on the translated texts of the students of translation.

The importance of the study lies in answering the following questions:

1. What is the effect of the modes of structural context integration on improving the translation of undergraduate Translation students?
2. Does each way of structural context integration have the same effect on ambiguity aspects?

1.2. Significance of the Study:

The significance of this study comes from the followings:

1. This study is concerned with the effects of structural context integration on ambiguity elimination for the students of translation.
2. The current study allows researchers interested in such a field to conduct more studies concerning it.
3. The study gives translation study planners the opportunity to modify their plans in congruence with the students' level.

1.3. Limitations of the Study:

The study has three limitations:

1. Limitation of place: The study was conducted in the Department of Languages at the German-Jordanian University in Madaba.
2. Limitation of time: The study was carried out in the Second Term of the academic year 2013-2014.
3. Subjects' limitation: The learner's gender was not taken into consideration when the study was applied. In addition, only third and fourth year undergraduate students participated in the study.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Aspects of Ambiguity in Arabic Language:

Ambiguity is a general linguistic feature which is not restricted to a particular language. As for the ambiguity of the Arabic language, this study explores the most obvious positions nominated to be ambiguous at Arabic language levels which might negatively affect the addressee, noting that it would not go beyond the linguistic system of the Arabic language represented by its various levels, and it would not turn to style or context.

2.1.1. Ambiguity due to phonation:

Phonological syllables constitute a major factor which reveals the intended connotations, and their evocation in the process of utterance would prevent a translator from falling in ambiguity pitfalls arising from such a side. It is supposed that a translator could seek information about a set of speech that belongs to two or more words, but the absence of such a factor might allow unifying the two words into a single word. The following examples of such words their meaning is clear when resorting to the phonological syllable.

"هنا رجعنا" إلى
"ilā hunā raja?nā"

"إلهنا رجعنا"
"ilāhunā raja?nā"

"جال سنا القمر"
"jāla sanā alqamaru"

"جالسنا القمر"
"jālasanā alqamaru"

"لو ▲ لام ▲ راعي الخير"
 "law ▲ lāma ▲ rā?iyu alkairi"

"لولا ▲ مراعي الخير"
 "lawl ▲ ā marā?iyu alkairi"

The ambiguity in these utterances resulted from the utterance boundaries at the pronunciation level.

The syllabic role lies in the ability to set sentence boundaries and syntactic meanings, such as "قال الملك هو الصالح" "qāla almaliku hwa al sālehu", where it appears that such a sentence might hold two meanings: first, a man tells the king that he is a good person, and second, the king tells the man that he is a good person.

The absence of phonological syllables might synergize with intonation, which leads to ambiguity, such as a sentence like "قال الطالب إنا هنا ناجحون" "qāla altālibu innahu nājihun" (lit. translation: The student said he passed). Certainly, the absence of phonological syllables accompanied with intonation leads to misunderstand the word "altālibu" as a subject, whereas the actual subject in such a context is a latent pronoun according to Ibn Hisham (1972).

Phonation has a key role in the definition of syntactic meanings such as question, exclamation and vocative (alnidā') (Ryding, 2014), as a student of translation might suffer from ambiguity when detaching the utterance from the context, such as "ما أجمل السماء" "mā ajmala alsamā'a" (Lit. Translation: What a beautiful sky!). It is controversial whether (mā) is a question, an exclamation or a negation word (Al-Rumani, 1986). However, all such meanings are possible due to the absence of intonation which defines the intention. Intonation can be utilized to eliminate ambiguity. For example, in a sentence like "mā ajmala alsamā'a" (lit. translation: What a beautiful sky!), the rising intonation certainly makes "mā" interrogative; the falling intonation makes it exclamatory; whereas the flat intonation makes it negative (Hassan, 2000).

At the contrastive level, non-speakers of Arabic might find it difficult to pronounce some phonemes like the Arabic phoneme (ħ) which is replaced by (h), and the phoneme (?) which is replaced by the glottal stop (ʿ), so that a translator could find them ambiguous such as the two words (ناعمة : نائمة) (nā?ima: nā'ima; Translation: soft: asleep). Despite the ambiguity in the previous example, it is not categorized under the ambiguity phenomenon as such a phenomenon is centered on the pure linguistic study not what associated by non-speakers of Arabic or troubles (Khalil, 1988).

2.1.2. Ambiguity due to morphology:

There are several aspects of morphological ambiguity, which are the followings:

Variation of Derivatives' Root Morphemes: The variation of root morphemes for various Arabic vocabularies might result in ambiguity pitfalls. For example, "وقع السائل على الأرض" "waqa?a alsā'ilu ?lā al'rđ", the word "alsā'ilu" has two meanings: the first one is (alfaqīr; Translation: the poor) from the root (sa'ala; Translation: asked), and the other is (almā'; Translation: water/ liquid) from the root (sāla; Translation: flow).

Morphological Incidents: The formation of Arabic words results in combining two homonyms in the same diction but vary in meaning. For instance, the word (fā'il) refers to the doer of the action, and it can also be an adjective which refers to a permanent unchangeable feature by which a person is characterized. Moreover, the passive participle (maf'ūl) and active participle

(fāʾil) are derived from the multi-radical (more than three letters) verbs are similar. Hence, the structural context of "إن المحتل لا يهدأ له بال" "inna almuhtalla lā yahda'u lahu bāl" implies a likely thought that the intended meaning of the word (almuhtalla) might be the occupier of a territory or those whose territory was occupied.

The suspicion that adjectives are proper nouns and the suspicion that infinitive nouns (maṣdar-type) abstractions are nouns: A suspicion might occur due to an overlap between an adjective and a proper noun, or between an infinitive noun (maṣdar)-type abstraction and a noun. The main reason behind this is that derivations such as the active participle, passive participle and noun-like adjective (*sifa mushabbaha*) might exceed the descriptive range into the scientific one, such as the Arabic words "ḥasan", "māhir", and "nāssir". For instance, the word "māhir" in: "كان السائق ماهرا" "kāna alsā'iqu māhiran" might indicate that the driver's name is "Mahir", or that the driver is professional and skillful in driving.

Ambiguity in Some Syntactic Affixes: Some syntactic affixes might contribute to the constitution of semantic variations, and their resemblance might cause ambiguity. The existence of a word which can be used for both second and third person or both feminine and masculine words would lead to ambiguity. As the expression "ta'kul" is feminine and masculine where second and third person as well as context is ruling in such a case, as "هي تحمل" "hiya taḥmil" (lit. translation: she carries), the syntactic structure refers to a feminine third person, while "أنت تحمل" "anta taḥmil", it refers to a masculine second person.

Shifting and Polysemy of Paradigms: Arabic paradigms are characterized by shifting each other, which might constitute a serious pitfall that leads to ambiguity. For example, the Arabic mold "maf'al" combines an adverb of time (*ism zamān*), an adverb of place (*ism makān*), and a mimiv infinitive noun (*masdar mīmī*)-type abstraction, while the Arabic mold "fā'il" includes an active participle and a noun-like adjective (*sifa mushabbaha*), and the Arabic mold "fa'ūl" refers to both an exaggeration (*mubālagha*) or a noun-like adjective (*sifa mushabbaha*). For example, the sentence "لأصاحب من هو فجوع" "lā tusāhib man huwa fajū?" the word "fajū?" which corresponds to the Arabic mold "fa'ūl" might refer to both an active participle or a passive participle form, so that it can be ambiguous according to (Ibn Al-Anbari, 1987).

2.1.3. Ambiguity due to syntax:

Such a type of ambiguity does not mean the difficulty of lexical items or their vagueness within utterances, but it indicates providing a sentence that has a clear denotation but a difficult and ambiguous connotation due to its ambiguous syntactic structure (Searle, 1972). For example, a sentence like "مررت برفيق أخي محمد" "marartu birafīqi akī muḥammad" has an elusive underlying structure as it includes two deep structures: the brother (ak) is Mohammad, or the friend (rafīq) is Mohammad. Such a sentence is ambiguously represented at the transformational level as Chomsky (2002) suggested. Thus, Chomsky's revolution came against some structural claims as they stood helpless against some vague and ambiguous sentences (Chomsky, 2002). In order to understand such kind of sentences, it is necessary to the underlying sentences from which such a sentence was derived (Chomsky, 1975). Ambiguity due to syntax has the following aspects:

Pronoun Reference: An addresser might avoid noun repetition depending on an alternative which is a pronoun that replaces it. This avoidance according to Al-Zarkashi (1987) is used for the sake of abbreviation, contempt or magnification but such avoidance cannot be achieved unless there is a pronoun-antecedent agreement. For example, "مشيت إلى الجامعة لأنها قريبة" "mashaitu ilā aljāmi?ati li'annahā qarībah" (lit. translation: I walked to university because it is nearby), there is one antecedent which is (aljāmi?ati; "university") and one pronoun (*hā* in "li'annahā") where there is a singular masculine form agreement.

However, sometimes a pronoun can be preceded by two agreed antecedents, and the meaning cannot determine the reference like "طلب أخي إلى أبي أن يتكلم" "ṭalaba akī ilā abī 'an yatakallama" (lit. translation: my brother asked my father to talk). The implied pronoun in the verb "yatakallama" might refer to the father or brother. Thus, although contextual correlations and dependence on the facts of life direct our minds towards the antecedent (Schlesinger, 1977), this is useless in such sentences.

Genitive Construction (idāfah): A *masdar*-type abstraction can be added to a noun in a particular structure, and such a surface structure shows that the genitive (*mudāf ilaiḥ*) carries two meanings: as a subject or as an object. A sentence as "ياسين يرغب في مساعدة الأصدقاء" "yāsīn yarghabu fī musā?adati al'asdiqā" (lit. translation: Yaseen likes helping friends), this indicates that Yaseen likes helping his friends, or Yaseen likes the help of his friends since the word (al'asdiqā'; "friends") is an object in the former underlying structure, but a subject in the latter. Hence, due to the clarity of the surface structure after being based on two deep structures such ambiguity has been constructed (Kooij, 1971; Quirk et al., 1991).

Absence of Declension Case Markers: Declension case markers might disappear in some words, and this disappearance might cause ambiguity which might occur in cases like indeclinable nouns whose end is static (*mabniyyun*), abbreviated nouns ending with the long vowel (ى: "ā") and verbs ending with (ل) ('alf) (Abd Al-Latif, 1984). For example, رأيت حقيبة هند "ra'aitu ḥaqībata hind allatī faqadat albārīḥah" (lit. translation: I saw Hind's bag that she lost yesterday), the absence of the declension case marker in the Arabic relative pronoun (allatī) might lead the addresser to ambiguity as the word (allatī) can refer to either the bag (ḥaqībata) or Hind.

Relevance: It might happen that an overlap between the contextual structural correlations which leads to an ambiguity in connecting some words to their referents, such as the ambiguity of relative pronoun reference. A sentence like "مررت بأمهات الطالبات اللواتي تخرجن في الجامعة" "marartu bi'ummahātī altālibātī allawātī takarrajna fī aljāmi?ah" (lit. translation: I passed by the mothers of students who graduated at university), ambiguity occurs in defining the relative pronoun's referent, as the relative pronoun "allawātī" is preceded by two agreed referents ("ummahātī" and "altālibātī"; mothers and students) which require a relative pronoun (Ibn Al Seraj, 1996).

Flexibility of Arabic Sentences: An Arabic sentence allows changing the original words' positions, which might result in ambiguity of contextual structural relations; as it is the case in the English language (Bucaria, 2004; Quirk et al. 1991). For example, the sentence "قررت أن أقدم الاختبار يوم الأحد" "qarrartu 'an 'uqaddima al'iktibāra yauma al'ahad" (lit. translation: I decided to submit the test on Sunday), the position of the adverb of time (al'ahad; "Sunday") is preceded by

two attractive factors, so that the addresser might get two meanings: the time of the decision was on Sunday, or the time of submission was on Sunday.

Deletion: Linguists have set conditions of deletion in the process of utterance, mainly including the addressee's awareness of it as Ibn Hisham (1972) and Al-Mbrad (1968) mentioned, but native speakers of a language might be exposed to ambiguity due to deletion when a written utterance conceals some elements of explanation and situational evidence according to Ibn Qutaibah (1973). For example, a sentence as " هند تحبه أكثر من ياسين " "Hind tuhibbuhu 'akthar (deletion) min yāsīn" (lit. translation: Hind likes him more than Yaseen) carries two implications: Hind likes him more than Yaseen does, or Hind likes him more than her love to Yaseen.

Preposition Shifting: Prepositions might shift each other, which might cause ambiguity. A preposition like "ilā" (to) might mean "ma?" (with) or "fī" (in) might also mean "ma?" (with) as Ibn Jini (1990) suggested, which might confuse the addressee by having two or more implications according to Ibn Hisham (1996). For example, a phrase like " صلبه في جذع النخلة " "salbuhu fī jath'i alnaḵlah" (lit. translation: crucifying him in a palm trunk), the pronoun "fī" confuses the addressee by having two possible meanings: crucifying him inside a palm trunk, or crucifying him on a palm trunk.

Syntactic Polysemy: Syntactic meanings of words might overlap and have two or more varying implications according to Almousa (1990) although there is a context which leads to this, such as when a single word can carry the meaning of a *masdar*-type abstraction, a causative objective (*maf'ūl li'ajlih*), or a *ḥāl* accusative of condition. For instances, a sentence like " جاء ياسين رغبة " "jā'a muḥammadun raghbatan" (lit. translation: Mohammad came desiring), the addressee has to choose one of these meanings: Mohammad came to the desire, Mohammad came with a desire, or Mohammad came and he is desiring.

2.1.4. Ambiguity due to lexicon:

The followings are the main aspects of ambiguity due to lexicon:

Homonymy: It refers to the single word that might include two or more meanings, and this might isolate the utterance from clarity and make it vague and ambiguous, such a phenomenon is one of ambiguity factors in all languages (See Fromkin *et al.*, 2014; Richards & Schmidt, 2002; Yule, 2014). For example, the Arabic word (*hijā'*; lit. translation: dispraise or spelling) in a sentence like " ياسين رجل لا يحسن الهجاء " "yāsīn rajulun lā yuḥsinu al hijā'" (lit. translation: Yaseen is a man who is not good at dispraise (or spelling) might hold two varying meanings, so that the sentence could mean that: Yaseen is not good at dispraise which is the opposite of praise, or Yaseen is an illiterate person who is unable to read and write.

Semantic Domains: An addressee might be exposed to words which are likely to include several meanings since they belong to different semantic domains. The legal meaning of the Arabic word (*almuta'addī*) is the person who treat others unjustly and shall be punished for such an action, while the grammatical meaning of such a word is the verb which does not require an object (a transitive verb). Another example as the sentence " استتار الفاعل لا يعني أنه غير موجود " "istitāru alfā'ili lā ya'nī 'annahu ghairu maujūd" (lit. translation: The implied doer does not mean that it (or he) is not existed), the Arabic word "alfā'ili" can occur in different contexts as a

linguist explains to students that the implied subject is existed and not deleted even though it is not mentioned, or in a context where a judge looks for a fugitive.

Variation of Dialects: The Arabic language system as Almousa (1990) stated is a coalition system which includes various dialects that share many phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic features, but they diverge in some linguistic aspects such as: adding a diacritical mark *kasrah* to the initial letter of simple present verbs, the variation of case markers in some words, the variation in the replacement of phonemes, the variation in omission and affirmation, the use of connotations, and the pronunciation way of some words (Akmajian *et al.*, 2010). For instance the word (muhtamman) used in this context "تركت يأسين مهتماً، عنده امتحان شامل" *tarkatu yāsīn muhtamman, ʔindahu ʿimtihānun shāmil*", this word is ambiguous: either it means worry (alhammu) or interest (al'ihitimamu).

Semantic Progression: Semantic progression refers to semantic shift and involves evolution in the usage of words to the point where its present-day meaning considerably differs from its original meaning. Such change may take place over a period of time (Lüdtke, 1999) 'Semantic progression applies to the Arabic language and causes ambiguity.

When a thorough comparison in semantics between two periods that are far apart in time is drawn, considerable differences that constitute confusion and ambiguity to the hearer will be shown (Ullmann, 1962). An example of such words is the word (shanaqa); nowadays, this word has a meaning that never existed before. In the past, it was said "شنيق الجمل إذا جذب وسحب" *"shuniqa aljamalu ithā juthiba wa suhiba"* (Al-Jouhari, 1956), but at the present time this word means (to kill).

2.2. Effects of structural context integration on ambiguity elimination:

As it was previously discussed the aspects of ambiguity in Arabic, there is an attempt to eliminate such ambiguity as ancient linguists have tried to eliminate it before by examining the scopes of linguistic system closely and strictly (See Al-Seouti, 1998; Ibn Aqeel, 1990). The approach used in this section for such an attempt would be applied by retrieving some aspects of ambiguity then supervising the abilities to eliminate them.

Ambiguity due to phonation might be eliminated by some ways like the evocation of intonation, phonological syllables, and the separate pronouns. The absence of such elements causes ambiguity, overlapping of utterance and sentence boundaries, as well as problems of styles. For example, a sentence like "ذهبت نفسها" *"thahabt nafsuha"* has two meanings: she died, or she went herself. However, when the separate pronoun (hiya) is accompanied by intonation "ذهبت هي نفسها" *"thahabat hiya nafsuha"* the ambiguity would no longer exist, and the latter meaning would be implied.

In addition, punctuation marks are used as another way of structural context integration. For example, "قال الملك هو الصالح" *"qāl almaliku hwa al sālihu"*, it appears that it might hold two meanings: the subject is the king or someone else, but by using punctuation marks as the colon (:) the ambiguity will be eliminated. The sentence will be "قال: الملك هو الصالح" *"qāl almaliku: hwa al sālihu"*, so the subject is the king.

The phonological syllables might synergize with intonation, which leads to ambiguity, such as this verse in the Holy Qur'an: "قوله تعالى: "قال الله على ما نقول وكيل" *"Allāhu ʔalā mā naqūlu wakīl"*, (lit. translation: "Be Allah the witness and guardian"). Certainly, the phonological syllables as Al-

Zarkashi (1987) explained accompanied with intonation eliminate the ambiguity that the majesty word "Allah" is a subject, as the actual subject in such a context is the prophet Jacob.

Ambiguity due to morphology, as a result of origin of derivatives, is eliminated by structural context integration, including the external non-spoken dimensions, or by using parentheses. For example, the sentence "وقع السائل على الأرض" "waqa?a alsā'ilu ?lā al'rd" (Lit. translation: The liquid (or the poor) fell on the floor), this is an ambiguous sentence. Ambiguity can be eliminated if the sentence is "وقع السائل على الأرض" "waqa?a alsā'ilu alfaqīru ?lā al'rd" (lit. translation: The poor fell on the floor) or "وقع الحبر السائل على الأرض" "waqa?a alhbru ?aalsā'ilu ?lāl'rd" (Lit. translation: The liquid fell on the floor).

One of the ways to eliminate ambiguity due to the suspicion that an adjective might be a proper noun, is adding a separate pronoun to define the process, such as "هذا حسن – هذا هو حسن" "hāthā ḥasan - hāthā huwa ḥasan" (lit. translation: this is Hasan). Another way to avoid the ambiguity due to morphological incident is to add the Arabic gender-defining morpheme (tā') to the masculine lexical item as in a sentence like "رأيت صبورا (للمذكر) رأيت صبورة (للمؤنث)" "ra'aitu sabūran" (lit. translation: I saw a patient person), so the feminine form will be "ra'aitu sabūratan".

Structural context integration is a way to eliminate ambiguity arising from the suspicion of syntactic affixes through disjunction and parenthesis. As the beloved person in a sentence like "laqītu man 'uhibbuh" (lit. translation: I met the person who I love) might be masculine or feminine. Therefore, the meaning will be considered ambiguous if the pronunciation is accompanied with ambiguity or distortion (Al-Astrabathi, 1998), so that in order to eliminate ambiguity included in the previous sentence, the gender should be defined as follows "لقيت من" "laqītu man 'uhibbuh" for masculine form, and "لقيت من أحبها" "laqītu man 'uhibbuhā" for feminine form.

Ambiguity due to morphological pattern shifting can be achieved by structural context integration through parenthesis and substitution with the meaning intended from the pattern, such as replacing the sentence "لا تصاحب من هو فجوع" "lā tusāhib man huwa fajū?" (lit. translation: Don't be friend those who are distressing (or distressed) with "لا تصاحب من هو فاجع" "lā tusāhib man huwa fajī?" or "لا تصاحب من هو مفجوع" "lā tusāhib man huwa mafjū?"

In regard to the syntactic ambiguity due to pronoun reference, it can be eliminated by restructuring sentences (Al-Zarkashi, 1987), such as restructuring the sentence "نصحت لأختي أن" "nasahtu li'uktī 'an tabqā ma?a 'ummī li'annahā marīdah" (Lit. translation: I advised my sister to stay with my mother because she is sick) into either "نصحت أمي مريضة" "nasahtu li'uktī 'an tabqā ma?a 'ummī li'anna 'ummī marīdah" (lit. translation: I advised my sister to stay with my mother because my mother is sick), or "نصحت لأختي أن تبقى مع أمي؛ لأن أختي مريضة" "nasahtu li'uktī 'an tabqā ma?a 'ummī li'anna 'uktī marīdah" (Lit. translation: I advised my sister to stay with my mother because my sister is sick). If the syntactic ambiguity is due to a genitive construction, where the 1st particle of construction is a *masdar*-type abstraction, it can be eliminated by sentence reconstruction. For example, the sentence "ياسين يحب زيارة الأصدقاء" "yāsīn yuhibbu ziyārata al'a'diqā" (lit. translation: Yaseen likes visiting friends) can be reconstructed into either "yāsīn yuhibbu 'an yazūra al'a'diqā" (lit. translation: Yaseen likes to visit friends), or "yāsīn yuhibbu 'an yazūrahu al'a'diqā" (lit. translation: Yaseen wants his friends to visit him).

Ambiguity due to the disappearance of declension case markers is eliminated by parenthesis, such as the sentence: "كان ياسين صديقي له بيت كبير" "kāna yāsīn sadīqī lahu baitun kabīr" (lit. translation: Yaseen, my friend, had a big house) which becomes "كان ياسين – أعني" "kāna yāsīn - a'annī"

"له بيت كبير" صديقي - "kāna yāsīn – a?nī sadīqī – lahu baitun kabīr" (lit. translation: Yaseen – I mean my friend – had a big house). The ambiguity arising from the flexibility of Arabic sentences can be eliminated by fronting and delaying such as the ambiguity in the sentence قررت يوم السبت "qarrartu 'an 'usāfira 'ilā?ammān yauma alsabti" (lit. translation: I decided to travel to Amman on Saturday) which might be eliminated by the sentence قررت يوم السبت "qarrartu yauma alsabti 'an 'usāfira 'ilā?ammān" (lit. translation: I decided on Saturday to travel to Amman).

If deletion is the reason behind ambiguity, it can be eliminated by restoring what was deleted. For example, the ambiguity in the sentence دخلت البلد "daḳaltu albalada" (lit. translation: I entered the country) can be eliminated by restoring the deleted preposition ('ilā; "to") (Al- Seouti, 1998). If ambiguity is due to the diversity and shifting of prepositions, it can be eliminated by indicating the meaning of the preposition, so that the ambiguity in a sentence like صلبه في جذع النخلة "salbuhu fī jath?i alnaḳlah" (lit. translation: crucifying him in (or on) a palm trunk) can be eliminated by mentioning the meaning of the preposition (fī) as follows: صلبه على جذع النخلة "salbuhu ʔalā jath?i alnaḳlah" (lit. translation: crucifying him on a palm trunk).

The ambiguity arising from syntactic polysemy can be eliminated by detaching the ambiguous structure in order to determine the intended syntactic meaning, replacing it with another one that is consistent with the syntactic meaning, and adding some structural elements. Thus, the ambiguity in a sentence like جاء ياسين رغبة "jā'a yāsīn raghbatan" (lit. translation: Yaseen came desiring) can be eliminated by replacing the word (raghbatan) with (lilraghbatī, lit. translation: for the desire), (yarghabu raghbatan, lit. translation: desiring something) or (raghiban, lit. translation: wanting to).

In regard to all diversities of the ambiguity arising from lexicon (dialects, homophones, semantic domains and implicature), they can be eliminated by several ways. For homophones, ambiguity can be eliminated by brackets or parenthesis, so a sentence like ياسين لا يجيد الهجاء "yāsīn lā yujīdu alhijā'" (lit. translation: Yaseen is not good at dispraise (or spelling) can be converted into ياسين لا يجيد الهجاء - ضد المدح "yāsīn lā yujīdu alhijā' – diddu al madh -." (lit. translation: Yaseen is not good at dispraise – opposite of praise). For semantic domains, ambiguity can be eliminated by the structural context integration. For example, a sentence like استتار الفاعل "istitāru alfā?ili lā ya?nī 'annahu ghairu maujūd" (lit. translation: The implied doer does not mean that it (or he) is not existed), ambiguity can be eliminated by changing the sentence into: استتار فاعل الفعل الماضي والمضارع والأمر "istitāru fā?ili alfi?li almādī wa al mudārī?i wa al'amr lā ya?nī 'annahu ghairu maujūd" (lit. translation: The implied subject of past, present and imperative verbs does not mean that it is not existed).

However, elimination of the ambiguity arising from semantic extension is unavailable and difficult because it is difficult to explain the relationship between the old and the new meanings in an utterance, but it can be eliminated by establishing historical linguistic dictionaries which record the development of Arabic lexical items, so that the addressee could understand them.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants:

This study involves (30) undergraduate BA Translation students in the German-Jordanian University selected randomly from third and fourth year students in the academic year 2013-

2014. Two groups of 15 students were formed as an experimental group and control group. The students aged between 20-24 years. They are male and female but factors such as age and sex were not considered in this study.

3.2. Instrument:

The instrument used in this study was a diagnostic test. It aims at measuring the performance of translation students in translating ambiguous sentences, and to reveal perplexity in the translation. The test was reviewed by a number of translation professors in a number of Jordanian universities in order to evaluate it. Their notes were taken into consideration and required modification was conducted.

The test consists of (24) sentences that included an ambiguity at one of the four levels of the Arabic language (phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic), each with six sentences. Students were asked to translate all sentences and then points were distributed according to the number of responses required from the students. The test was developed to measure the extent to which the translation students achieved correct translation at all the levels of the Arabic language.

The reliability coefficient of the diagnostic test was measured by testing 10 BA Translation students who were not involved in the study after an interval of 10 days. The test was conducted once again; the correlation coefficient of the test is (0.845) and it has a statistical significance at the level of (0.01).

The total points of the test were (48) as the test was divided into (24) sentences; each sentence was scored out of two.

3.3. Procedures of the study:

In order to find answers to the research questions mentioned above, the results of the tests performed by the 30 students were analysed. The students were divided into two groups; each group consisted of 15 students, one as an experimental group and the other 15 as the control group.

3.4. Statistical Analysis:

The statistical analysis used in this study was the (t-test), due to there being one independent variable consisting of the improvement of students' performance by using the modes of structural context integration in ambiguous sentences, and one dependent variable (The translation of ambiguous sentences).

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

4. Results and Discussion

This study aims at investigating the effects of ambiguity elimination by means of structural context integration on the performance of translation students, and particularly, the study attempted to answer the following questions:

I: What is the effect of the modes of structural context integration on translation students' performance improvement?

II: Does each way of structural context integration have the same effect on ambiguity aspects?

4.1. The results of the first question:

To answer the first question, the averages and standard deviations obtained from the points of the students in both the control and experimental groups who submitted the pre-test and the post-test were calculated. A statistical analysis of (t- test) was applied. The results of the first question are presented below in Table (1) and Table (2). Table (1) presents the pre-test averages and standard deviations as well as the (t- test) results.

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

Group	Sample Size	Average	Standard Deviation	(t) Value	Degree of freedom	The level of significance
Control	15	13.07	4.59	-0.877	14	0.395
Experimental	15	14.13	4.69			

It is notable from the (t- test) results in Table (1) that there is a lack of statistically significant differences at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). The significance level is (0.395), and (t) value is (-0.877). This was also confirmed by the clear convergence between the averages of the students' performance in both experimental and control groups. The average of experimental group in the pre-test is (14.13), while the average of the control group in the pre-test is (13.07).

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

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

Group	Sample Size	Average	Standard Deviation	(t) Value	Degree of freedom	The level of significance
Control	15	14.53	5.15	17.06	14	0.00
Experimental	15	38.13	4.30			

The analysis of the results of the (t-test) in Table (2) indicate that there are statistically significant differences at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) due to the modes of context structural integration. The significance level is (0.00) and the (t) value is (17.06), which has a statistical significant at the level of ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). This indicates that the modes of context structural integration had a clear impact in eliminating ambiguity among the experimental group members. This was also confirmed by the clear differences between the averages of students' performance in both the experimental and control groups, which were in the favor of the experimental group, as the average of the experimental group in the pre-test is (14.13), then it increased in the post-test to

become (38.13). On the other hand, the average of the control group in the pre-test is (13.07), then it increased in the post-test to become (14.53), as shown in the averages of Table (2).

4.2. The results of the second question:

The second question of the study is whether each way of structural context integration has the same effect on ambiguity aspects or not. To answer this question, the sum of the correct answers in both the pre-test and the post-test of the experimental group was extracted, then the difference between them was calculated. This difference might reflect the impact of context structural integration modes on each aspect of linguistic ambiguity. The results of this question are presented in Table (3).

Table 3. The impact of the means of context structural integration on the aspects of ambiguity

No.	Aspects of Ambiguity	Students' correct answers in the pre-test	Students' correct answers in the post-test	The difference
1	Ambiguity due to phonation	29	78	49
2	Ambiguity due to morphology	21	67	46
3	Ambiguity due to syntax	12	86	74
4	Ambiguity due to semantics	28	55	27
	Sum	90	286	196

The following observations can now be made:

First, the ambiguity due to syntax is the most negatively influential aspect that affects students, since the number of the correct answers is (12) out of (90), followed by the ambiguity due to morphology with (21) correct answers. Then the ambiguity due to semantics as the correct answers are (28), and finally comes the ambiguity due to phonology, as the number of correct answers is (29).

Second, the modes of structural context integration have contributed remarkably to ambiguity elimination among translation students in regard to the ambiguity aspect which happens due to syntax. The difference between the pre-test and post-test is (74) in favor of the post-test, while secondly came the contribution of the modes of structural context integration in regard to the aspect of ambiguity due to phonology, as the difference between the pre-test and post-test is (49) in favor of the post-test, then thirdly came the contribution of the modes of structural context integration in regard to the aspect of ambiguity due to morphology, as the difference between the pre-test and post-test is (46) in favor of the post-test. Finally, fourthly came the contribution of the means of structural context integration in regard to the aspect of

ambiguity due to semantics, as the difference between the pre-test and post-test is (27) in favor of the post-test.

4.1.1. Discussion of the first question results:

It is apparent that the results of the (t-test) do not present any statistically significant differences at the level of the significance ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the averages of both the experimental and control groups in the pre-test. They also indicate that there are statistically significant differences at the level of the significance ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the averages of both the experimental and control groups in the post-test in favor of the experimental group members who translated the sentences after eliminating the ambiguity by using the modes of context structural integration, in comparison with the members of the control group who translated the sentences in a traditional way. These differences were reflected through the improvement of students' performance in the post-test. This indicates that the modes of structural context integration were effective in improving the performance of the experimental group students.

4.2.2. Discussion of the second question results:

It is evident from the results presented in Table (3), the number of correct answers in the pre-test of the experimental group showed the impact of the linguistic ambiguity phenomenon on the performance of students of translation. In addition, the number of correct answers, which increased in a remarkable way in the post-test of the experimental group, shows the positive impact of the modes of structural context integration. However, the impact of the means of structural context integration varies in accordance with ambiguity aspects.

5. Conclusion

In the course of this study, the questions of the study were answered. The first question, what is the effect of the modes of structural context integration on Translation students' performance improvement? It was found that modes of context structural integration had a clear impact in eliminating ambiguity among the experimental group members. This was reinforced by the clear differences between the averages of students' performance in both the experimental and control groups, which were in the favor of the experimental group. The improvement of students' performance in the post-test reflected these differences. This illustrates that the modes of structural context integration were effective in improving the performance of the experimental group students.

As for the second question, does each way of structural context integration have the same effect on ambiguity aspects? It was concluded that the ambiguity due to syntax is the most negatively influential aspect that affects students. This is followed by the ambiguity due to morphology, then the ambiguity due to semantics. Finally, the ambiguity due to phonology comes last. Moreover, the impact of the linguistic ambiguity phenomenon on the performance of students of Translation was reflected in the number of correct answers in the pre-test of the experimental group. Furthermore, the positive impact of the modes of structural context integration was obvious by the increased number of correct answers of the post-test of the experimental group. Nonetheless, the effect of the means of structural context integration diverges in consistent with ambiguity aspects.

The results of this study suggest that examining the effects of phonological, morphological, syntactical, and lexical ambiguity on the translation of undergraduate students might provide insights into the difficulties faced by them. It is indicated that the phenomenon of ambiguity in

Arabic has negatively affected the performance of the undergraduate Translation students at the German-Jordanian University. The following recommendations can contribute to increase the students' awareness of significant Arabic language details related to phonology, morphology, syntax and lexical items.

The study plan of the BA Translation at the German-Jordanian University has to be modified as it does not cover the language requirements of the Arabic language. It was found that the plan includes only two modules of the Arabic language, so it is necessary to add Arabic grammatical, morphological, rhetoric and lexical modules because of their significant impact on the students' translation. Additionally, a plan to review the curriculum constantly has to be developed with focus on the Arabic curriculum in order for the students to take advantage of this review. Furthermore, students have to be exposed to terminologies in both languages so they will be able to use them in the translation process.

About the Authors:

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Dr Reem Rabadi has a PhD in Applied Linguistics from Nottingham University with a focus on lexical studies, contrastive linguistic studies, and corpus linguistics. She is currently the Vice-Dean and Head of Language Department of the School of Applied Humanities and Languages at the German Jordanian University. She has extensive teaching experience in different fields of Applied Linguistics.

Dr Haytham Althawbih has a PhD in Applied Linguistics from Mu'tah University with a focus on Arabic lexical studies, semantics and syntax. He is an Assistant Professor at the School of Basic Sciences and Humanities at the German Jordanian University. He has a very good teaching experience in Arabic syntax, morphology, semantics and pragmatics.

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Web-based English for Computer Science: Students' Evaluation of Course Effectiveness

Mostefa Meddour

Department of Foreign Languages
Division of English
University of Biskra, Algeria

Abstract

The recent expansion of web-based education as a promising practice marks the shift from the traditional teacher-centred to a learner-centred classroom. As English for specific purposes (ESP) is a learner-centred approach, web-based instruction ably serves its principles of autonomous learning, independent decision-making, time and space flexibility, and the changing role of teachers from instructors to facilitators. Thus, evaluating the success of web-based instruction in an ESP context is worthy of enquiry. Students' course evaluation has become a vital source of data for teachers to make judgments on course delivery and determine the value of their instruction. This paper seeks to gauge the effectiveness of a web-delivered ESP course to 42 Master students of Computer Science at Biskra University. It also aims to determine the extent of the instructor's accomplishment in bridging the objectives of the course to meet the needs of the learners. To do so, a summative evaluation checklist was utilized as a research instrument. The findings revealed that the engagement in different online practices besides the teacher's feedback received students' approval. However, students disclosed their dissatisfaction of the artificial interaction of the web-delivered instruction, which seems to fail to prepare them for academic and professional challenges.

Keywords: English for Computer Science, students' evaluation, web-based ESP course

Introduction

Students' evaluation of programme effectiveness has become a vital source of data for teachers to make judgments on course management and determine the success or failure of their instruction. The students' ratings, even though they are not the only indicators of teaching effectiveness, are appropriate instruments to gauge the value of the course and the extent of the instructor's accomplishment in achieving the learning objectives. As ESP is considered a learner-centred approach, the contribution of the learner to make decisions on various levels of the course has become expected. Among these decisions is determining the effectiveness of integrating technology-based instruction in ESP learning to match course objectives to learners' needs. This paper seeks to gauge the effectiveness of a web-delivered ESP course to Computer Science students. It also aims to probe the instructor's achievement in coping with the learners' deficiencies and meeting their learning needs.

ESP web-based education: features

Web-based instruction has appeared to be a new promising learning platform in ESP that characterises the shift from the teacher-centred classroom to a learner-centred environment (Pacheco, 2005). The pedagogical features of web-based education encourage ESP teachers and practitioners to offer more interaction, autonomy, motivation and knowledge construction.

The web as an instructional media is proved to be an "inexhaustible source of comprehensive information" (Chuchalin and Danilova, 2005, p. 130) that offers a range of features for ESP learners, including authenticity, study skills, autonomy, and empowerment.

Authenticity

Following Luzon (Qtd in Pueyo, 2009), the Internet contains a wide range of ESP-related authentic materials which cover downloadable and retrievable academic lectures and papers, specialty documents, professional workshops' reports, dictionaries, encyclopaedias, and terminology reference books. Hence, it offers ESP learners opportunities to communicate and publish for an authentic audience (Luzon Qtd in Pueyo, 2009, p. 17).

Study Skills

Web-based instruction provides learners with the necessary literacy that is needed for academic and professional achievement in terms of mastery of study skills (reading, writing, researching, speaking, discussing, etc). Macia *et al* (2009) recommended a number of strategies that assist ESP learners develop the four language skills via web-based instruction.

First, authentic reading can be accomplished using online field-related texts, in addition to dictionaries, encyclopaedias, and glossary lists for explanation of technical terminology. Online writing offers the opportunity to publish written productions to be revised and evaluated. As far as listening is concerned, the web offers learners a variety of learning resources that expose learners to different varieties and accents of English in different study and work situations. Speaking skills can be practised online, as well through interactive tools such as chat rooms and conferencing.

Autonomy

ESP web courses encourage learners to learn on their own pace and have more control, responsibility, and self-reflection on the learning process. Macia *et al.* (2009, p. 71) suggested a number of tools for promoting autonomy in web-based instruction, including setting individual

objectives, constructing language information via personal selection of online activities and language resources, having a private electronic portfolio with a personal log to access and save their written and oral productions.

Empowerment

Empowering learners and teachers to be more productive, responsible, and motivated are among the premises and promises of online instruction. Hence, ESP courses should include purposeful tasks that enhance learners' academic and occupational skills. They also need to promote independence, decision-making and ongoing learning.

ESP Course Evaluation

Programme evaluation in ESP instruction examines the extent of meeting learners' target goals and makes relevant inferences about instructional components. The significant role of Needs Analysis (NA) in the evaluation process lies in sensing learners' objectives and needs at early stages of the course and setting out appropriate measurements to fulfil them. Furthermore, ESP course evaluation regards NA as the essential prior procedure that must be conducted to justify the existence of all the course elements. Setting up clear and precise needs and objectives right from the beginning eases the burden of thorough evaluation for the instructors and other partners in the ESP enterprise.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 152) consider evaluation in ESP as "the starting point for any necessary revisions of the course, and may also help to guide the design of other similar courses" that may serve to achieve the desired academic or professional / occupational requirements. Consequently, any pitfall in the course that learners may signal in the evaluation is often referred to as a weakness in the course design.

Similarly, Momeni and Rasekh (2012) view ESP course evaluation as a must-have phase that takes both summative and formative form and is carried out to make critical decisions on "curriculum changes, documenting events, measuring cost effectiveness, estimating the needs for a teaching staff, identifying unintended outcomes and clarifying the objectives" (220). Evaluation, hence, exists to attain productive feedback that leads to a well-revised course aimed at coping with certain learning tasks.

Research context and method

The ESP web-based course that students of Computer Science at Biskra University had followed aimed to develop learners' academic communicative skills. The course was organised into two terms of instruction that ended up with a summative evaluation which is intended to check students' rating of the level of the course success or failure and "provide feedback for programme improvement" (Bailey 2009, p. 707), in addition to their evaluation of the teaching effectiveness. As Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle (2006, p. 18) state, "summative data focus on determining whether a programme's goals were met". In the current ESP programme evaluation, the researcher applied the "objective-based approach" which measures the extent to which the course objectives are met.

E-learning and web-based instruction in particular have become increasingly important in education. However, its effectiveness has not been empirically proved in a wide scale because "these innovative approaches to training have been limited by the shortage of scientifically credible evaluation" (Atwell, 2006, p. 7). Therefore, the present web-based Computing English course evaluation offers a contribution to improving the standards and qualities of e-learning, to

gauge its usefulness in achieving learning outcomes and improving student engagement in the process of teaching and learning.

42 students participated in the course evaluation through an evaluation checklist that consists of two parts. The first part covers aspects of the course related mainly to the instructor's teaching approach, the assignments, learning materials, lessons and activities, course objectives and tests. The second part evaluates the web assignments in terms of their design, level of difficulty, their fitness of purpose in terms of meeting the course objectives and students' needs, and their usefulness to their learning. It also probes the students' frequency of web-assignments' accomplishment.

Results and discussion

In this summative evaluation, students were asked to complete the form by assigning each statement a number that corresponds to their opinion. The first part evaluates the instructor, learning materials, lessons and activities, objectives and tests.

Evaluating the instructor

The ESP instructor/teacher has been a matter of controversy in the literature due to the question of who is best qualified to teach ESP: the EFL teacher or the specialist teacher of the discipline. Although s/he is required to be a specialist in students' field, his/her primary goal is to ensure communicative competence in the target situation (Riabtseva and Arestova, 2006). The objective of this checklist item is to measure students' satisfaction with the teacher's instructional behaviour and the extent s/he succeeded in meeting their expectations. The results are summarised in table 1.

Table 1. Students' evaluation of the instructor

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	No answer
1. Instructor is knowledgeable about the subject	14	24	04	00	00	/
	33.33%	57.14%	09.52%	00%	00%	/
2. Instructor encourages participation	23	15	04	00	00	/
	54.76%	35.71%	09.52%	00%	00%	/

3. Instructor is enthusiastic about teaching	17	20	05	00	00	/
	40.47%	47.61%	11.90%	00%	00%	/

Table 1 demonstrates students' ratings of the various instructional ingredients that are directly bound to the instructor's teaching behaviour. To begin with, out of 42 participants, 24 (57.14%) agree that the instructor is knowledgeable about the subject, 14 participants (33.33%) strongly agree, and 4 are unsure (9.52%) about the statement. Having over half of the participants considering the teacher knowledgeable about the subject (Computing English) confirms the assumption which claims that ESP teacher needs a reasonable understanding of the students' specialist area (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998).

As far as encouraging participation is concerned, the majority of students agree that their ESP teacher motivates them to demonstrate effective involvement during classroom practice. This reflects the instructor's perception of ESP practice which considers participation as one of the essential "predictors of academic achievement" (Willms 2003) and a "productive work habit" (Turner and Patrick, 2004). Participation bridges students' thinking to teachers' strategies of instruction to sustain meaningful communication. By doing so, the ESP teacher achieves one of the stated objectives of ESP practice, which is the practical use of language in students' academic or professional environment.

The last item in the evaluation rates the instructor's enthusiasm towards teaching. Table 1 shows that 17 students (40.47%) strongly agree that their ESP teacher is enthusiastic about teaching. 20 students (47.61%) agree with the statement and 5 other students (11.90%) are unsure of their opinion. These statistics suggest that enthusiasm while teaching creates a stimulating environment for effective learning.

In an ESP context, enthusiasm and motivation are crucial. Barrantes (2009, p. 131) believes that "the teacher can increase motivation by bringing to class enjoyable, meaningful materials and attractive activities in which those materials may be used". Therefore, the ESP teacher needs to be highly enthusiastic especially when dealing with content knowledge subjects in which the learner knows the content and the teacher "is often more a consultant than a teller, giving advice, suggesting alternatives and allowing the learner to make informed decisions" (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998, p. 189).

Evaluating learning materials

In an ESP context, the role of learning material is fundamental since it is bound to the students' academic or professional content area, requiring instructors to exercise care when selecting appropriate materials. ESP instructors are hereafter required to integrate "language skills, structures, functions and vocabulary that will be needed by the members of a chosen target group in their professional and vocational environment" (Vičič, 2011, p. 108); therefore, it is necessary for them to be acquainted with and interested in the students' field of expertise in order to make material selection an easy and comfortable practice.

In the present rating form, Computer Science students are asked to evaluate the course learning materials, mainly web-based materials in terms of the features shown in the table below.

Table 2. Students' Evaluation of the Learning Materials

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	N.A
1. The instructor uses a variety of learning materials, internet materials in particular	09	15	07	06	02	03
	21.42%	35.71%	16.66%	14.28%	04.76%	07.14%
2. The learning materials fit the course objectives	11	20	08	01	00	02
	26.19%	47.61%	19.04%	02.38%	00%	04.76%
3. The materials help me engage effectively in the course	12	23	03	03	00	01
	28.57%	54.76%	07.14%	07.14%	00%	02.38%

Table 2 indicates that most students agreed with the statements related to the role of the learning materials in assisting them to cope with the course requirements. Statistically, over half of the students reported the variety of materials used in the course which reflects the concern of the instructor to cover a wide range of content knowledge to avoid monotony and keep the course dynamic.

The present programme integrates both web-based materials and textbook-based materials. The internet-adopted materials range from authentic listening extracts to WebPages reading texts. The amalgamation of authenticity and specificity of materials stimulates learners to make sense of learning and simulates the real world in the classroom (Baghban and Pandian, 2011). Therefore, authenticity generates not only genuine communicative context but also sense of learning and engagement.

As far as the suitability of the learning materials to the course objectives is concerned, students in the evaluation form confirmed this fitness of purpose. Setting objectives for the course gives a guided vision of instruction for both the teacher and the learner to identify priorities and make relevant decisions (Graves, 2000). Teachers should be cautious when deciding on the selection of appropriate materials that fit the course objectives since it clarifies the purpose of instruction.

As a result of the variety of materials used for the course and their fitness to the objectives, students stated that they learn better due to the selection of appropriate materials, especially when they build a meaningful link between students' real world and the communicative purpose of language learning.

The last item in the evaluation of the learning materials is effective engagement in the course. What table 2 displays is that a total of 35 students (83.33%) out of 42 agreed or strongly agreed with the statement reporting the relationship between effective engagement and the selected learning materials for the course. Effective classroom engagement is often seen in students' rate of participation, assignment completion, interaction, and most importantly learning achievement. With the assistance of relevant materials, students may demonstrate their classroom engagement in many ways, as an indication of the "purposeful learning" that ESP teaching aims to achieve.

Evaluating lessons and activities

The learning materials, or more properly "material development" (Graves, 2000, p. 161) constitute the set of lessons and activities which provide the instructional exposure to the range of study and practice package. The evaluation of lessons and activities' statements are adopted from the absolute and variable characteristics of ESP which are suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (1998). Table 3 shows the results.

Table 3. Students' evaluation of lessons and activities

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	N.A
1. Lessons and activities are related in content to my discipline	20	14	05	00	01	02
	47.61%	33.33%	11.90%	00%	02.38%	04.76%
2. Lessons and activities prepare me to use English in academic and workplace settings	08	16	09	08	01	00
	19.04%	38.09%	21.42%	19.04%	02.38%	00%
3. The language used in the lessons (grammar, vocabulary, and skills) is	16	20	06	00	00	00
	38.09%	47.61%	14.28%	00%	00%	00%

related to my discipline						

What is remarkable in table 3 is the agreement of students with the first and the last statements and their disparity on the second statement.

Concerning the relationship of the lessons and activities to students' discipline, the table indicates students' agreement with the statement. The appropriateness of the content to the learners' subject-specific area is one of the most prominent characteristics of ESP instruction. As an implementation of this principle, the teacher selected a range of lessons and activities which cover skills and knowledge depicting discipline-bound themes such as computer applications, database, website design, artificial intelligence, etc. This is a strategy to motivate students to effectively demonstrate involvement in both lessons and activities through interacting with the teacher and peers via sharing their already existing knowledge of the subject.

As far as the statement probing the idea assuming that ESP prepares learners for academic and professional world is concerned, the table 3 shows that only 8 students (19.04%) strongly agree with the statement, 16 students (38.09%) agree, 9 students (21.42%) are unsure, 8 students disagree (19.04) and 1 (02.38%) student strongly disagrees. This is perhaps due to the status of English in the students' study and job domain, which is considered as a foreign language with limited practical uses in the real world compared to French and Arabic, which are the working languages in the Algerian academic and professional contexts.

However, the majority of students agreed with the statement declaring the fitness of the language features of the course, namely grammar, vocabulary and skills to the learners' discipline. Statistically speaking, the table shows a total of 36 students (85.71%) out of 42 who stated that the linguistic features they are exposed to during instruction reflect the nature of computer science, which is regarded as an area with a technical jargon, functional language and discourse.

Evaluating objectives

The attainment of objectives checks objectives' clarity and specificity. The results can be seen in table 4:

Table 4. Students' evaluation of the course objectives

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	N.A
1. The course objectives are clearly identified	14	09	16	02	00	01
	33.33%	21.42%	38.09%	04.76%	00%	02.38%
2. The course objectives	21	09	06	02	02	02

are very specific	50%	21.42%	14.28%	04.76%	04.76%	07.14%
3. My learning objectives	03	11	15	12	00	01
are entirely achieved	07.14%	26.19%	35.71%	28.57%	00%	02.38%

Out of 42 students, a sum of 23 of them (54.76%) agree that the course' objectives are clear, 16 (38.09%) are uncertain, 2 students disagree and 2 others are of no answer. It seems that half of the students find the course objectives well-defined in the sense that they help them constitute a straightforward vision of learning and guide them towards their target needs.

When it comes to the specificity of objectives, over half of the students confirmed that the objectives are specific. Specific objectives make teaching and learning "useful and comprehensible" (Brown, 1995, cited in Graves, 2000, p. 87) and above all they make the ESP course 'objective-oriented'. It is worth mentioning that the objectives of the current ESP course revolve around preparing learners to apply the knowledge, skills and competencies in the academic arena and in the workplace. The last item in the evaluation of the objectives examines the students' attainment of their learning objectives during the first term of the ESP course. 15 students (35.71%) are undecided about the fulfilment of their objectives at this point of the course because of the short period of teaching and learning. Learners often need to wait till the end of the instruction to confirm achievement of the course objectives.

Evaluating tests

Testing in ESP is often viewed as a "feedback and an aid to learning" (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998, p. 210) rather than measuring the performance in terms of scores.

In the present evaluation form, students are asked to evaluate the proficiency tests difficulty level, the content, and the grading scale. Table 5 shows the findings.

Table 5. Students' evaluation of tests

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	N.A
1. The level of tests was just right.	12	14	09	03	02	02
	28.57%	33.33%	21.42%	07.14%	04.76%	04.76%
2. The tests covered all the	15	20	02	04	00	01

learning points	35.71%	47.61%	04.76%	09.52%	00%	02.38%
3. The tests' grading scale is acceptable	18	09	14	00	00	01
	42.85%	21.42%	33.33%	00%	00%	02.38%
4. The grades are convincing	20	10	06	03	00	03
	47.61%	23.80%	14.28%	07.14%	00%	07.14%

According to the table 5, most students (sum of 26, representing 61.90%) agree that the tests' level was handy and acceptable. 9 (21.42%) students are unsure, and 5 of them (11.90%) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. The tests were composed of items that have been dealt with and practised in class and online via web assignments to carry out similar tasks.

The good test content often covers the learning points that students have dealt with during the course so that they feel comfortable when responding to the questions. So, the present item in evaluating tests probes students' attitudes towards the match existing between the content of tests and the taught items. As it is shown in table 5, 35 students in total (83.33%) reported their satisfaction with tests' content. Meanwhile, 4 students (09.52%) didn't agree with the statement.

As far as the grading scale is concerned, 18 students (42.85%) strongly agreed that it is satisfactory, 9 students (21.42%) agreed, while 14 students (33.33%) reported their uncertainty of the appropriateness of the grading scale. Table 5 shows that the majority of students (30 students out of 42) are satisfied with their tests' scores.

Evaluating web assignments' design

Web assignments, which are "the possible alternative for the traditional pen and paper methods" (Demirci, 2010, p. 159), are integrated in the web-based instruction as a fundamental ingredient that increases students' engagement with the course via the interactivity element provided by the web applications. Students receive their homework at once with the ability to log in and log out whenever they like without feeling the pressure of having the assignment done on paper and being seen by peers and corrected by the teacher.

Research on evaluating the effectiveness of web/ online assignments in improving students' performance (Hodge, Richardson & York, 2009) suggests that they effectively provide individualised feedback on students' performance and motivate them to perform better than in traditional homework.

In this section of the evaluation form, we survey students' attitudes and opinions on the appropriateness and effectiveness of web assignments in meeting their needs. Table 6 reports on students' agreement and disagreement with some statements about the layout of the assignments.

Table 6. Students' evaluation of web assignments

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	N.A
1. Web assignments are clearly written and properly instructed.	14	22	04	00	00	02
	33.33%	52.38%	9.52%	00%	00%	4.76%
2. Web assignments are the right level of difficulty for the course.	08	15	12	04	00	03
	19.04%	35.71%	28.57%	9.52%	00%	7.14%
3. Activities and web-delivered assignments help me learn the material.	08	19	09	02	01	02
	19.04%	45.23%	21.42%	4.76%	2.38%	4.76%
4. Web assignments given for class serve the objectives of the course.	13	21	04	01	00	03
	30.95%	50%	9.52%	2.38%	00%	7.14%
5. Web assignments have motivated me to develop the needed language skills for the course.	13	18	08	01	00	02
	30.95%	42.85%	19.04%	2.38%	00%	4.76%
6. Web assignments meet my learning needs.	06	16	17	02	00	02
	14.28%	38.09%	40.47%	4.76%	00%	4.76%

7. Web assignments make learning dynamic.	08	21	09	01	00	03
	19.04%	50%	21.42%	2.38%	00%	7.14%

Out of 42 students, 14 (33.33%) strongly agree that the assignments were clear, 22 (52.38%) agree with the statement; however, 4 respondents (9.52%) are not sure and 2 (4.76%) had no opinion. The majority of respondents (sum of 36) who declared that the web assignments are clearly written and instructed indicate that the teacher pays careful attention to the general layout of the assignments for successful accomplishment. Therefore, web assignments are of potential value if they are “easy to use, carefully planned and integrated seamlessly with course material, and supported by the instructors and teaching assistants.” (Arasasinghama, Martorell, and McIntire, 2011 as cited in Weimer, 2013).

Assignments that fail to reflect the level of the course or learners present a challenge. The statistics in table 6 suggest that the participants who consider the assignments neither easy nor difficult constitute the majority of respondents (23). Ensuring the right difficulty level for assignments encourages learners to achieve. Therefore the instructor needs to be careful so that assignments are carefully designed with the course objectives in mind. Perhaps challenging assignments might account for 12 respondents opting for the “unsure” item in the evaluation form.

The other function of the assignments is to help students learn the material through accomplishing them. A sum of 27 respondents (64.28%) strongly agree or agree that the web-assignments help them learn the material. 9 participants (21.42%) are unsure, 3 respondents strongly disagree or disagree with the given statement and 2 of them gave no answer. What these statistics suggest is the fact that assignments can help learners understand the material through further practice. When it comes to ESP teaching, the principle of “learner-centred” is clearly demonstrated in the web-assignments in which students are self-oriented and independent in responding to the questions and taking advantage of the internet application to deepen their understating of the material. So, learning online through assignments helps ESP learners become lifelong autonomous learners.

Evaluating web assignments' accomplishment

Assignments, whether traditional or online, have been somewhat contentious for many learners due to the effort and time they require, in addition to the anxiety and pressure they engender. The negative attitude of learners towards assignments is featured in their non-completion of homework and their feelings of being overloaded. Hence, students generally are not ‘fond’ of homework, unless it will be graded and considered as a part of their achievement average. The table below shows students' frequency of assignments' accomplishment.

Table 7. Students' evaluation of web-assignments accomplishment

Statements	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	N.A
1. How often do you	22	10	06	03	00	01

check the online assignments?	52.38%	23.80%	14.28%	07.14%	00%	02.38%
2. How often do you accomplish the assignments?	17	12	09	02	02	00
	40.47%	28.57%	21.42%	04.76%	04.76%	00%
3. How often do you copy the answers from a classmate?	02	09	06	05	20	00
	04.76%	21.42%	14.28%	11.90%	47.61%	00%
4. How often do you enjoy doing the assignments?	08	07	11	09	05	02
	19.04%	16.66%	26.19%	21.42%	11.90%	04.76%
5. How often do you find the assignments useful and relevant to the course?	14	13	11	03	01	00
	33.33%	30.95%	26.19%	07.14%	02.38%	00%
6. How often do you receive feedback from the teacher?	17	06	09	01	06	03
	40.47%	14.28%	21.42%	02.38%	14.28%	07.14%
7. How often do you use the Internet tools to accomplish the assignments?	08	09	10	09	04	02
	19.04%	21.42%	23.80%	21.42%	09.52%	04.76%

Every time the assignment was posted to students via class e-mail, the instructor ensured that they needed to check it and accomplish it. Table 7 reveals that over half of respondents (52.83%) reported that they always check the assignments, 23.80% often do so, while 6 respondents (14.28%) claimed that they sometimes check the web-assignments, and finally 7.14% of respondents asserted that they rarely check them. No one said that s/he never checks the assignments. This implies that students are notably interested in doing the assignments as a requirement of the course and for the purpose of receiving feedback. Yet, half of the participants did not check the posting of the assignments on a regular basis which could denote lack of interest, unfamiliarity with the method, and the non-positive attitude towards the task.

When it comes to the accomplishment of homework, although half of respondents claimed that they always check the assignments, only 17 students (40.47%) always accomplish them. 12 students (28.57%) reported that they often do so and 9 students (21.42%) expressed their irregularity in doing their assignments. 4 students rarely or never do them. This casts doubts on the capacity of web-assignments in motivating students to do their homework as a requirement of the course. Although it was anticipated that most students will show enthusiasm towards web-assignments, it appears homework remains unappealing for learners, whether in traditional manner or online, since it leads to anxiety towards possible negative feedback. Yet, the 40% of respondents who stated they regularly check and accomplish the assignments represents the number of students who always accomplish the assignments, suggesting they find them appealing and effective in widening their knowledge.

As in traditional assignments, many students tend to copy aspects of the assignments from classmates who have already done them. This is considered as cheating, which is reported to be one of the disadvantages of online assignments, since there is no 'human' control over the process of completion. In this item of the evaluation form, the researcher aims to check students' autonomy in learning. As table 7 shows, 20 students (47.61%) out of 42 claimed that they never copy their answers from others; however, 9 respondents said that they often do so. Theoretically speaking, web applications and tools ease and practically promote the process of learning and make it independent in terms of self-pacing and progress; therefore, most respondents claim autonomous accomplishment of web-assignments. Students who often or sometimes copy the keys of homework activities are usually uninterested in the course itself, and what matters to them is the teachers' approval. A possible reason for copying the answers is their inability to cope with the activities due to their low proficiency level.

In the present ESP course, the web assignments checked students' commitment, comprehension, graded them and monitored their progress through feedback.

For the aforementioned reasons, table 7 indicates that students vary in their responses concerning their enjoyment when doing the assignments. 8 students (19.04%) said that they always enjoy doing the assignments; however, 5 students (11.90%) never find pleasure in doing them. Yet, 11 students (26.19%) report sometimes appreciating the benefits of the assignments and enjoy completing them. Such lack of motivation could be due in part to insufficient encouragement on the part of the instructor.

As far as the relevance and usefulness of the web-assignments to the course is concerned, the majority of respondents replied positively; 14 students (33.33%) always find them relevant, 13 students (30.95%) often do, and 11 students (26.19%) sometimes find the assignments useful. Unquestionably, the online assignments have significant benefits for they allow further practice of the lesson materials, widen learners' knowledge and foster their skills. The homework given for learners in the present study was to consolidate their comprehension through a number of

questions, accompanied with relevant web links to assist them. This helps to link ESP learners' English to their study discipline in a meaningful way. Therefore, the majority of learners who confirmed the relevance of the web-assignments to the course supported the assumptions claiming that they are gaining popularity in many learning settings and institutions.

One of the advantages of web-assignment is its immediate feedback, especially if the system of correction is technically elaborated for the 'trial and error' strategy that permits a chance for more than one attempt; however, in the present assignments the feedback is done both online via e-mail and in class through remedial sessions for target skills. Statistically, a sum of 23 respondents (54%) declared that they always/often receive feedback from the teacher, and only 7 respondents (16.66%) said that they never/rarely receive it. The feedback sessions aimed to target weaknesses of learners and provide remedial practice or attach relevant web links of similar objectives. Learners who claimed to receive no feedback were those who did not regularly attend the course or check feedback via email.

The last item evaluates the reliance on Internet tools (encyclopaedias, web pages, blogs and Chatrooms, etc.) to complete assignments. Out of 42 students, 8 (19.04%) always use them and 9 (21.42%) often do so. However, 9 students (21.42%) rarely use these tools to accomplish their assignments and 4 students (9.52%) never use them. 10 students (23.80%) sometimes rely on internet tools to look for keys to the exercises. This disparity in opinions reflects students' different attitudes towards the utility and helpfulness of the internet tools in successful completion of assignments. Some students find it useful to seek knowledge related to the homework questions by searching the web for similar content; while others tend to rely on the course information and make appropriate inferences to cope with the queries of the assignments. As some may feel overwhelmed by the abundance of information on the web, the teacher often attaches useful links to similar content of the questions such as tutorials, videos, and web pages.

As can be seen from the above, the evaluation of the assignments' design and accomplishments revealed mainly positive attitudes of Computer Science learners towards the web assignments due to the "high-quality and interactive materials and activities" (Sims-Mohammed and Wooddell, 2012, p. 49) needed for individual completion of tasks and instant feedback.

Conclusion

Despite its limitation and single rating dimension, students' evaluation of the course effectiveness has always been a valuable source to rate the instruction they receive. In this study of the evaluation of web-based ESP instruction for Computer Science students, it emerged that a well-planned course has encouraged students to engage effectively in the different class and online practices. Moreover, the feedback that students received was appreciated, since it allowed them to adjust their learning strategies. Autonomous learning has also been employed by the majority of respondents. One of the unanticipated attitudes towards this course is its failure to practically prepare them for real world challenges because of the overwhelming dominance of French and Arabic in their discipline. Hence, some students learn English for computing as a requirement to attain the degree, not as a course they need for their real life (academic or professional) purposes

About the Author:

Mostefa Meddour holds a PH.D degree in Applied linguistics from Biskra University, Algeria. He is currently teaching undergraduate and Master students of English at the Department of Foreign Languages, Division of English studies. He is interested in academic writing, ESP program evaluation, needs analysis and language skills.

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Exploring the Cognitive Processes of Students and Professors of Translation

Karima BOUZIANE

Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences,
Chouaib Doukkali University, El Jadida, Morocco

Abstract: Translation is a cognitive process where the translator decodes the meaning of the source text, and re-encodes this meaning in the target language (Zlateva, 2000). Since thought processes are not directly observable, researchers use Think Aloud Protocols (TAPs) - a method based on translators' verbalization of their thoughts- while translating a text. Many observational studies were conducted with the attempt of understanding what goes on in the mind of translators during translation process. They focused on individual TAPs on various aspects of the process including comprehension, revision (Mossop, 2001), creativity (Kusssmaul, 1997) professional and student approaches (Séguinot, 1989; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1989; Jääskeläinen & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1991), time pressure (Jensen, 1999). However, to my knowledge, very few studies have investigated individual TAPs of teachers of translation as opposed to collective TAPs of students of translation. The aim of this research is to observe and compare the cognitive processes of students and teachers to find out better translation practices. Through a set of experiments, involving master students and professors of translation, the study revealed that students were less strategic than professors. Yet, their non-automatic way of solving problems provided rich data. Students' collaborative TAPs, as opposed to professors' individual TAPs, helped them provide higher numbers of tentative and selected solutions.

Keywords: Cognitive processes, collective TAPs, individual TAPs, Think Aloud Protocol, translation teaching

1. Introduction

Monologue protocols method has been frequently used in the past studies. It consists of experiments where one subject is asked to talk aloud while translating. This request is repeated if necessary during the problem-solving process thus encouraging the subject to tell what he/she is thinking. Thinking or 'concurrent verbalization' refers to "type of data collecting method, which is used in empirical translation process research. In think-aloud method the subjects are asked to verbalize whatever crossed their minds during [...] translation activity. The transcription of verbalization is called think-aloud protocols (TAPs) (Baghiat Esfahani, 2015, P.84).

Monologue protocols have been considered as inaccessible to the translation process. In fact, subjects "tend to stop verbalizing" or they produce poor verbal reports when they are thinking deeply (Ericsson & Simon, 1980, p. 242). Whereas, in other studies, (Jääskeläinen & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1991, p. 91.Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995) in familiar tasks, where professional translators do "little thinking", they produce few verbalizations, since problem solving has often become "habitual" for them. Nevertheless, monologue protocols are still frequently the most useful tool for accessing the translation process in spite of the criticism leveled against it. In this study, TAP method has been used, in testing professors of translation who preferred to work individually.

Monologue protocols were not only considered as inaccessible to the translation process; they were also regarded as "unnatural". Normally, talking to oneself is "not a natural" thing to do. Therefore, Krings (1986) suggested that the subjects should be given some time to get used to this behavior in a "warming-up phase." The researcher should attend and listen "quietly but attentively". This makes the situation less artificial (Krings, 1986a, p.56.Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995). In addition, "the atmosphere in which the experiment takes place should be stress-free and the subjects should not have the feeling that they are being criticized for their translations" (Krings, 1986a, p. 56.Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995). According to Krings, (1986) think-aloud monologue method fits translation process research since there is a close correlation between translating and thinking aloud. He thought that that translation is itself a linguistic process and, therefore, the linguistically structured information available in short-term memory can be accessed through verbal monologues (p.58.Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995).

The claim that think- aloud monologues are not natural has led some scholars (House, 1988; Honig, 1991; Kussmaul, 1989, 1993 and 1994; Schmid, 1994.Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995) to get subjects to talk to each other in order to make the verbalization more natural. House (1988) compared monologue protocols and dialogue protocols in her study; she found that monologue protocols contained a large amount of useless data and that many processes such as choosing, selecting and deciding about an equivalent in the target language text were not verbalized (p. 89.Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995). However, in verbalization performed in pairs, House (1988) found that selection and suggestions to translation problems were "negotiated and all partners in the pair thinking aloud sessions benefited in terms of incidental clarification of their own thoughts, and each individual's thoughts appeared to have been consistently shaped through the necessity of having to verbalize them" (p. 93.Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995).

House (1988) emphasized that dialogue protocols have provided richer data than monologue protocols in which the subject talks to himself (p. 96 p. 93.Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995). In the latest “think- aloud experiments, “the richness and usefulness of data relies on the type of subjects and the shortness of the translated text” (Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995). Moreover, it depends on the “priorities” of the experimenter; the verbal reports that one experimenter finds “poor” can be “rich” to another researcher (Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995).

Séguinot (1996) stressed the usefulness of “collaborative” protocols by saying that both subjects who were translating “collaboratively” seemed to be more concerned and responsible for the task; the translation was negotiated, sometimes with “overt reasoning” since this resembled “normal life” activities. However, in a monologue protocol analysis, subjects were much more preoccupied by their thinking without justifying their thoughts (p. 88.Qtd in Pavlovic, 2007). Moreover, collaborative protocols have a further advantage in the sense that they make us see “the integration of world knowledge”, lead subjects to understand the text “as they argue for particular versions [...] show how meaning is gradually built during a conversation” (Séguinot,2000, p.146.Qtd in Pavlovic, 2007).

Thanks to its very “interactive” nature, the dialogue protocol leads subjects to “express, comment and even justify their strategies in the process of negotiating solutions for problems without the need for external intervention or prior training in the think-aloud technique” (Barbosa & Neiva 2003, p. 52.Qtd in Pavlovic, 2007). So, dialogue or “collaborative” protocols are expected to provide a way out of those controversies and criticism; they are also expected to provide rich data in novice translators in our study. In fact, pair work in translation task fitted our study, particularly in master students of translation more than in professors; students are used to collaborative work in translation classes. As a result, no further training was required for this study. The experiment was rather a natural situation for them and, therefore, data was spontaneous and plentiful.

There are, however, problems with dialogue protocols. Normally, one is supposed to find out what goes on in a translator’s mind not two translators’ minds. For this reason, Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, (1995) remarked that “we record thoughts that would never have occurred to a single translator. This is true, but even if we use monologue protocols, we eventually may not want to find out what went on in one mind, but rather to draw conclusions from our observations of a sample of minds” (Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995).

Another problem with dialogue protocol is related to the “psychodynamic” interaction situations that happen between the subjects. This is what Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit (1995) termed “group-dynamic processes” that may distort the data. The term “psychodynamic” refers to the fact that one of the pair (subjects) may be a leader not because he or she is better than the other; but because of personality characteristics. Therefore, solutions to translation problems “may be accepted not because they are better but because they are proposed by the most dynamic person” (Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995). This is emphasized by the study done by Pavlovic (2007, p. 47), she found that “collaborative translation protocols are not think aloud protocols in the strict sense as they include both social interaction and thinking aloud and as subjects verbalize their thoughts spontaneously, testing different ideas. This method has its own disadvantages, such as a considerable degree of rationalization (subjects justify their decisions,

explain their choices, etc.) or the dependence on the interpersonal relations between the subjects” (Pavlović, 2013, p. 552) Likewise, a subject may “hold back his or her ideas for reasons of politeness” (Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995) or people’s decisions are sometimes guided by what is called a “feel-good” criterion. “Depending on the cultural norms, social situation, and/or personality traits, this may take the shape of either exaggerating one’s superiority over others”(Wilson, 2002, p.38.Qtd in Pavlovic, 2007).

In the analysis of the protocols, in master students of translation, this study attempted to observe only the processes where both subjects showed equal efforts to solve translation problems and where the process was achieved without extra-arguments of one of the subjects. One way of reducing the problems, the study has chosen “matching subjects, that is, subjects where there is no psychological or social superiority of one over the other and where temperaments are fairly similar” (Kussmaul, & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995). Furthermore, this study has relied on both monologue protocols in professors and dialogue protocols in students.

2. Aim

The aim of this study is to apply TAPs on students and professors of translation to observe their cognitive processes and behaviors during translation tasks. The study, specifically, attempts to observe and compare students’ dialogue protocols as opposed to professors’ monologue protocols to come up with better translation methods that would contribute to the teaching of translation. The study will, thus, provide some tentative, pedagogical recommendations for more advanced and effective teaching of translation. Knowing what is going on in the mind of the translators such as decision making, problem solving and decoding cultural aspects while translating will serve better in the assessment of translation rather than the traditional evaluation of translation as a product. In fact, this method might enable students or teachers of translation to develop a critical attitude towards their ideas, recognize good solutions and discard unsatisfactory ones while translating.

This study will also provide students with better, practical method(s) of tackling translation; in fact, the processes leading to creative solutions obtained from professors, during their think- aloud protocol, can be used as models of successful translating. So, this study is not only a data collecting method, but also it is also a classroom technique which would help students “construct their own understanding in group and in joint translation with their teachers; [it is] a useful technique in helping students have active participation in class, and helping them self-understand, self-discover and self-construct their own knowledge” (Baghiat Esfahani, 2015, P.86). The outcome of this study will, therefore, be open and applicable for future researches to find out whether the provided recommendations would be successful in teaching translation.

This study will, therefore, answer the following questions:

- a) What are the cognitive behaviors (e.g. problem solving) of students of translation?
- b) What are the cognitive behaviors of professors of translation?

3. Key issues investigated in this study

Translation processes

Translation processes are defined as a series of strategic actions and behaviors that translators adopt to render the source text into the target text “in accordance with the translation assignment, from the moment they start working until they finish” (Hansen, 2003, p 26.Qtd in Pavlovic, 2007). So, all the following issues such as solving translation problems, automaticity,

(non)linearity and verbalization length, unit choice, subjects' actions and behaviors are all part of translation process.

Translation problems

Translation problems are "any word or phrase in the text, or any aspect of such a word or phrase, which is verbalized by any single participant and for which he or she expresses any degree of doubt about its proper translation [...] or for which the translator considers more than one possible translation" (Lorenzo, 1999, p. 128. Qtd in Pavlovic, 2007).

A problem can be clearly identified by a subject for example when he or she asks "how can we translate the word *yaidān* into English?". Problems can be also inferred when some tentative solutions are provided as a translation for one element (see appendix D for more examples about subjects verbalizations).

Subjects, mainly trainees have encountered a Variety of problems such as: Orthographical problems, Morphological problems, Syntactic problems, Textual problems. Our main focus in this study is the investigation of lexical problems in both trainees and professionals.

Lexical problems

This category is defined as "a situation in which the subjects are weighing one word or phrase against another or others, as they attempt to decide on the right word or phrase that would fit their target text vision" (Pavlovic, 2007). Cultural specific terms are included in this category.

Solutions provided by subjects

This study has adopted Pavlovic's (2007) classification of solutions provided by subjects. Solutions, in our study, can be, then, divided into four categories:

Tentative solutions

It is any portion or aspect of the target text provided by the subjects "as a possible way to resolve a problem" (Pavlovic, 2007).

Solutions based on internal resources

Some solutions have been proposed "spontaneously" based on "internal resources," of subjects. Internal resources are defined by Pavlovic's (2007) as subjects' "past experiences, competences and knowledge stored in the long-term memory" (Pavlovic, 2007).

Solutions based on external resources

Other subjects provide alternatives based on "external resources" (Pavlovic, 2007). External resources are source of aid such as dictionaries, software and internet.

Selected solutions

They are defined by Pavlovic (2007) as "any segment or aspect of the target text selected by the translator(s) as the final translation of a problem"; they are the versions that the subjects submit at the end of the experiment.

Automaticity

Automaticity is the process of performing a translation task in a spontaneous way without great effort or without being stopped by translation problems. This makes the subject control his or her processes “nearly automatically” (Bernardini, 2001).

(Non)- linear processes in translation

Linearity” is the process of proceeding in an organized manner in solving translation problems and providing equivalences, whereas “non-linearity” is a non-ordered way of progressing while rendering a text (Schmidt, 2005).

Verbalizations

Verbalizations are the verbal reports of subjects’ thoughts either during their monologue protocols (in professionals) or dialogue protocols (in trainees) (see section above about dialogue protocol method versus monologue protocol).

Translation units

Translation units are defined as a “linguistic level, word, terms, smaller than the sentence level and bigger than the term level as clauses, phrases and so on, sentence level and beyond the level of sentence” (Baghiat Esfahani, 2015, P.88). According to past studies (e.g. Fraser, 1996; Tirkkonen-Condit, 2000) students translators used word levels, whereas professional translators adopted sentence and beyond the sentence level (Baghiat Esfahani, 2015, P.88).

4. Methodology***Participants***

The target population in this study is:

5 male and female professors of translation with a good academic and professional experience; they are all from Morocco.

- 6 master students of translation from Chouaib Doukkali University - El Jadida, Morocco (5 females and 1 male). (class of 2008)

- 6 master students of translation from Hassan the Second University- Mouhammadia, Morocco (4 males and 2 females). (class of 2008)

Observation

Adopting Lauffer’s (2002) method in direct observation, the undertaken study was conducted in two ways. First, notes were taken and the overall process was observed. Second, the performances of subjects were recorded by a video camera so as to be analyzed in closer detail. The camera was used to record facial expressions and body language since they are indicators of mental processes.

Retrospective interview

Apart from the introspective types of data, the study also resorted to retrospective interviews. They are reports in the form of post-process elicitations such as questionnaires about actions that were performed. In these reports, subjects were asked about how they felt about their translation (Williams, 2002, p. 31). This method is usually used immediately after Think Aloud Protocols (Honig, 1988; Kiraly, 1990; Kalina, 1991. Qtd in Kussmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995).

Transcription

The collaborative protocols of students, which were recorded on video, were transcribed before they were analyzed. “That is a lot of work, which is why studies based on verbal protocols usually do not involve very large samples. This does not necessarily invalidate a study” (Pavlovic, 2007). Bernardini’s (2001) method “coding” (a way of linking ideas together to make sense of the data) has been used to compile the “raw” protocols that do not make sense.

Text used

Most texts dealt with in the past research were paragraphs from newspapers. Unlike the past studies, our research puts much focus on text type since it is a major element that can trigger the mental behavior of translators. For example, the difficulties encountered in translating a cultural specific term can be a stimulus to the translator’s decision making and strategic problem solving.

Usually texts that are chosen to be translated in TAPs experiments are texts translated in real life or professional reality (Kusmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995). In our study, subjects were asked to translate a text from a tourism brochure about the Moussem (festival) of Moulay Abdellah Amghar in El Jadida, Morocco (festival of a saint called Abdellah Amghar); the text has to be translated from Arabic into English. The text includes some cultural specific words such as names of places: *Tit-an-fitar*, *Tit*, *Ribat*, and religious words such as: *ṣaḥr*, *At-taḥawuf*, *Nuskan*, *Zuhd*, *Al-kara:ma*.

Data analysis

This study is based on quantitative and qualitative methods of research since they both complement each other. In fact, there were specific aspects of translation processes that were easier to quantify such as the number of problems that subjects encountered while translating a text and the number of useful solutions that were found. However, other aspects, such as subjects’ thoughts, were not measurable. So, they were treated qualitatively.

5. Results and Discussion**Lexical problems in translation task**

In the comparison of translation processes of students (who worked collaboratively) and professors of translation (who worked individually), students verbalized a high number of lexical problems (between 9.64 % and 12.42 %). However, professors produced less verbalization of problems (between 3.55 % and 7.73%). Students were more preoccupied with lexis and attempted to render all lexical items. On the other hand, professors tended to be more strategic; they provided the general meaning of phrases or sentences. Students stopped at each problem they encountered; they mentioned clearly and “in a natural way” the problems they faced during their translation. For instance, the trainee (Y.T, a master student in Mouhammadia, Morocco) tended to stop at each difficult word (e.g. *Taqṣuṭ* which means frugality in English) and repeat it nearly four or five times trying to find an equivalent. This led his partner to carry on repeating the same word. While students displayed a clear and direct way of reporting the problems, professors did not verbalize most of the problems they encountered; most of them mentioned very few words at the end of the task. Some professors (e.g. J.P.M) displayed a kind of hesitation to talk about the problems they encountered during translation.

Tentative solutions

The study revealed that students provided higher numbers of spontaneous (internal) solutions than professors. This small number of tentative solutions is related to the small number of lexical problems that professors encountered. While, almost all tentative solutions of professors of translation came from internal resources, students' tentative solutions came from both internal and external resources. Students largely relied on external solutions to complement their internal resources and to expand the number of their tentative solutions. The large number of tentative solutions they provided was related to unfamiliar words such as cultural specific terms or words which they did not come across in all their tasks of translation in the class. They showed their ignorance of these difficult words; they became aware of their ignorance and got sensitive of any difficult words they encountered. As a result, their problem processing was time-consuming as they spent much time discussing their solutions. For instance, the trainees (Y.A and N.A) provided three spontaneous solutions "eye, stream, water outlet" for the word "Aynun". Likewise, the trainees (H.KH and M.W) came up with three spontaneous solutions "Austerity, frugality, humility" for the word "Taqa[uf". They checked these words in the dictionary. Still, they were not able to come up with a final decision.

On the contrary, the professors displayed higher fluency and spontaneity in translation than students; they applied routine task approach on the difficult words they encountered. Their familiarity with such lexical problems led them to "problematize" little. They, therefore, provided less alternatives (solutions) to these problems; for example, one professional and professor of translation (subject 2) came up only with one spontaneous solution "spring" for the Arabic word "aynun". Similarly, a professor (subject 4) provided the word "modesty" for "Taqa[uf". Most professors did not show any hesitation in selecting these words as equivalents. They also did not show any need to check these words in external references. Moreover, they did not spend much time thinking to find out the solutions for these words; their familiarity with the task helped them translate quickly and effortlessly.

Selected solutions

Students selected solutions from internal resources as well as external resources far more often than professors. Most of the time professors tended to suggest only one equivalent such as "spiritual power" for the Arabic word "Al-kara:ma:t". At other times, they tended to provide no more than two spontaneous alternatives such as "savage area and jungle", "wild and fearful" as an equivalent to the Arabic word "Mu:hi[an". They did not spend much time in selecting one solution as a final equivalent. Students, on the other hand, showed hesitation and uncertainty in selecting the final equivalents; they tended to provide three or four solutions for one problem and spend much time discussing and monitoring their choices. For instance, pair 3 suggested three spontaneous solutions "Existed, located, built" for the Arabic word "ixtat[at", but they were not satisfied with their choice; they decided to check the word first in the dictionary, then in Google translation. They came up with other external solutions "charted, mapped". They did not find the words from external resources appropriate equivalents. So, they returned back to the first three suggestions and selected the word "built". Still, they showed hesitation and uncertainty about the selected word "built".

Accordingly, the study deduced that the role of external resources was monitoring the output of students; external resources helped students in making final decisions about their word

choice. In other words, external resources were more useful in confirming the solutions than in finding solutions and “getting ideas”. Professor’s spontaneity in translation (with the exception of subject 4) confirms the idea that spontaneity in translation is related to proficiency and familiarity with a task.

Automaticity

The qualitative study of novice and professors of translation showed that professionals and teachers translated more automatically than students. The study, then, deduced that automaticity results from experience and proficiency in the task of translation. There were only few instances of conscious control of problems that professors encountered and, thus, a very small amount of verbalization. Students, however, performed their tasks non-automatically; they solved their problems consciously. They, therefore, provided rich amount of verbalization.

Linearity versus Non-linearity

Looking at the protocols of students and professors of translation, the study found that non-linearity in solving translation problems is not related to experience. On the contrary, the majority of professors progressed in a linear way since most of them were translating spontaneously and effortlessly. The study, therefore, confirmed that there is a relationship between professors’ familiarity with a task and linearity in translation. On the other hand, there was no consistency among students; some of them proceeded in a linear manner in solving translation problems while others progressed in a non-linear manner.

Translation units

The results of the study confirmed the idea that the length of translation units is an indication of proficiency. Professional translators rendered larger units such as sentences and discourse. They displayed proficiency features when they focused on large units of translation and decision-making. Students, however, adopted a “form-oriented” approach; they preserved single words of the source text.

Translator’s behaviours

Students’ behaviours in the process of translation were different from professors. They spent much time discussing problems and proposing tentative solutions. They left some gaps about cultural aspects in the target text to check them on the internet or in the dictionary. They frequently confirmed tentative solutions, produced spontaneously, in external resources. Their verbalization was richer than professors especially those related to tentative solutions. The students’ translation process was less linear than professors since it took them much time to finish the task. There were a few periods of silence among novice than in professors.

In dialogue protocols, students felt that the experiment was rather a natural situation for them which, therefore, helped the study obtain a rich and plentiful data. On the other hand, monologue protocols of professors were not as successful as dialogue protocols; individuals were most of the time silent. As a result, the data was poor.

Post-translation results

Students expressed their dissatisfaction with lexical items of the source text paragraph, mainly specific cultural words. This supported our protocol data that showed that lexical problems were

the main difficulties that prevented the subjects from proceeding in a spontaneous way in the process of translation.

6. Recommendations for translations training

Strategic verses non-strategic practices

Novice translators working on translation from Arabic into English (touristic) texts encountered similar problems (mainly cultural) and responded to them with similar “non-strategic” procedures motioned in the above summary. Most of their “non-strategic” behaviours can be summarized in their frequent preoccupation with lexis, their progress in a “form-oriented” or “local” manner, their excessive use of external resources, their frequent postponements of solutions and waste of time in long discussions of problems. This affected the quality of their translation.

Unlike students, professors displayed successful procedures that led to a better translation. They displayed conscious decision-making. They frequently progressed in “global”, “sense-oriented” method which was more useful than “local” decisions; they did not translate sentence by sentence. They dropped unnecessary details. They did not spend much time reading, identifying, discussing problems and monitoring tentative solutions. They did not rely on excessive use of external resources to provide selected solutions. Their process of translation was more spontaneous.

So, these “strategic” translation practices of professors are recommended to be applied in translation training (teaching). Instead of focusing on translating small units, students should be better trained on translating larger units and leave unnecessary detail. Furthermore, students should be trained on spontaneous way of translating; this way, they might become used to spend less time in monitoring the solutions (of translation problems). Through spontaneous manner of translating, students might become independent from the excessive use of external resources (dictionaries, online resources and softwares) in selecting final solutions. To fulfil such trainings, teachers of translation should devote class sessions in which students should be given texts from different genres to translate without the use of references. The focus should be on developing students’ inferencing during a translation task but not on the final product (the translated text).

Accessibility to cognitive processes

The results revealed that cognitive processes of students were more accessible than professors; in fact, dialogue protocols and collaborative work of students led to a large amount of useful verbalizations. One managed to get most of students’ heeded information in their short memory. One, therefore, managed to get to the main behaviours of students during the process of translation. On the contrary, the cognitive processes of professors were mostly inaccessible; they did not provide much data. As a result we learned few behaviours and strategies in translation (mentioned above).

Through this comparison, the study deduced that accessibility to cognitive processes is related to collective protocols while inaccessibility to cognitive processes is linked to individual tasks of translation. If this conclusion is correct, one recommends that these strong points of collaboration in translation should be used in professional translators in order to access most of their cognitive behaviours during translation process. That is to say, researchers should use

dialogue think aloud protocols in professionals instead of monologue think aloud protocols to elicit better translation strategies and practices and, therefore, apply them on students.

Collaborative work in translation versus individual translation

Collaborative translation might help students of translation in terms of target text quality because students working as pairs or as a group suggest more solutions to choose from. They also provide a sophisticated system of monitoring those solutions. This way, students might acquire from each other different methods of monitoring, enferencing, decision-making and problem solving while translating. This, therefore, might be particularly beneficial for acquiring competence in language two (L2) translations.

The kind of collaborative work in translation that this study recommends refers to group tasks involving only L2. In such collective work, trainees of translation may help each other to solve the weaknesses that are related to L2 translation. This kind of collaborative translation may provide good preparation for individual translation that will take place later in the course of their professional careers. That is to say, translators who have been taught to think collectively may internalize the skills that they acquired and may apply them in their future career.

Another aspect of collaborative translation that should be taken advantage of in the teaching of translation is the fact that translation trainees learn from each other about useful resources. In fact, it was especially interesting to see the translation trainees show one another how certain recourses, such as electronic tools, could be used more profitably. Furthermore, the use of collaborative translation in the class may help students learn how to be open to critical remarks and suggestions from each other and how to be critical and ready to express their disagreement. This may, therefore, promote their self-confidence in performing translation takes in the future.

Familiarity with a text type

Professors who are familiar with this genre of texts (suggested by the author of this study) performed better than students who have never experienced this type of texts. The study, then, concluded that there is a relationship between the quality of translation and familiarity with a text type. The study suggested that translation training at the university should include a variety of texts from everyday life to be translated (e.g. newspapers, websites, brochures). Students should experience a wide variety of texts from a real context of translation (e.g. companies, agencies of translation) throughout their years of training. Their translations should range from fast performance tasks to long term assignments that require their responsibility, search for information, consultation with experts of all kinds, and responsibility for the final product.

7. Possible avenues for further research

There are many possible ways in which the present study could be replicated in the following ways:

Future research could use collective TAPs dialogue protocols of professionals instead of the use of individual protocols of professors. In fact, Monologue protocols, in which the subject talks to himself, proved to be unnatural and inaccessible to the translation process in this study. On the contrary, dialogue protocols, in which subjects work collectively, have provided richer data since this resembled “real life” activities. Therefore, another study is required to elicit more

strategic procedures in solving translation problems and, thus, answer the following question: What are the mental processes of professionals in a collective translation?

Future research could also use different directions of translation from Language1 to Language2 and from Language2 to Language1 in students of translation to answer the questions: Are cognitive translation processes in the two directions different? If so, in what ways exactly, and to what extent do they differ? How can we study these cognitive processes, and how can we measure the differences?

About the Author:

Karima BOUZIANE is an Assistant Professor and researcher at National School of Commerce and Management, Chouaib Doukkali University. She holds a Doctorate degree in Translation Studies and Intercultural Communication from Chouaib Doukkali University, El Jadida, Morocco. She also holds a Master's Degree in Cross-cultural Communication and Translation Studies from the Department of English of the same university. She is author of the book: *Cultural Transfer in the Translation of Advertising from English into Arabic*.

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Teaching Academic Writing to Undergraduate Saudi students: Problems and Solutions – A King Saud University perspective

Nasser Saleh Al-Mansour

Department of Linguistics and Translation Studies
College of Languages and Translation
King Saud University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

This study aims at investigating the effect of academic writing on the writing performance of Saudi EFL university students. The study also reveals and points out the recurring learning problems that undermine the ability and interest of the students at the College in the way of acquiring a good writing skill and becoming successful translators. The sample of the study consisted of 68 students randomly chosen from King Saud University- College of languages and Translation- and assigned to experimental and control groups of 34 students each. Data of the study were collected within two months period via a pre-posttest design for equivalent groups. The control group was taught by the regular teacher with the direct administration of the researcher, however, the experiment group was taught by the researcher. The researcher assessed the effect of teaching academic writing on the writing performance of the Saudi EFL university students. Results showed that the experiment group outperformed the control group on the measure. This indicated that using academic writing may have a significant positive effect on learners' writing performance. Implications and suggestions for further research are reported.

Key Words: academic writing, Saudi EFL university students, writing performance, writing skill

Introduction and Background**What is academic writing?**

Academic writing is a genre of writing that represents the views and beliefs of a writer on a given subject. But at the same time it is not a subjective and unsubstantiated set of statements. The writer has the freedom to recount or discuss his personal experiences and that discussion or description must necessarily be supported by considerable observational experiences. Even when it exposes the writer's thinking, this kind of writing does so with a host of references, information, and evidence to support it. These essential and obligatory aids are details and particulars garnered from books, information technologies, academic discussions, or observations. It is never a surreal, subjective description. It is scholarly in its presentation and purport, and this is what makes it academic. In fact the benchmark for academic writing is its systematic presentation of thoughts and experiences, and penchant for logic and reasoning. In this respect, what needs to be elucidated is that academic writing is a quite different form of writing as compared to the other forms that exist concurrent with it.

Though it stresses on a more formal style of writing, according to Hayland (2002):

Academic writing is not just about conveying an ideational 'content', it is also about the representation of self. Recent research has suggested that academic prose is not completely impersonal, but that writers gain credibility by projecting an identity invested with individual authority, displaying confidence in their evaluations and commitment to their ideas. (p. 1091)

What Hayland (2002) stresses on is that academic writing is not a faceless discourse. But what is important is that the discourse is supported by tangible details and information. And in this it protects its formal style. In addition to this, what sets academic writing apart from other genres of writing is its reliance on content and style. In matter of style it abjures the use of personal pronouns to a great extent. Hashimoto et al (1982) believes that academic writing depends on facts and information for its content in contrast with the personal writing which carries personal contents and depends on the writer's personal opinions or experiences.

The audience and organization are other aspects of the differences between academic and non-academic writing styles. In relation to what has been mentioned above, specific types of audience, usually teachers and scholars are considered the audience of academic writing. Conversely, personal writing is written for non-academic purposes and audience. The structure in which ideas are organized is also a recognizable aspect of academic writing. In this style, ideas are well planned and usually put in a specific order in paragraphs and in complete and comprehensive sentences. These ideas, involved in paragraphs, are perfectly connected, whereas personal writing style is less likely to follow any specific structure, therefore no much coherence can be realize in this style.

In order to strike a comparison between academic and other forms of writing it is important to understand the fundamental and structural differences that separate each of them from one another. Vasquez (2013), while striking a comparison between academic and business writing, construes that business writing depends on sheer facts as its content, which is why it has to be concise with short, simple sentences without any elaborate structure, and a limited and core vocabulary. This is because business writing is meant to retell the facts directly and concisely. In contrast academic writing often

uses an elaborate structure and an extensive range of vocabulary. The intent of such writing is the development of thought and not a presentation of facts only.

Likewise, there are some crucial differences between academic writing and journalistic writing. A clarification on those differences is needed in order to understand full well the name and nature of academic writing, and usefulness for students of translation. Knight (2010) likens the structure of journalistic writing to an inverted pyramid, where the essence of the article is placed at the beginning. The first paragraph, in such writing, holds the most important information as the goal of the writing is to attract readers. The other details follow afterwards. And the article stops when the information to be disseminated ends. Not so in academic writing. In academic writing the reader has to fish into the depth of the article to discover the important information, hidden among clusters of out of the ordinary words and complex sentence structures. So journalistic writing has what is generally called a top-heavy style. But Journalistic writing has to be simpler and more accessible to the general public than academic writing. Academic writing is structured and depends on paragraphs that carry topic sentences and supporting sentences.

Elements of academic writing

As opposed to personal writing discourses, academic writing deals with the investigation and analysis of experiences and beliefs howsoever personal they are. With this basic concept in mind, there are certain elements that become necessary ingredients of academic writing. This kind of writing has to follow certain governing rules and practices, and lays stress on the structural aspects of punctuation, grammar, and spelling. Swales (2005) holds the belief that since punctuation and the conventions of grammar are universally known systems within English speaking cultures they are used to express clarity of thought and content and prevent the element of ambiguity from entering into the written text.

Academic writing requires certain amount of planning and organization. Written ideas and experiences must be organized around a formal order or structure, and they must be supported by references. In addition to that the physical structure of the academic writing demands the division of the written discourse into the beginning, the middle, and the end. The beginning works as an introduction and it informs about the topic; the middle is the body that explains, elucidates, and analytically discusses the topic; and the end is the conclusion which summarizes whatever was discussed earlier. A proper outline or summary, formal tone, a precise language, presentation of the point of view in the third person, analysis of the facts presented, deductive reasoning, avoiding slangs and abbreviations, referencing, and shaping ideas and concepts in a concrete language with apt words and phrases are some of the salient features of academic writing. Set against these perspectives the importance of academic writing acquires a twofold value with regard to its instruction to students of translation. This aspect will be discussed in the following pages, and supported by literature studies, and the experimental tests below.

Statement of the problem

From this researcher's personal experience and observation, many university professors complain about EFL students' inability to organize their ideas logically, their lack of suitable information to cover the assigned topics, their poor vocabulary, their structure and spelling mistakes, and their writing patterns. Moreover, Saudi EFL students also complain about being unable to write efficiently. The researcher also notices that most students get low grades in their writing exams. Therefore, the need arises to investigate this problem that faces those who work in the field of English language

teaching at the university level in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and find solutions to it. The researcher also suggests a technique to develop students' writing ability. He believes that using teaching English academic writing skills may have a significant role in helping students develop their writing skill.

Significance of the study

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. The rationale of the present study is to evaluate the significance and efficacy of teaching academic writing to translation students, to answer questions as to the problems that language teachers and their Arab students face in the teaching and acquisition of academic writing, and to provide a road map for its successful acquisition. To the best knowledge of the researcher, this is the first attempt to determine whether or not Saudi EFL university students' writing performance significantly improves when they are exposed to an academic writing program. Therefore, it is hoped that:

- (1) The students will be able to produce meaningful writing paragraphs, essays, letters, reports, short stories, articles, compositions, and summaries, and the reading program may help to determine students' progress in previously mentioned skills as well as their mastery of the writing sub-skills such as thesis statement, relevance, coherence, cohesion, exposition, quantity, unity, wording, and grammaticality.
- (2) It will help researchers involved in the educational process gain insights into academic writing and its effect on writing skill and seek to improve it overtime.
- (3) It may encourage further research, which in turn, may lead to the enrichment of the field of academic writing and its effect on writing skill in general and language teaching and learning in particular.
- (4) It will help teachers to better understand the issue and integrate it into their classroom routine in general and in the writing class in particular.
- (5) The findings of this study may be able to open the mind of the students towards the importance of academic writing programs to improve their writing performance.

Objective of the study

EFL university learners are required to write reports, research papers, summaries, and essay examinations to show that they know and understand the thoughts of others and can synthesize the new knowledge into their own thinking. Their success is determined by how effectively meaning is conveyed. The ability to produce well-written articles enhances their academic success. Therefore, students should be taught and trained on how to produced well-organized writings.

Therefore, the present study attempts to examine the effects and advantages of teaching English academic writing skills to undergraduate students of English language and translation. The nature of the topic dictates the significance of the subject matter under discussion.

Hypothesis of the study

This study attempts to test the following hypothesis:

Using academic writing has a positive effect on the writing achievement of Saudi EFL university students and eventually leads to developing all areas of language competence.

Question of the study

The present study attempts to answer the following question:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the achievement of the experiment group and that of the control group due to the treatment?

Variables of the study

The variables of the present study include the following:

- The independent variable is the method of teaching which has two levels, the academic writing program and the traditional method.
- The dependant variable is the students' performance in writing.

Limitations of the study

The generalizability of the findings of this study may be limited by the following:

- This study is restricted to two groups of students at the College of Languages and Translation at King Saud University.
- The findings are bound by the time limit for the period in which the study was conducted.
- Females were not included in the present study.

Review of related literature

Research studies have documented and proved the importance of academic writing in language acquisition, and current studies have explored and focused on the viability and success of teaching academic writing to students of bilateral translation. These studies have invariably and empirically represented how the different structural and contextual elements of academic writing help a student of translation in overcoming language difficulties and produce accurate and faithful translation in second language.

Elucidating the importance of academic writing Koltay (1998) pronounces that academic writing widen translation students' professional horizon. It allows them to become acquainted with the characteristics of a number of new genres and equips them with the necessary skills to produce texts corresponding to these genres. By designing a number of assignments in which they have to decide what is really important in a text and what is not, writing instruction can be formed in such a way that students concentrate on the notion of the importance of information.

Often translators have to undertake such scholastic activities that demand substantial language skills, and their encounter with a new text in a new language they have just acquired develops their vocabulary in the target language. Academic writing makes them capable of using that vocabulary in abstracting the original text in the target language. In fact, abstracting or synopsis is an important element of instruction in all writing courses. By teaching students how to write abstracts we will enrich their reading and writing ability, engaging them in an activity that is communicative and in which students apply knowledge previously acquired (Uso & Palmer, 1998). Abstracting, therefore, develops the students' rhetorical skills critical for a good and meaningful translation.

Smith (1995) believes that academic writing helps students in generating ideas, organizing information, setting writing goals, which in turn facilitate their translating and reviewing skills. The fact remains that academic writing skill may not necessarily help them attain mastery of a foreign language. But if properly taught and understood academic writing can considerably enhance their ability to translate. It is undoubtedly a special skill. People who speak a foreign language well are not

necessarily those who translate most effectively, although there is a correlation between knowledge of the foreign language and the capacity to translate.

Delcambre (2012) states that academic writing is described less as a singular activity than as plural practices, linked to sociological, historical, cultural backgrounds, writing being included in many other practices. Therefore, writing is not described as the very moment of transcribing but is integrated to a before and an after that determine the condition of possibility, the functions, the uses, the meaning and the values of the situation in which the writer is engaged.

Hashimoto (1982) describes academic writing as a “predominantly expository activity” that deals with such basic sentence level problems as dangling modifiers, subject verb agreement, faulty parallelism, or wordiness. These grammar activities are very important as they are basic to the structural and grammatical differences between two languages. The ability to ward off these language errors helps a translation a long way in avoiding like errors from occurring in the target language.

Kobayashi (1992) tests the impact of academic writing on translation performances, translating from Japanese into English, of some 48 Japanese students and discovered that in terms of quality of content, organization, and style, the writers tended to benefit from translation. He also noticed that as regards error frequency their skill in academic writing helped them in making errors less frequently than those who attempted translation without any acquisition of academic writing instructions.

Shih (2012) says that content-based academic writing instruction develops thinking, researching, and writing more realistically than does the traditional instruction that isolates rhetorical patterns and stresses writing from personal experience. It develops multi-skills needed for academic writing tasks and is enormously important for translation activities. It assumes further importance and urgency when the target language is both syntactically and semantically far removed from the translator’s first language, as it provides him with a wide range of style and architectonics of language.

Swales (2004) focuses on discourse and genre, exploring the types of organization and characteristic functions found in academic texts. Cognizant of the importance of academic writing and the ongoing changes in the nature of academic writing he believes that L2 writers should be empowered to use language effectively in real-world situations, and that giving them access to academic writing may aid in this process. In fact, it is the formalistic approach inherent in such genre of writing that comes to the help of translators in a big way. It removes the error of abstractions and vagueness from the translators mind and provides him with language tools that make his job palpable and authentic.

Uzawa (1996) compares second language learners' L1 writing, L2 writing, and translation from L1 into L2, focusing on writing and translating processes, attention patterns, and quality of language use. He found that (a) most students used a “what-next” approach both in the L1 and L2 writing tasks and a “sentence-by-sentence” approach in the translation task, (b) attention patterns in the L1 and L2 writing tasks were very similar, but quite different in the translation task. Attention to language use in the translation task was significantly higher than in the L1 and L2 writing tasks and, (c) scores on language use in the L1 and L2 writing tasks were similar, but scores on language use in the translation task were significantly better than in the L2 writing task.

In his research paper on ‘The Effect of an Extensive Reading Program on the Writing Performance of Saudi EFL Students, Saudi students’ Al-Mansour & Al-Shorman (2014) stresses upon the significance of teaching writing, academic writing to be sure as it appears from his remarks, and writes,

Writing is a powerful means of communication by which students learn better to express themselves. Teaching and learning to write in any language is an essential area that influences student performances and language learning. Moreover, learning to write in English as a foreign language has been an essential professional educational issue that serves various educational purposes and meets certain learning needs upon which the foreign language learner’s progress depends. (p. 248)

Such phrases as “various educational purposes” and “learning needs”, in the above passage, are logically indicative of the skill of translation. And the essence of the observation is academic writing skill empowers students and L2 learners to perform multi-layered language tasks.

Al-Fadda (2012) observes that academic writing addresses the intellectual community and therefore it follows certain rules and regulations as regards its structure and content as also its discourse. Its success depends on the students’ ability to access, evaluate, and synthesize the words, ideas, and opinions of others. These are exactly the set of rules and technicalities that a student of translation has to follow in order to make his translation meaningful and reliable.

The literature study undertaken in the above pages shows clearly the close knit bond that exists between the skill of academic writing and that of translation. It is, therefore, quite safe and not quite out of place and tune to build upon the above observations and findings and establish the thesis that teaching of academic writing is of paramount importance for those students who are studying their translation courses.

The present study is similar to the reviewed studies in the general aim of investigating the effect of academic writing on the writing performance of Saudi EFL university students. However, the effect of academic writing on Saudi EFL university students has not received much attention in the literature. Therefore, this fact empowered the researcher to focus the attention of the study on the effect of academic writing on the writing performance of Saudi EFL university students.

Method, sample, instrument and procedures

The subject of this applied research based study to assess, signify, and quantify the importance of teaching academic writing to and its usefulness for prospective translators, were the students of translation courses at the College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University. These students were selected following a randomized control-group pretest-post test design. The subjects of the study were then randomly divided into two groups, i.e. control group and experimental group. The teaching, instruction, and testing of both the groups were carried out with blending the use of technology along with the traditional approach, computers and classrooms. The experimental group was imparted instructions using the two approaches simultaneously. The control group was not exposed to any specific academic writing program. The experimental group used the computers for three 45-minute periods a week for the six-week duration of the experiment. Both groups were subjected to a pretest immediately before starting the experiment and the same test was administered as a posttest immediately after it.

The population of the study consisted of all students who studied the English language undergraduate course in translation, in the second semester of the academic year 2014-2015. The sample of the study consisted of 69 students who were chosen randomly through the random sampling techniques in the statistical package SPSS. Then the 69 students were randomly assigned into experimental group (34 students) and control group (35 students).

In order to collect the data of the study, the researcher used two instruments: an instructional program and an achievement test.

A-The instructional program

Instructions

Task 1 – Brainstorming

A spontaneous group discussion to produce ideas and ways of solving writing problems which is called brainstorming was held in two ways: students were put into small groups, given the topic and a time limit and told to write their ideas down – then all the groups ideas were pulled together; and then the brainstorming was held as a whole class activity with students shouting out their ideas and the teacher writing these ideas on the board.

This brainstorming technique was utilized to ensure that most students participate, and that the pace remains high.

Task 2 – Speed writing

For this activity, students were given a limited time period to collate their ideas write them down. They were warned to concentrate on ideas, not on language, grammar or punctuation. They were then asked to write without pausing or correcting their mistakes. Next, as a group the students were asked to work through the text correcting mistakes, changing punctuation, translating words or phrases into English, or fill in the blanks.

Task 3 – Loop writing

It was discovered during the speed writing that students had produced lots of ideas, but they needed to be looped into a complete coherent text. Loop writing is a way of ensuring paragraphs link together forming a coherent text. They were asked to summarize the each paragraph in a sentence and were then trained to start the next paragraph with that sentence. Use the sentence that summarizes the second paragraph as the start of the third paragraph. They were instructed to continue the activity until they completed the writing.

Task 4 – Translating Formal Texts

After the writing instructions students were asked to translate small formal texts into L2 with the techniques and tools they had learnt in their writing lessons. They were asked to follow the rules for both vocabulary and grammatical differences between formal and informal English, which they could take away with them and apply elsewhere. They were encouraged to do their translation assignments as homework and present them in the next class for another brainstorming and error analysis. They were given the following features of language and asked to follow the Anglo Saxon words and sentence constructions which endow both writing and translation with concrete cohesive meaning. Table 1 shows some features of formal and informal English.

Table 1

Some Formal and Informal English

Formal features	Informal features
Vocabulary items	
Latin based words	Anglo Saxon words (phrasal verbs)
Uncommon words	Common words
Punctuation	
Full words	Abbreviations
	Contractions
Grammar	
Passive constructions	Active constructions
Noun phrases	Verb phrases
Complex sentences	Simple sentences

Alternatively, after the lesson, give out a list like the one above and get students to find examples from the text for homework.

B. The achievement test

The Achievement test commonly referred to as norm referenced test (NRT) was used to measure student achievement. These are standardized tests and therefore have a specific set of criteria that must be followed in order to classify as such a test. A time limit of two hours was enforced for each test, and the subject matter tested was the same for all students taking the test, providing the same directions for all.

The questions on the standardized achievement tests were written by professional educators and teachers. A pilot test was given to specific groups of students in order to determine if test items were too easy or too difficult. Pilot studies were carried out to make certain that test items were suitable and that student scores spread on a continuum from low to high. This was conducted to ensure that tests reflect the curriculum taught in the classroom as closely as possible.

A cut-off point of sixty percent was defined at which students either pass or fail a standardized test. The cut-off point was used to provide a means to compare between individuals and groups of students. Much careful consideration was given to assessing the placement of the cut-off point.

Findings

This study aims at investigating the ability and competence in translation of undergraduate students of translation who had received formal instructions in academic writing skill. This section represents the findings as guided by the hypotheses of the study.

The data were collected through a pretest-treatment-posttest design for equivalent groups and analyzed via the statistical package SPSS. An independent-samples t test was carried out to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the achievements of the two groups on the pretest. Table 2 represents the results.

Table 2*Results of the t Test of the Means of the Achievement of the Two Groups on the pretest*

	Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	T	Sig.
PRETEST	Control Group	34	78.80	16.89	-0.161	0.873
	Experimental Group	34	79.52	14.76		

Table 2 shows that the difference between the achievement of both groups on the pretest is not statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Thus, since there is no statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups on the pretest, the two groups were assumed equivalent. Another independent-samples t test was conducted to determine whether or not there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups' achievement on the posttest. Table 3 shows the results.

Table 3*Results of the t Test of the Means of the Achievement of the Two Groups on the posttest*

	Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	T	Sig.
POSTTEST	Control Group	34	79.92	16.39	-2.058	0.045
	Experimental Group	34	89.00	10.80		

Table 3 shows that there is a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the achievement of the experimental group and that of the control group on the posttest in favor of the experimental group. This indicates that using the computer in English language instruction to the university students has a positive effect on students' achievement. The mean score for the experiment group on the posttest was 89.00 while that of the control group was 79.92.

Moreover, in spite of the fact that the difference between the achievement of the experimental group and the control group on the pretest was not statistically significant, to eliminate initial differences, a one-way ANCOVA was carried out. Table (3) shows the results.

Table 4*Results of the Test of Between-Subjects Effects*

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Means of Squa	F	Sig.

Pretest	8149.454	1	8149.454	349.352	0.000
Group	700.591	1	700.591	30.033	0.000
Error	1096.386	47	23.327		
Corrected T	10061.920	49			

Table 4 shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the control group on the posttest. The achievement of the experiment group, measured by the difference between the pretest and the posttest, was significantly better than that of the control group.

All of these studies invariably established the research aim that academic writing instructions went a long way in motivating and improving the translation abilities of students undertaking the undergraduate translation courses at the College of Languages and Translation.

Discussion

Students taking a course in translation are often faced with the difficulty of facing the social and cognitive challenges related to second language acquisition. It is a known fact that L1 models of writing instruction have been the theoretical basis for using the process approach in L2 writing pedagogy. However, language proficiency and competence essentially motivates the writing skill in the L2. And this is what helps the translated text in L2 appear as credible and original. It is, therefore, important that L2 writing instructors take into account both strategy development and language skill development when working with students. This paper explores the utility and effectiveness of the knowledge and expertise of academic writing in relation to second language translation. It can be argued that a focus on the academic writing process as a pedagogical tool is only appropriate methodology for preparing and honing the translation skills of students of translation if attention is given to linguistic development, and if learners are able to get sufficient and effective feedback with regard to their errors in writing.

Translating academic discourses in a second or foreign language seems to be the most difficult skill for language learners to acquire in academic contexts. While explicit instruction of strategies is not a usual practice in foreign language classrooms, it could be beneficial for students of translation. The findings in this study have some pedagogical implications for teaching translation skills and designing strategy-based syllabus leading to successful translation performance. The syllabus designed for teaching academic writing should correlate with the successful translation skills which would make language transfer an interesting and not-so-difficult task.

At the outset academic writing skill teaches explicit organization of ideas and arguments which gives it an explicit structure. This ability helps in the act of translation making it more meaningful and practical. Another aspect which was observed during class instructions and tests was that teaching academic writing helped students in writing clear, punchy, and compact sentences, removing foggy which often occurs during the act of translation. The essence of academic writing is to explain cause-and-effect in active voice avoiding the use of passive voice. That is, someone does something to something or someone for reasons you need to explain. A normal active voice sentence contains all elements of that causal chain. Here you have a clear causal relationship and some added information besides.

Academic writing lays considerable stress on avoiding awkward run-on sentences. It was discovered during class instructions that Saudi students were prone to translate word by word in the Arabic structural form into their English translation. For example, they heavily used the noun-adjective order of their L1 into the L2. This hampers the sentence structure in L2. This results in run-on subordinate clauses, and a missing antecedent, creating confusion about the referent. Another factor that interferes in translating Arabic text into English is the wordy prose – prose of excessive length. Academic writing, because of its stress on precision and brevity, teaches how to write crisp, effective sentences, just by substituting a vivid verb or noun for clunky adverbs, adjectives, or whole phrases. Another factor that interferes in the translation from Arabic into English is the repetition of ideas and arguments to make them sound stronger. It is accepted in Arabic but in English repetition is counted as redundancy. Academic writing teaches the translation students to avoid this error which was found recurrently in students of the Translation courses at the College of Languages and Translation.

One very interesting feature that occurred during this research and which underscores the basic difference between Arabic and English sentences structures was that indefinite article does not exist in Arabic, leading to its omission when English requires it. There is a definite article but its use is not identical with the use of the definite article in English. In particular, Arab learners have problems with genitive constructions such as the boy's dog. In Arabic this would be expressed as Dog the boy, which is how such constructions may be conveyed into English. Students of translation were found to commit the error off and on. Instructions and training in Academic writing tuned them to the structural formalism of the English language which helped them approach their translation assignments with care and consideration. Also, Arabic requires the inclusion of the pronoun in relative clauses, unlike English, in which the pronoun is omitted. This results in mistakes like: Where is the pen which I gave it to you yesterday? The training and instruction in removal of the referent in the relative clause in English, during the academic writing teaching sessions, helped translation students get over the error in good time.

As regards the use of punctuation marks, it was found out that students, while translating, used too many commas, often where not needed. This breaks the sentences at too many places and does not help in meaningful transfer of ideas. Academic writing courses train students to use punctuation marks thoughtfully so that they facilitate understanding. It is imperative that translation students need to learn why punctuation is important in English, as well as when, and how, to use it, since Arabic written texts often omit punctuation entirely. Arabic has less limitation in the use of commas and periods than English. Consequently, many students use infinite number of commas in their English running-on sentences. Semi-colons almost have no existence. A course in Academic Writing and its rules of punctuation serves the translation students well in making their L2 translation meaningful and effective. So while teaching Academic Writing to students of translation it was observed how translators must do a course in writing to get acquainted with the semantic, syntactic, and diacritical marks of the L2. This reinforces their ability to translate and makes their translation acceptable and honest.

Conclusion

In view of the discussions and the data presented there were some conclusions that were reached regarding the effectiveness of teaching Academic Writing to students of translation with their Arab language perspective. The examples from English phrases and structures along with their English variants underscore the value of bilingual translation in translating from Arabic. In fact, bilingual translation, in the form of paraphrasing,

summarizing, rephrasing, simplifying, editing, rewriting, etc., seems to be unavoidable as language is breaking all boundaries to reach places far and wide.

However, training Arab translation students in transferring their original language texts into the target language, English language, in this context, explicitly is an important part of preparing them to deal with different levels of language learning. And Academic Writing instructions are significantly important in the sense that these instructions inform students about language differences, and enhance their understanding and skill in their efforts to become effective translators.

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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, Saudi Arabia.

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Examining the Effectiveness of Utilizing Mobile Technology in Vocabulary Development for Language Learners

Hind Alzahrani

Composition and TESOL Program

English Department

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

USA

Abstract

The misuse of mobile phones in class frequently irritates language teachers. Instead of banning this mobile technology and considering it as a nuisance, teachers can take the advantage of this technology to help their students achieve their goals. Therefore, this paper is targeted toward the most recent technological devices that have an influence on how people learn and communicate with each other these days. It attempts to discover how far mobile devices are being used to support language learning by shedding light on its contribution to assisting vocabulary development. To do so, a review of the current existing publications that are related to mobile assisted language learning (MALL) was undertaken. The findings show that mobile technology assist vocabulary development for second language learners such as using short message serve(SMS), mobile based games, and mobile based flashcards. They also show that students have positive attitudes toward using mobile technology in learning new vocabularies. The article displays some of the limitations that are associated with utilizing mobile technology in vocabulary development for language learners. It also calls for further research that examine the impact of social media applications, such as Twitter, Facebook, and Instagram on vocabulary development.

Keywords: MALL, m-learning, mobile based flashcards, mobile based games mobile phones, SMS (Short message service), vocabulary development.

Examining the Effectiveness of Utilizing Mobile Technology in Vocabulary Development for Language Learners

No one can deny that mobile technology is rapidly attracting new users, offering increasing capacity, and tolerating complex use. This, of course, has an impact on users' life styles by affecting their social relationships and opening windows to new learning contexts. Many years ago, it was already being declared that, "at least in the UK, cell phones were a familiar part of the lives of most teachers and students" (Hulme & Shield, 2008, p. 271), which means cell phones become a familiar and essential parts in people life. Also, an analysis of mobile learning projects that was done by Pęcherzewska & Knot (2007) and funded by the European Union from 2001 to 2007 indicated that mobile phones are the most frequently utilized devices in these projects (Ducate & Lomicka, 2013). Pęcherzewska & Knot's analysis implies that mobile phones have become popular among users, and they have been used more than any other devices. In addition to that, Wang's (2013) article showed that "a study that was done by the United Nations on 2013 claimed that out of the world's estimated 7 billion people, 6 billion have access to mobile phones. Far fewer — only 4.5 billion people — have access to working toilets" (p. 1). Wang claimed that the United Nations' study indicates that most of the people in the world are cell phone owners, which means cell phones are becoming popular among users, and the numbers of people owning mobile phones are increasing.

As English language educators, we can realize this fact through monitoring our classrooms. Last year, the author of this paper worked at California State University, East Bay as a graduate teaching assistant for three consecutive quarters teaching English composition for international freshmen students. She has noticed that all of my students own at least one smartphone, and they were really attached to it. They used it to schedule reminders for their assignments, look up new words, or sometimes to chat with friends or family members. Instead of banning cell phones in her classes, which some instructors may do, she started to think about taking advantage of using cell phones in teaching English. So, she decided to look for an overview of the current research on mobile phones as an educational tool, and that is what she thinks most English instructors need. Just as Hulme (2009) said, "to a certain extent, by dint of their ubiquity, mobile devices are already influencing how people learn; on the other hand, educators need to do more than just watch it happen." (p. 158). Therefore, this paper aims to give an overview on the effectiveness of utilizing mobile technology in vocabulary development for language learners by examining some of the current, existing, and related research studies.

What is mobile learning?

Before digging deeply in reviewing the current research studies on mobile assisted language learning, it would be helpful to define the term "mobile learning". It has been argued that mobile learning may include the use of any transportable learning materials such as books, CDs, radios, or DVD players. However, this identification does not apply to what this paper is arguing. The focus of this paper is targeted toward the most recent technological devices that have an influence on how people learn and communicate with each other these days. Mobile devices that this research paper addresses can be defined as "any device that is small, autonomous and unobtrusive enough to accompany us in every moment" (Trifanova, Knapp, Ronchetti, & Gamper, 2004, p. 3). Trifanova et al.'s definition involves any kind of handheld mobile devices such as cell phones, personal digital assistants (PDAs), smartphones, pads, or pods, whereas laptops may be excluded from this context. In addition to defining the devices that are used in

mobile learning, the term “mobile learning” itself can be defined also as being available “anywhere, anytime” (Hulme & Shield, 2008). Thus, the key term, “mobile learning”, is defined by both the used tools and the constant availability of those tools anywhere and at anytime. Therefore, for the purpose of this research paper, mobile learning refers to the capacity of obtaining or providing educational knowledge through using portable small devices such as PDAs, smartphones, and mobile phones anywhere and at anytime. It is a new learning context that does not have a specific time or place.

Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL): An overview

Since the main thesis of this paper is to examine the contribution of mobile technology in facilitating vocabulary development for language learners, I will give a brief overview about mobile assisted language learning, and provide some examples.

Mobile assisted language learning (MALL) is similar to the term, CALL, which stands for “computer assisted language learning”. Computer assisted language learning refers to the computer’s potential impact on facilitating the language learning process, and how computer technology affects the way people get access to knowledge. Similarly, MALL stands for mobile assisted language learning, which refers to the influences that portable devices have to support learning a target language. Shield and Hulme indicated (as cited by Hulme, 2009) that “there are important differences between CALL and MALL; in particular, mobile technology can assist learners at the point of need and in ways that fit in with their mobile lifestyles”(p. 162). This means the easy access to the mobile phones and their portable feature makes them different than the computer technology. Shield & Hulme (2008) argued that the personal and portable features of the mobile phones allow them to have more potential impact in assisting language learning and providing language learners with a new learning context that does not have limited time or location. They also indicated that mobile phones have the advantage of continuity access to the target language content and allows students to be easily involved in collaborative interaction among language learners. People have access to their portable devices in different settings like while they are in bed, in bus, waiting in a line or at a doctor office; however, they cannot have access to their computers in such setting. That is what makes difference between the access to mobile devices and computers.

Many researchers have done studies to examine the impacts of mobile-based tasks on learning a target language. A good source that provides an overview of the current empirical studies, which were published during the period 2007-2012 and focused on the effectiveness of MALL in second and foreign language, is Viberg & Grönlund’s (2012) paper. Viberg & Grönlund made a great job in examining the empirical studies that were published in 2007-2012, and they did a fascinating, deep, and extensive analysis of those studies by examining the methodological, theoretical, and linguistic knowledge that those empirical research studies have. The findings of this well developed literature review indicated that “studies of mobile technology use in different aspects of language learning support the hypothesis that mobile technology can enhance learners’ second language acquisition”(p. 1). That means mobile technology has a potential impact in facilitating and assisting the language learning process, which is a good indication for language educators who are eager to use such tools in their classrooms. They also found out that most of the studies they examined are “ experimental, small-scale, and conducted within a short period, and most theories and concepts are used only in one or a few papers”(p.1).

Mobile technology and vocabulary development

After defining the key term, “mobile learning”, and giving a brief overview about mobile assisted language learning, the discussion has to be narrowed down for the focus of this paper, which is examining the effectiveness of utilizing MALL in vocabulary development for language learners.

Learning vocabulary is very fundamental for developing the four language skills; reading, writing, speaking and listening. Developing vocabulary makes language learners acquire the target language effectively since vocabulary knowledge facilitate the learning process for language learners and help them to understand the text they read or the speech they heard. In addition, language learners cannot express themselves in writing or speaking without having enough vocabulary knowledge. Agca & Özdemir (2013) indicated that “ “if a student’s vocabulary knowledge is richer, then s/he can better understand the structure of the foreign language” p. (782). This emphasizes the important of vocabularies development for the language four skills. However, second and foreign language learners sometimes find vocabulary development to be “complex and gradual process” (Agca & Özdemir, 2013). Therefore, teachers need to use various activities and different approaches to facilitate the learning process for their students. Technology with its increasing innovations is a great source and facilitator for language teachers even if it may has some problems.

Therefore, teachers can take the advantage of mobile technology features to facilitate the vocabulary development process for their students since it is one of the current innovations that attract users, and keep them engaged in the learning process. However, before that, teachers have to test the mobile technology features they aimed to incorporate or at least read the related research studies that have already examined the selected feature to make sure that it will work well for their classroom. Fortunately, several studies that examined the use of mobile phones in vocabulary development have already appeared in the literature, and they have different activities and various focuses. Reading such studies can support teachers’ approaches and enrich their classrooms with interesting activities.

Many of the existing and related studies have argued for the effectiveness of incorporating mobile phones in learning the target vocabularies, and some of them will be discussed later in this paper. For example, Motallebzadeh & Ganjali’s (2011) study argued that mobile phone is an effective tool that facilities language development and helped students learn the target language easily and keep their motivation to follow up with their study at home. They indicated that the findings of their study and other studies “imply that from now on, the teachers will not have to begin their teaching with “Please switch your mobiles off”; instead, they can begin with “Switch your mobiles on, please”(p.1114). The results of Motallebzadeh & Ganjali’s study led them to give this strong recommendation for employing mobile phones as an effective learning tool that assist vocabulary development.

Current examples of Mobile learning in vocabulary development

Since examples of successful mobile learning projects facilities understanding the perceived value of mobile learning, this section will focus on three features of mobile technology, which contribute to vocabulary development. They are the use of short message service (SMS), mobile-based flashcards, and mobile-based games in vocabulary development. The order of these three

examples is based on the period they appear in, from the earlier to the recent. To give a better overview of those three features, the following subsections are going to provide examples from the current research studies that investigate the effectiveness of those three mentioned above features. They will also do so by examining some of the related empirical studies and showing how and why most researchers are arguing and inviting teachers to incorporate mobile phones in vocabulary development. Cavus, & Ibrahim's (2009) study, for instance, argued that incorporating the short text message (SMS) in vocabulary learning is an effective tool for vocabulary development and all participants in their study expressed enjoyment of learning vocabulary out of classroom environment. It also helped teachers to keep their students motivated and interested in studying the target vocabulary. Further examples will be examined in the following subsections.

1. SMS and Vocabulary development

Most of the current research studies that were dedicated to examining the effectiveness of utilizing mobile technologies in developing a target language vocabulary aimed to explore the function of the short message service (SMS). To show give explicit examples the following studies are examined.

First, Lu's (2008) study attempted to examine the effectiveness of SMS in helping second language learners acquire new words. He compared the post-test results of two groups, one received two words daily via SMS while the other got a list of 14 printed words each week. The results of his study showed that "students recognized more vocabulary during the post-test after reading the regular and brief SMS lessons than they did after reading the relatively more detailed print material" (p. 515). Students in Lu's study could develop English vocabulary more effectively through SMS than studying them by using the printed material as indicated in a two-week post-test. One of the reasons that SMS students did well on the post-test may be because the short message service allows students to study the target vocabulary in short chunks. In addition, Lu's study indicated that the grade of one of the students have been among the top three in the class. This is because she is the only student who sent back two sentences that she created and asked for feedback. This means the interaction feature that SMS allows for language learners is very effective in helping students learn the target vocabulary by developing their own sentences and receiving feedback.

Similarly, Zhang, Song, & Burston's (2011) study proved that SMS helped students to do better in an immediate post-test. They indicated that this is might be due to the students' easy access to the SMS anywhere and anytime, which provides students with repeated exposure to the target words. Students can study the words while they are waiting in a line, riding a bus, or in bed. An example from their students' reflection on such experience is shown below:

Currently I had myself more exposed to the words that I had to memorize than I had done before. Everyday when I was on my way to the canteen in the mornings and to the classroom, as well as on my way back to the dormitory, I always read and memorized the words via my mobile phone. This improved frequency of exposure has led to enhanced vocabulary learning fairly naturally. (p. 208)

This student emphasized that the easy access to the target language and the portable feature of the SMS provided him with extensive exposure to the target words, and this affected his

vocabulary development process positively.

Although Lu's (2008) & Zhang et al's (2011) study both argued that SMS has a significant impact on vocabulary development in short-term memory but not the long term one, Alemi, Sarab & Lari's (2012) study has a debate with them. Alemi et al's (2012) study argued that SMS influences vocabulary development in long-term memory. They argued that SMS is an effective way that helped students retain vocabularies in their long-term memory. That is because the results of their study showed that students in the experimental group, who received new vocabularies via SMS, did better in a delayed post-test. This suggests that SMS is a good tool for foreign language development and teachers may consider utilizing such a tool.

Last but not least, it is noteworthy to indicate that some researchers have argued that SMS is a beneficial tool by indicating that it has some advantages, which make researchers recommend it for vocabulary development. Examples of SMS' advantages are, as Lomine & Buckingham (2009) indicated below, saying that SMS:

- is quick, discreet, to the point and inexpensive
- can improve student motivation and retention
- can involve students more actively/interactively
- can contact any group or individual immediately
- enable Students to text in for help and advice
- does not require familiarization or training. (p. 5)

What Lomine & Buckingham's (2009) said above suggests that SMS is a useful educational tool because it motivates students and helps them to be involved in the learning process. Their argument also means that SMS supports interactions, and allows students to ask for help if needed. In addition to that, teachers do not have to train their students to use SMS because it is well known for its easiness and quick use.

2. Mobile based Flashcards

Another component that mobile technology can provide to English language learners and teachers is the easy and cheap access to mobile-based flashcards. Generally speaking, flashcards are effective tool for vocabulary development, and it has been proved that flashcards, either paper-based or online format, succeed in attracting students' attentions, and are good tools to meet different learners' types (Anaraki, 2008). Howard Gardner's multiple intelligence theory reminds teachers that there are different types of learners in every single classroom they teach and teachers should aim to appeal to all the various learner types within their classrooms (Gardner & Hatch, 1989). So, flashcards can be a good activity that helps teachers meet most of their students' various leaning types. To examine the effectiveness of utilizing mobile-based flashcards for vocabulary development purposes, the following studies are examined below.

First, Başoğlu & Akdemir's (2010) study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of mobile-based flashcards use in vocabulary learning. To do so, they designed a piece of research to examine the vocabulary development of 60 students, who are in two groups. The first group, thirty students, was assigned to study English vocabulary through utilizing a mobile phone application, which is called ECTACO Flash Cards. The other thirty students were assigned to study English words through the traditional paper based flashcards. A mixed methods approach,

pre-task test, post task test, and afterwards interviews, were used to collect data, which were analyzed later. The analysis of the collected data showed that students in both groups improved the acquisition of vocabulary learning. However, the experimental group, which utilized the mobile phone flashcards application, showed more significant improvement than the other group. This means that the mobile-based flashcards are very effective and practical tools for vocabulary development. In addition, mobile-based flashcards allow students to have continuity access to the target words, which contribute to students' vocabulary development as the study showed.

Another study by Anaraki (2008) investigates the impact of mobile-based flashcards on English proficiency skills by developing a flash-based mobile learning system. Twelve mobile English lessons were developed, in which language learners can listen to native speakers, read text, learn spelling, understand grammar rules, and practice some exercises. To investigate the effectiveness of this system, university students at Assumption University had to try out this system using their mobile devices for four weeks, and a pretest, posttest, and surveys were utilized. The results of the study showed that the flash-based mobile learning system helped students to develop their English proficiency skills as shown in the diagrams below. The diagrams showed the difference between learners' English skills before and after trying out the flash-based mobile learning system. If you examine the diagrams, you will notice that the students developed their English proficiency skills after trying out the flash-based mobile learning system.

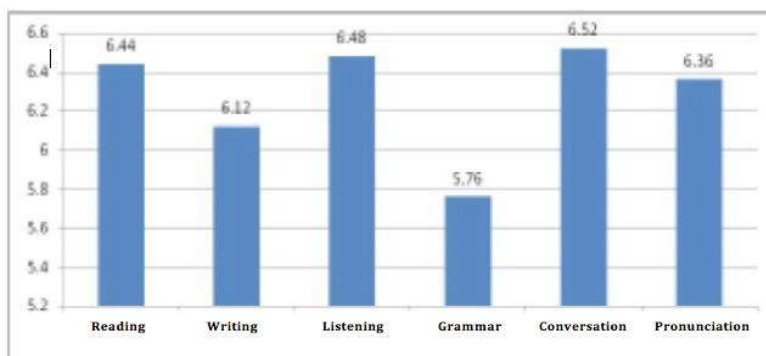


Figure.1 . Ranking of English Proficiency Skills Before Trying Out

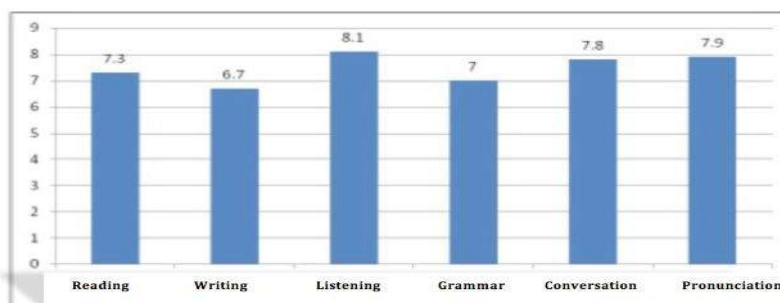


Figure.2. Ranking of English Proficiency Skills After Trying Out

As seen in figure 1 and 2, the flash-based mobile learning system that Anaraki (2008) incorporates in his study had a significant impact on students' English proficiency skills, and it helped them develop more than one skill, which the paper-based flashcards usually do. It is also clear that the most significant impact of the flash-based mobile has been on learners' grammar skills, followed by listening skills, pronunciation skills, and conversation although there are influence on all of learners' proficiency skills.

If we look carefully at the results of Anaraki's (2008) research study, we will notice that they proved that the advantage of mobile-based flashcards outweigh the advantages of paper-based flashcards because of the multimedia capability that is involved with mobile-based flashcards. This is because mobile-based flashcards enable language learners to read the target vocabulary in a text, learn how to use the new words, and listen to the text spoken by a native speaker anywhere and anytime. This multimedia feature cannot be found in the paper-based flashcards, and it should encourage English teachers to employ such programs if they want to help their students achieve their goals effectively.

3. Mobile based games for vocabulary development

Mobile technology can provide language learners and teachers with new techniques for vocabulary development, and one of those innovative techniques is learning vocabulary through mobile-based game applications. Several studies have pointed out that games are effective tools for language learning and vocabulary development. For example, Lee noted, (as cited by Uberman, 1998) that, "most language games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms, and games should be treated as central not peripheral to the foreign language teaching program" (p. 20). Lee's argument here is supporting the idea of incorporating language games while teaching a target language since language games help learners utilize the target language and the target vocabularies in context. Similarly, Uberman (1998) indicated that several researchers believed that using games in language learning could lower students' anxiety, and make the vocabulary acquisition more likely. He also indicated that language games are highly motivating, entertaining and good tools for involving shy students in practicing the target language and expressing their own feelings and opinions. Language games proved to be effective tools for learning the target language as stated above. To give a sense of how mobile-based games work in developing students' vocabulary knowledge, the following studies are given as examples.

First, Ulfa's (2012) study aimed to examine the effectiveness of a prototype mobile game in promoting second language vocabulary acquisition. The prototype mobile game includes animals and fruits vocabulary images with a total of 20 words, which enable students to play the game by clicking on the image and write the French equivalent word. To examine the effect of this game on students' vocabulary development, thirty students were divided into two groups, and engaged in learning 20 words. The experimental group used the prototype mobile game for studying their vocabularies, whereas the control group used word lists to review the same target words. The results of a post-test showed that the experimental group had higher scores than the control group. This means the prototype mobile game has a significant impact on students' vocabulary acquisition. It was also interesting to know that students in this study realized the significant benefits they got from utilizing the prototype mobile game in reviewing the target vocabulary, and they think it was a motivating and interesting game. For instance, a student from

the experimental group showed that the prototype mobile game helped them to learn the words saying: “I could memorize the words in French language easily, because the words were represented by images. Also, using mobile game was more interesting for me and I had been motivated to learn the new words ” (Ulfa, 2012, p. 6). This student expressed that the prototype mobile game is helpful for memorizing the target words and it facilitated the process.

Another study by Yipa, Alvin & Kwan (2006) investigated the impact of a mobile based game in developing the target vocabularies. To do so, 3 educators and 100 students participated in a quasi-experimental study for nine weeks. The participants were divided into two groups. The experimental group had to study the target vocabularies through two carefully selected websites, which are *Professional Word Web* and *University Word Web*, and those website involve games. On the other hand, the control group had to study the same target words through in class activity-based lessons. The results of the tests indicated that, “the experimental group outperformed the control group statistically in the post-test. Also, the students in the experimental group generally preferred online learning supplemented with digital educational games to conventional activity-based lessons” (Yip et al., 2006, p. 233). This means the online chosen website and the mobile based games are very useful tools, and they helped students in the experimental group to learn the target vocabularies in a more effective way. Therefore, mobile-based games are helpful and efficient tools for students who want to build new vocabularies in an interesting and entraining way.

Students’ attitudes about using mobile phones as educational tool

Throughout reviewing some of the related research studies in this field, I was interested in the students’ attitudes about using mobile phones for vocabulary development. Fortunately, I found that most articles in this field shed light on students’ perspectives about incorporating mobile technology in language learning in general and vocabulary acquisition in particular. For example, Anaraki’s study (2008) showed that “majority of participants have a positive attitude towards mobile learning, and they are enthusiastic to learn English using their mobile devices” (p. 34). Also, other research studies indicated that students have developed positive attitudes toward the use of mobile devices in learning (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009). So, it seems that mobile technology has a positive impact on students’ learning experiences. It also seems that students reap the benefits from employing such technology in their learning; otherwise, they would not show a positive attitude toward it. To give further information about students’ attitudes toward mobile technology, the following two studies are examined.

First, Zengning’s study (2011) investigated how adult learners perceive vocabulary learning through utilizing mobile phones by having 24 English major students studying English vocabularies through their mobile phones. To do so, he utilized a questionnaire survey to ask students about their attitudes. The results showed that the students favored mobile phone as a tool for learning new vocabularies with average scores of 4.30 on a scale ranging from 1 to 5. That means the students have enjoyed the experience of learning vocabulary through utilizing mobile phones and that has contributed to their positive feedback. The findings of Zengning’s study first indicated that students liked the “accessibility of mobile phones”, and they showed that they took the advantage of their convenience when they do not have access to computers or textbooks. Secondly, students believed that vocabulary text messaging is very helpful for them as a reminder for autonomous learning since it reminds them of a vocabulary task when they forgot

about it. It helped them discipline themselves to keep up with their study. Third, students found that the mobile technology is a great for those who are busy with family and work and can hardly find time for learning. Mobile technology provides students with the opportunity to make use of the fragmented time.

Similarly, Ulfa's (2012) study had two groups of students studying vocabulary thorough a prototype mobile game and a word list respectively, and the students from each group were invited to comment about their experience while learning the target vocabulary. The overall comments that the mobile game group provided was very positive since students indicated that they could memorize the words easily based on the repetitive features that the mobile games provided. They also indicated that learning vocabulary through the mobile game is fun, interesting, motivating, and helpful to them. On the other hand, the overall comments that the word list group provided was negative, and students expressed that they faced difficulty and confusion while studying the target vocabulary through the word list. This means the mobile game group had a much better experience, which has contributed to the positive comments they provided. It also suggests that students in the mobile game group have a positive attitude toward using the mobile phones in learning vocabulary, and they felt that the mobile phone is an effective tool for vocabulary development.

Limitations of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning

Although the above research studies argued for the benefits of incorporating mobile technology in assisting language learning, there are also some problems associated with it. A few of the drawbacks are as follows:

First, mobile technology is expensive and it may affect students' budgets. Perry (2003) argued that "costs of software and accessories" are one of the MALL disadvantages since students need to spend money to buy cell phones or pay for the service. So, the cost of money is considered as one of the MALL limitations.

In addition to the cost of money, researchers in MALL fields have some concerns about the cell phones' screen size and the limited battery charge. Lee (2005) argued that these could be considered drawbacks when utilizing the cell phones for language learning. This means these two features may impact the effectiveness of mobile assisted language learning.

Similarly, Perry (2003) noted that cell phones have the disadvantage of "unstable data storage (on battery exhaustion) leading to lost work"(p. 20). This means students may lose their works that they have saved in their cell phones due to battery problems.

Furthermore, the need for teachers and students' training on using cell phones for academic purposes can be considered as one of MALL disadvantages, too. Perry (2003) noted that one of the drawbacks associated with mobile assisted language learning is the crucial need for effectively training both the students and teachers to make sure that they both are on the same track. If the students are not well trained in using the target cell phone application, the learning process will be negatively affected.

In addition to the need for training, there is also a need for technical support when incorporating mobile technology in language learning, which is another drawback. Perry (2003)

indicated that MALL creates a need for technical support to help the learning process go on because, as he argued, “if students do not get technical support, they are less likely to derive maximum benefits from adopting cellphones to support learning”(p.30). He supported his claim by providing a student’s experience from Thornton and Houser’s study (2004) as an example. The student in Thornton and Houser’s (2004) study has experienced difficulty-hearing audio through his cell phone, which has the researcher to look for a technical support expert to solve the problem.

Conclusion

To sum up, the aim of this paper was to discover how far mobile devices are being used to support language learning by shedding light on its contribution to assisting vocabulary development. It does so by examining some the existing and related research studies in this field. Throughout developing this paper, it can be noticed that most of the existing and related studies have argued that mobile technology is an effective tool for vocabulary development, although no one can deny the drawbacks that are associated with mobile technology. Most of the related studies that are referred to here in this paper recommend incorporating mobile technology to help language learners develop their vocabulary effectively, which will, of course, contribute to improving the four language skills. The paper also indicates that students have positive attitudes toward the use of mobile technology in learning vocabulary.

It is also interesting to realize that most of the existing and related research studies have tried to examine some of the features that mobile phones allow for users such as SMS, mobile-based flashcards, mobile-based games, and others. However, there are limited research studies that were targeted at examining the impact of social media applications, such as Twitter, Facebook, and Instagram on vocabulary development, in spite of the fact that social media applications are becoming popular among language learners. Therefore, there is a need for more research studies that investigate the impact of social media on students’ vocabulary development since they are very popular among language users, and the numbers of such programs’ users are rapidly increasing.

About the Author:

Hind Alzahrani is a Ph.D. candidate at Indiana University of Pennsylvania majoring in English composition and TESOL (Teaching English as a second language). She holds a master degree in TESOL from California State University, East Bay and bachelor degree in English from Albaha University. She worked as an English teacher in Saudi Arabia, her home country. Also, she worked as an English composition instructor at California State University, East Bay.

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Compounding as a Near Universal Phenomenon with Special Reference to Standard Arabic Nominal Compounding

Abdul-Hafeed Ali Fakih

Department of English, University of Ibb, Republic of Yemen

&

Department of English, University of Najran, Saudi Arabia (KSA)

Nadia Ali Al-Shwafi

Department of English, University of Ibb, Republic of Yemen

Abstract

Compounding has received little attention in linguistic typology and, in particular, in studies on linguistic universals. This paper seeks to study compounding as a universal process with special reference to Arabic nominal compounding. It aims to point out whether compounding is a universal process in light of Standard Arabic nominal compounding. It attempts to extrapolate universal tendencies in compounding with respect to the following features of compounding: the identity of compounding, classification of compounds, headedness of the compounds in the world's languages, relationships between the constituents of compounds, and universality of compounding. It proposes lines of empirical research and methodological suggestions towards the study of universals in compounding. The focus of the study is on nominal compounds consisting of two lexemes.

Key words: classification, features, lexeme, nominal compounding, typology, universal

Introduction

Compounding is the most widespread lexeme formation process in the world's languages – and for some languages the only one; for example, Chinese and Vietnamese (Greenberg, 1963; Guevara & Scalise, 2008). Guevara & Scalise (2008) state that compounding is a rather neglected phenomenon in typological studies. Guevara & Scalise (2008) stress that 'there is no trace of compounding even in the best repertoires of universals (see the Universals Archive, F. Plank, Konstanz) and very little attention to compounds is given in typological works (see World Atlas of Linguistic Structures, Haspelmath, Dryer, Gil, & Comrie, 2006)' (p. 2).

Furthermore, Bauer (2006) argues that it is not clear whether or not all languages have compounds. In Arabic and Western literature, it has been pointed out that Arabic compounding is a rare and unproductive lexeme formation process (Al-Jarf, 2004; Haywood & Nahmad, 1976; Holes, 2004; Ryding, 2005; and Wright, 1988, among others). This paper seeks to explore whether compounding is a universal process or not, and whether this phenomenon is a morphological or syntactic process. It examines that compounding, which is generally accepted as a lexeme formation process, is part of syntax rather than part of morphology. Furthermore, it presents a preliminary cross-linguistic overview of the basic features of compounding on the basis of the data collected from compounding taken from dictionaries and grammars on different languages. From a typological point of view, the study addresses important issues on compounding such as the classification of nominal compounds, the notion and position of the head, the implicit grammatical relationships between the constituents of nominal compounds and the universality of nominal compounding.

The Problem of the Study

This study attempts to provide a unified account of the following questions: (i) Based on the data cited from different languages and also from Arabic nominal compounding, the question is: Is compounding a universal process? (ii) What are the defining relationships between the constituents of compounds that can be taken into consideration when we study compounding as a universal process? (We are limiting the attention to two constituents of nominal compounds although compounds with more than two constituents can be analyzed as binary formation).

The Significance of the Study

Compounding as a universal process is selected for investigation in this study for the following reasons: (i) universal linguistics is one of the major fields of study in linguistic analysis. Pertsova (2009) raises the question of the value of seeking morphological universals by pointing out that "there are few universals in morphology" (p. 204). (ii) To the best of the researchers' knowledge, compounding as a universal process has not been examined in relation to the Arabic nominal compounding in detail. (iii) This study seeks to provide a grounding basis for the study of compounding as a universal process and in turn propose lines of empirical and methodological suggestions towards the study of universals in compounding.

The Objectives of the Study

The study focuses on compounding as a universal process with special reference to Arabic nominal compounding. It aims to address the classification of nominal compounds, the notion and position of the head in nominal compounds, the relationships between the constituents of the

nominal compounds and the universality of nominal compounding. The objective of this study is to show that compounding is a universal phenomenon.

The Hypothesis of the Study

It is hypothesized that compounding is a near universal process and compounds can be analyzed in terms of the implicit grammatical relationships between their constituents and in terms of the presence and absence of the head constituents which can trace the universality of compounds in language.

The Methodology of the Study

The methodology we have used in this study is based on an analysis of the data on our topic collected from dictionaries and grammars on morphologically different types of languages. It is, however, supplemented by the data obtained from certain literary work(s) in Arabic and certain literary work(s) in English and other languages as well as the linguistic literature on English.

Literature Review

Much work has been devoted to compounding in theoretical linguistics, especially in the last decades, namely the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s and 2000s. Most of the work has been set to distinguish compounds from phrases. The structuralists (like Bloomfield, 1933) propose several criteria to distinguish compounds from phrases, and some of which are rejected by the late structuralists. However, some of them agree that compounds are similar to phrases, and that it is impossible to differentiate one from the other. The early transformational generativists pay considerable attention to the syntax of compounds. Chomsky (1957) argues that the lexicon contains only simple idiosyncratic words; it contains neither compounds nor derived words. Furthermore, early generative views, typified by Chomsky (1957, 1965) and Lees (1963), assign the arrangements of all items into larger constructions to the syntax. This idea is, then, supported by Chomsky (1982); Fabb (1984); Lieber (1992); Pesetsky (1985); Roeper (1988); and Sproat (1985), among others. Witayasakpan (1990, p. 150) claims that "the noun phrases and nominal compounds are often used interchangeably." Witayasakpan (1990) argues that "compounds are derived from the same source as phrases and sentences" (pp. 181-182). Recently, compounding is seen as a morphological process (Di Sciullo & Williams, 1987; Lieber, 1983; Roeper & Siegel, 1978; and Selkirk, 1982, among others). Other analyses, however, attempt to reduce compounding to syntactic principles, as seen in Baker, 1998; Lieber, 1992; and Sproat, 1985).

Moreover, Levi (1978) focuses on the semantic property of compounds. Finin (1980) claims that one of the characteristic features of compounds in English is their semantic compactness. It can be noticed that the debate between formal and semantic properties of compounds has not been settled yet. On the other hand, Spencer (1991) states that the notion 'compounding' stands half way between word and phrase. Spencer (1991) observes that "in many respects compounding represents the interface between morphology and syntax par excellence" (p. 309). That is, they share characteristics both with sentences (since they are formed by more than one lexeme), and with words (since they have a unique denotation).

Furthermore, there are many classifications of compounds in linguistic literature. For instance, Bauer (2006) argues that "many more modern classifications of compounds are in effect reinterpretations of the Sanskrit labels" (p. 723). Given this, Bisetto & Scalise (2009)

claim that “the classifications of compounds that appear in current linguistic literature often lack interlinguistic homogeneity” (p. 35). Bisetto & Scalise (2009) propose that classifications of compounds are based on heterogeneous criteria.

Moreover, Lieber & Štekauer (2009, p.145) observe that “compounds are a part of human language. They may include functional elements, such as case markers ... and the order of their constituents, while being rigid within a given language, differs cross-linguistically Notwithstanding their diversity, compounds share some basic properties.” Lieber & Štekauer (2009) stress that compounds include more than one constituent and that they are opaque syntactic domains. Lieber & Štekauer (2009) conclude their analysis of compounds by emphasizing that “their semantics is not necessarily compositional” (p. 145). Furthermore, Lieber & Štekauer (2009) indicate that compounding is sometimes suggested as a language universal (Fromkin *et al*, 1996; and Libben, 2006). On the other hand, Clark (1993) states that it is easy for children to acquire languages containing compounds. Plag (2006) states that compounding as a linguistic phenomenon is commonly widespread in pidgins.

Greenberg (1963), Dressler (2006), and Guevara & Scalise (2008) stress that languages may have compounding without affixation but almost no language has affixation without compounding. Bauer (2006) suggests that compounds viewed as a construction type are universal but compounds viewed as lexical entities are not. Bauer (2006) adds that “because the problem has not been recognized in the literature, it is impossible to be sure” (p. 721).

Analysis of Compounding

In order to simplify the data, the researchers present examples on compounding cited from different languages and illustrated in Table 1. They also classify these languages genealogically and typologically in order to illustrate the point of analysis. It can be observed that there are at least 4000 languages in the world. Such languages are classified on the basis of their supposed genetic relationships into language families, on the one hand, and on morphological grounds, on the other. The language families include Germanic (e.g. English), Romance (e.g. French), Uralic (e.g. Turkish), Austro-Asiatic (e.g. Vietnamese), and Semitic (e.g. Arabic). However, there are some languages which are difficult to be included in the established families and hence they are classified separately as isolates (e.g. Japanese), (Pirkola, 2010).

Moreover, languages are also classified on the basis of their morphological types rather than their origins and relationships (Schlegel, as cited in Lehmann, 1962, p. 51). This traditionally morphological typology dates back to the nineteenth century. It distinguishes three language types: isolating, inflectional and agglutinative languages. This typology is later supplemented by the fourth language type, polysynthetic languages, in particular, to explain the morphological nature of some native American languages (e.g. Eskimo). Isolating or root languages (e.g. Chinese and Vietnamese) are languages with no inflection. The correspondence between morphs and morphemes is one-to-one. For example, the Vietnamese words appear in the same invariable forms independent of their grammatical functions.

(1) Tôi đến nhà, má tôi má cửa ra, tôi vô.

I arrive house, mother I open door exist, I enter.

'I arrived at the house, my mother opened the door, and I went in.'

In inflectional or synthetic languages (such as, Arabic and English), there are no clear-cut boundaries between morphemes in a word. A monomorph word may consist of two or more meaningful morphemes. For example, the monomorph word 'took' in English denotes two morphemes, that is, the meanings 'to take' and 'past tense', so a word composed of one morph may represent more than one morpheme. Agglutinative or affixing languages (such as, Turkish and Finnish) are the type of languages in which clearly identifiable morphs are strung together one after another within a word, and each morph represents one morpheme. In agglutinative languages, the boundaries separating one morph from another in a word are clear-cut, and morphs are easily segmentable. For example, the Turkish word form 'köpekleri' can be analyzed into the following morphs *köpek* (dog), *ler* (plural suffix), *i* (accusative affix).

In polysynthetic languages, a word may consist of a large number of free and bound morphs. A word consisting of several morphs may form an entire sentence. For example, the Standard Arabic word "تكتب" *taktub-u* 'she is writing' can be analyzed into the following morphs: 'ta-' is a prefix which shows that the subject is feminine singular; *taktub-u* illustrates that the verb is in the present form; *ta-...-u* forms an entire sentence 'she is writing'. Thus, the difference between a word and a sentence is sometimes obscure in polysynthetic languages. The Eskimo language is often regarded as a typical polysynthetic language.

The four morphological types are ideal types rather than practical ones. There are languages that are closed to an ideal type; for example, Chinese is an isolating language and Turkish is an agglutinative language, etc. However, most languages are mixed types sharing features of different ideal types. For instance, English grammatical relations are mainly shown by means of prepositions. This resembles the pattern of isolating languages. However, the English derivational and inflectional morphology is in part agglutinative and in part inflectional. Furthermore, the Standard Arabic derivational and inflectional morphology is in part inflectional and in part polysynthetic. The focus of this paper is on the three major types: isolating, inflectional and agglutinative. The following table in (1) classifies languages on the basis of a genealogical and typological background.

Table 1: Genealogical and typological classification of languages.

Genealogical Classification of Languages	Typological Classification of Languages	Languages
Germanic	Inflectional	English
Romance	Inflectional	Italian
Romance	Inflectional	French
Uralic	Agglutinative	Turkish
Austro-Asiatic	Isolating	Vietnamese
Japonic	Agglutinative	Japanese
Semitic	Inflectional	Hebrew
Semitic	Inflectional	Arabic
Blato Slavic	Inflectional	Russian

Indic	Inflectional	Hindi
Sino-Tibetan	Isolating	Chinese

The term compound in its most general sense refers to a lexeme formed by the concatenation of at least two existing lexemes. For the sake of simplicity, the researchers consider only two lexeme compound types, in particular Noun + Noun compounds. Let us illustrate the point in (2) and (3).

2. فنجان قهوة *finjaan-u qahwat-in*

cup-nom coffee-gen-indef

'Coffee cup'

3. حرق الخيام *harq-u al-xyaam-i*

fire-nom the-tent-pl-gen-def

'The firing of the tents'

More examples taken from genealogically and typologically different languages are presented in Table 2 below which provide examples of nominal compounds.

Table 2: Nominal Compounds

Genealogical classification of languages	Typological Classification of Languages	languages	Examples of compounds	Meaning in English
Germanic	Inflectional	English	taxi driver	
Romance	Inflectional	Italian	divano-letto	sofa-bed
Romance	Inflectional	French	tire bouchon	cork-screw
Uralic	Agglutinative	Turkish	yatak oda-si	bedroom
Austro-Asiatic	Isolating	Vietnamese	Bànghè	table chair
Japonic	Agglutinative	Japanese	hai-zara	Ashtray
Semitic	Inflectional	Hebrew	beyt xolim	Hospital
Semitic	Inflectional	Arabic	فنجان قهوة <i>finjaan-u qahwat-in</i>	coffee cup
Blato Slavic	Inflectional	Russian	Samolët	Airplane
Indic	Inflectional	Hindi	Màbap	mother father
Sino-Tibetan	Isolating	Chinese	Súsóng	law suit

What can be observed from the examples illustrated in Table 2 above is that nominal compounds are composed of at least two constituents (free morphs/lexemes) which are not interposed by any modifier element, so they are lexically integrated constituents. It can also be noticed that the relationship between these two constituents in most of the examples looks like modifier-modifiee or modifiee-modifier. In the following sections we discuss what compounding is about, the classification of compounds, the notion and position of the head, the relationship between the constituents of compounds, and the universality of compounding.

What is Compounding?

There are numerous definitions of compounding in linguistic literature. For instance, Bauer (2001) defines a compound as a lexical unit made up of two or more elements, each functioning as a lexeme independent of other lexemes in other contexts and showing "some phonological and/or grammatical isolation from normal syntactic usage" (p. 695). It can be observed that this definition is not adequate because some phonological and/or grammatical isolation from normal syntactic usage is not precisely identified. Furthermore, Bauer (1998) argues that "if there were a distinct line between a compound and a phrase, we would expect prototypical examples of each, but this is not the case" (p. 81).

It can be stated that compounds are the morphological constructions which are closest to syntactic constructions, to the point that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between compounds and phrases. Therefore, a complete database of syntactic universals should also include compounding. Spencer (forthcoming, p. 25) points out that compounding types derive historically from types of syntactic constructions and adds that "we should not be surprised to find that compounds are often similar in their structure to ordinary syntactic phrases ... like phrases, many compounds have structure in which there is a main word, the head and a non-head usually functioning as a modifier" (p. 25). Let us illustrate this in the following Standard Arabic nominal compounds in (4-8) below.

4. دم الأخوين *dam-u al-ʔaxawwayn-i*

blood-nom the-brother-dual-gen

Literally: 'The blood of the two brothers'

'Dragon's blood'

5. أبو ظبي *abu dhaab-i*

father-nom deer-gen-indef

'Abu Dhabi' (The name of one of the major cities in United Arab Emirates (UAE)).

6. رأس مال *raas-u maal-in*

head-nom money-gen-indef

'Capital'

7. فنجان قهوة *finjaan-u qahwat-in*

cup-nom coffee-gen-indef

'Coffee cup'

8. خير البرية *xayyr-u al-bariyat-i*

best-nom the-people-gen

'The Prophet Mohammad'

These Standard Arabic nominal compounds are syntactically formed, and gradually have become lexically integrated.

Olsen (2000) defines a compound as the composition which is defined by the combining of two existing stems to form a new stem.

Composition has come to be viewed in current linguistic work as the process of concatenating two existing stems from the lexicon of a language to form a new, more complex stem which has the potential to enter the lexicon as a stable morphological unit. (Olsen, 2000, p. 899)

This definition has also a series of problems. For example, it takes for granted that the constituents in a compound are stems but this is only true for some languages and it does not hold for other languages, as in English compounds: 'teeth marks' and 'morphology'. Moreover, not all compounds productively created enter the lexicon: often a compound serves the function of a nonce word, ending its life right after it has been created.

Furthermore, there are two fundamental approaches to the nature of a compound. The first approach sees a compound as a particular construction type, an entity with a formal definition. The second approach views a compound as a lexical type with certain criteria. That is, according to these approaches, 'blackboard' is counted as a compound of English but 'university teaching staff' is not counted as a compound of English by those who view compounds as lexical types on the ground that they arise through the productive use of syntactic rules, but is a compound by those who view compounds as a construction type.

Moreover, the notion of compounding found in the literature is determined by the theoretical choices made by the authors. It can also be pointed out that the notion 'compound' stands halfway between word and phrase.

Bauer (2008) states that "compounds viewed as a construction type are universal, but compounds as lexical entities are not" (p. 721). Thus, compounding can be viewed as a lexeme formation process used to create a new lexeme by the combination of at least two lexemes tightly integrated. This is illustrated in Arabic nominal compounds in (9) and (10):

9. دم الأخوين *dam-u al-ʔaxaween-i*

blood-nom the-brother-dual-gen

Literally: 'The blood of the two brothers'

'Dragon's blood'

10. خير البرية *xayyr-u al-bariyat-i*

best-nom the-people-gen

'The Prophet Mohammad'

The Classification of Compounds

The classification of compounds in the world's languages has recently received much attention in linguistic analysis. Traditionally, the classification of compounds was mainly based on the distinction of Sanskrit compounds in at least three fundamental classes: *dvandva*, *tatpuruṣa*, and *bahuvrīhi* which continue to be used, in whole or in part today (Bloomfield, 1933; Benveniste, 1967; Marchand, 1969; Spencer, 1991; and Fabb, 2001, among others). Dvandva compounds denote an entity that is the sum of the entities in the compound, e.g. *Austria-Hungary*. Tatpuruṣa compounds are the type in which there is a clear modifier-head structure, e.g. *raincloud*. Bahuvrīhi compounds refer to an entity which is not designated by any of the constituents, e.g. *sabre tooth*.

On the other hand, Bauer (2006) indicates that compounds can be classified in a number of ways, none of which appears to be totally satisfactory. According to Bisetto & Scalise (2005), the most salient problem in the classification of compounds has to do with the heterogeneous nature of the criteria adopted. They argue that this classification does not clearly distinguish between semantic and grammatical criteria. They propose a new classification of compounds which can be universal. This classification is based mainly on the idea that each level of analysis and classification must be consistently based on a single, homogeneous criterion. They propose that the first level is based only on the implicit grammatical relations between the constituents of the compound. According to Bisetto & Scalise (2005), the constituents of compounds are linked by a grammatical relation that is not overtly expressed. Therefore, they suggest that the grammatical relations holding between the constituents of a compound are basically the relations holding between the constituents of a syntactic construction: subordination (whenever there is a complement relation between the constituents; for example, *taxi driver* in which *taxi* is clearly the complement of the deverbal head or where the non-head is interpreted as the internal argument of the verb that underlies the deverbal head); attribution (which is formed either by an adjective and a noun, where the adjective expresses a property and is in a modifier relation to the noun or by two nouns, where the non-head very often is used somehow metaphorically and expresses an attribute of the head or where the non-head functions as mere property and is neither referential nor semantically complete; for example, in *snail mail* and *sword fish* the *snail* and *sword* function as modifiers); and coordination (whose constituents are tied by the conjunction 'and' for instance 'poet-painter and mother-child'). Bisetto & Scalise (2005) also propose that the second level of classification is based on the distinction between endocentric and exocentric compounds and presented these classifications of compound in the following diagram:

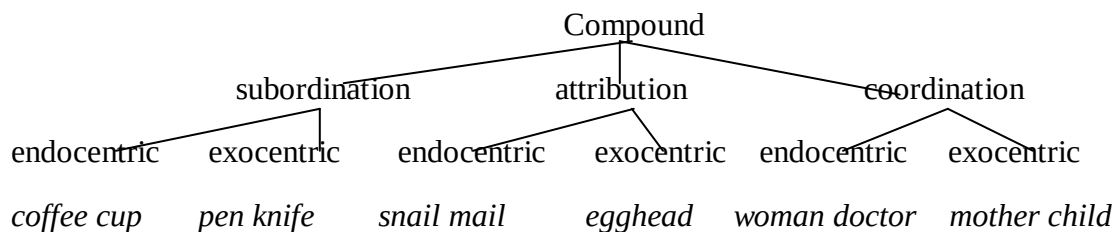


Figure 1: Bisetto & Scalise's (2005, p. 3) Classification of Compounds

The Notion and Position of Head

The identification of the head constituent in a compound has witnessed much considerable research attention in linguistics analyses. In the early nineteenth century, it is assumed that the head in a compound is the right head constituent (Lieber, 1980 and Williams, 1981) whereas in the middle of the nineteenth century it is argued that in some languages the head is left headed constituent (Scalise, 1983 and Corbin, 1987). Moreover, in the late nineteenth century, it is found that Chinese has right headed compound nouns and left headed compound verbs (Li & Thompson, 1981).

The head of a construction is the central part and is of two types: a formal head and a semantic head. It is so important for analyzing any linguistic constructions. The formal head of a compound is the constituent which percolates to the whole compound all of its formal features. The whole compound has the same distributional properties of its formal head. The semantic head of a compound is the constituent which percolates to the whole compound all of its lexical conceptual information. However, the notion of the formal head has a greater value than that of the semantic head (Bisetto & Scalise, 2005). On the basis of the presence and absence of head in compounds, there are two types of compounds: endocentric and exocentric. In endocentric compounds, the formal and semantic heads coincide most of times, e.g., *taxi driver*, فنجان قهوة *finjaan-u qahwat-in* 'coffee cup', etc. However, assigning head status to either constituent is not so easy. For example, in some cases the formal head and semantic head can be assigned to any constituent, e.g., *poet painter*. In exocentric compounds, the formal head and semantic head cannot be assigned to any constituent, e.g., *skinhead*, دم الأخوين *dam-u al-?axwwayn-i* 'dragon's blood'. This can also be supported by Standard Arabic nominal compounds as illustrated in Figure 2.

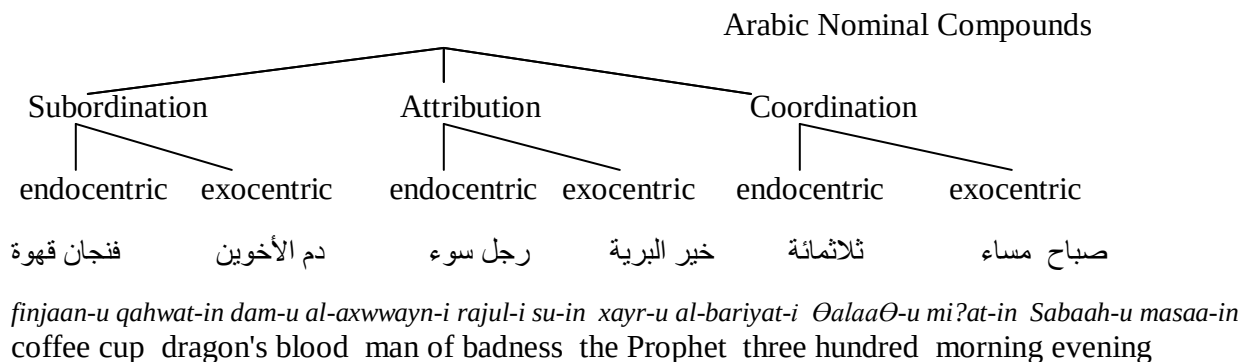


Figure 2: The Classification of Arabic Nominal Compounds

From Diagram 2 above, it appears that the classification of Standard Arabic nominal compounds can provide support to Bisetto & Scalise's (2005) universal classification of compounds.

Thus, it can be noticed that the position of head is not a principle but a parameter. Selkirk (1982) argues that "right headedness is a parameter" (p. 21). Selkirk (1982) also points out that the majority of nominal compounds are "endocentric constructions" (p. 19). In Standard Arabic and English the head is on the right side and the majority of nominal compounds of both languages are endocentric. This can be illustrated in the following examples in (11-14) cited from English and Standard Arabic:

11. housewife
12. tea cart
13. كتاب الطالب *kitaab-u al-Taalib-i*
book-nom the-student-gen
'The student book'
14. دليل المعلم *dali:l-u al-muʿalim-i*
guide-nom the-teacher-gen
'The teacher guide'

The Implicit Grammatical Relations between the Constituents of Compounds

Compounds are composed of at least two constituents tightly integrated. They have lexical integrity. It can be observed that no modifier can be interposed between them. They are composed of two lexemes functioning as head and non-head, i.e., they have binary structures. Compounding is formally a morphological process with lexical and syntactic implications. The grammatical relationships between the constituents of the compounds are not overtly expressed (Bisetto & Scalise, 2005). It can be pointed out that the possible grammatical relationships hold between the two constituents of compounds: subordination, attribution and coordination. Table 3 illustrates the implicit grammatical relationships between the constituents of compounds cited from different typological languages.

Table 3: Examples of the implicit grammatical relationships between the constituents of compounds cited from different typological languages

Languages	Typological Classification	Examples		
		Subordination	Attribution	Coordination
English	Inflectional	taxi driver	Keyword	fighter bomber
Arabic	Inflectional	صانع أحذية saani?-u ʔahðiyat-in maker-nom shoes- gen-indef 'a maker of shoes'	رجل سوء rajul-u suw-in man-nom badness-gen- indef 'a man of badness'	خمسمائة xamasat-u maʔaat- in five-nom hundred- gen-indef 'Five hundred'
Chinese	Isolating	Niúnái cow milk	Zûmû ancestor mother paternal grandmother	Féngyú wind and rain hardship

Turkish	Agglutinative	otobüs bilet-i bus ticket	büyük baba grandfather	kadin doctor woman doctor

From Table 3 it can be observed that the grammatical relationships between the constituents of compounds in these typologically different languages are similar to those between the constituents of the syntactic units but the relationships between the constituents of compounds are implicit, and not explicit. It can also be observed that subordinate and attributive relations between the constituents of compounds are more common than coordinate compounds. Guevara & Scalise (2008) argue that the endocentric subordinate right head $[N + N]_N$ construction is the most productive type and "is certainly the canonical instance in compounding in the world's languages" (p. 26).

The Universality of Compounding

It is not clear whether or not all languages have compounds. In this connection, Bauer (2006) argues that "Claims that [all languages] have compounds can be found in the literature; so can claims in grammars of individual languages that compounds are not found in that language" (p. 721). The objective of this paper is to examine whether compounding is a universal process and whether it is a construction type or a lexical type. Fabb (2001) stresses that the exocentric, endocentric, and appositional types /or the various interpretative types (modifier-modifiee, complement-predicator, etc.) are commonly widespread across languages. Furthermore, Fabb (2001) observes that there are compound types which are language or language family specific, such as the Japanese post syntactic compounds, Hebrew construct state nominals, Mandarin resultative verb compounds. Fabb indicates that other types of compounds are found intermittently; these include synthetic compounds, incorporation compounds, and reduplication compounds.

Besides, there is no exact decision whether or not all languages have compounds. Given this, Greenberg (1963) shows that "There are probably no languages without either compounding, affixing, or both. In other words, there are probably no purely isolating languages" (p. 92). Greenberg stresses that there are also a considerable number of languages without inflection, perhaps none without compounding and derivation. Hence, Greenberg (1963) points out that compounding is a universal process and that it is found in almost all languages.

Furthermore, the question which arises here is: which types of compounds can be universal and which ones can be specific to a particular language? Bauer (2006) states that compounds which are viewed as a construction type are universal but compounds treated as lexical entities are not. Bauer (2006) indicates that "Because the problem has not been recognized in the literature, it is impossible to be sure" (p. 721).

In addition, much work has been devoted to compounding in theoretical linguistics in the last decades (Bloomfield, 1933; Lees, 1963; and Levi, 1978, among others). However, there is no explicit mention of possible universals in compounding. Spencer (2006) points out that "If we think of morphology as the study of word structure, we are greatly hampered by the fact that we

have no really good understanding of what constitute a universal characterization of morphological wordhood" (Spencer, 2006, p. 129).

In this context, Tomasello (2003), as cited in Guevara & Scalise (2008, p. 4), claims that "universals are not to be found in particular linguistic constructions, but rather must be looked for in different, higher order levels of analysis" (p. 5). Tomasello (2003) argues that universals are macro-concepts. Hence, universals can be found in compounding because compounding is a communicative process and its existence is motivated by human communication purposes, therefore, compounding serves the function of effectively compressing the information that is contained in an utterance and also offers a rich source of metaphoricity, for example, *snail mail*, دم الأخوين *dam al-?axwwayn*.

Moreover, the implicit grammatical relationships between the constituents of a compound are not exclusive to compounding: they are shared by syntactic constructions. The grammatical relationships between the constituents of a compound allow a homogeneous grouping of compounds of different languages. All languages equally share the capacity of merging two constituents together. Downing (1977) asserts that "a compound may be highly transparent semantically when it is coined, but once it has been accepted by the community as a conventionalized noun, it may come to be as arbitrary as any mono-morphemic" (p. 820).

Conclusion

On the basis of the data analyzed, it has been found that universal nominal compounding is a morphological lexeme formation process with lexical and syntactic implications. It is a morphological process which is used to create new lexemes out of the existing lexemes, by concatenating at least two lexemes. There are implicit grammatical relationships between the constituents of the compounds which can gradually become unnoticed by the passage of time, and then they become lexicalized. Most of the productive nominal compounds are endocentric in which the formal and semantic heads coincide. However, the position of the head is parameter and not a principle. That is, a language compound can be left, right or both left and right headed. Furthermore, on the basis of the implicit grammatical relationships between the constituents of compounds in the typologically different languages, it has also been observed that the endocentric subordinate is more productive than other types. This has been supported by Arabic nominal compounds such as:

15. تشرید الأطفال *tashri:d-u al-?aTafaal-i*

expelling-nom the-children-gen

'Expelling the children'

16. حرق الخيام *harq-u al-xiyaam-i*

firing-nom the-tents-gen

'Firing the tents'

17. قطع الطريق *qaTʔ-u al-Tari:q-i*

cut-nom the-road-gen

'Cutting the road'

18. صانع الأحذية *Saani:ʕ-u al-ʔahḏiyat-i*

maker-nom the-shoes-pl-gen

'Shoes Maker '

19. مهندس السيارات *muhandis-u al-syyaarat-i*

repairer-nom the-cars-pl-gen

'Repairer of cars'

It has been found that nominal compounding in Standard Arabic is a productive process of lexeme formation. This process produces compounds having the same features as those of other languages' compounds.

Besides, the study has shown that compounding is a universal formation process used to create new lexemes by concatenating at least two lexemes holding an implicit grammatical relation. It has demonstrated that no modifier can be interposed between the constituents of a compound, since these constituents are lexically integrated. On the basis of the data presented in this paper, it has been illustrated that compounding as universal process is a morphological process with lexical and syntactic properties. Compounding creates more often compounds and constituents holding subordinate relationships, which are endocentric.

About the authors:

Dr. Abdul-Hafeed Ali Fakih holds an MA, M.Phil, and PhD in Linguistics and is Associate Professor at the Department of English, Ibb University, where he was the Dean of Center of Languages. He taught linguistics in different universities in Yemen and abroad. He published many papers on morpho-syntax and semantics of Standard Arabic and Arabic dialects in different international journals. He supervised many MA and PhD students in different universities. His interests focus on morph-syntax, semantics, phonetics & phonology, contrastive studies, translation and applied linguistics. He is currently teaching linguistics for BA and MA students at the Department of English, Najran University, Saudi Arabia. He is a member of different editorial and reviewer boards of international journals (USA, Canada, Finland, India, Malaysia, KSA, and Yemen).

Dr. Nadia Ali Al-Shawafi holds an MA and PhD in Linguistics and is Assistant Professor at the Department of English, Ibb University, Republic of Yemen. Her interests focus on morphology, syntax, phonetics, phonology, language studies, and contrastive studies. She is currently teaching linguistics for BA students at the Department of English, Faculty of Arts, Ibb University.

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Metaphor and Action Embodiment in the Glorious Quran

As'ad J. Abu Libdeh

Applied Science Private University
Jordon

Abstract

This paper investigates how man is metaphorically conceptualized in the Quran, and how metaphor embodies his actions. The main aim is to arrive at a better understanding of the Quranic discourse, see how metaphor gives structure to human actions which bring him either salvation or damnation on Doomsday. Embodiment refers to all man's biological capacities and his physical and social experiences that he lives in his environment and which are executed by his different organs and senses. The article presents a brief contrast between the pious body and the secular body, an overview of the development of metaphorical thought and the dialectical relationship between language, man and nature. I have collected all man-related metaphoric verses from the Quran by referring to every single organ of man's body; and these organs were addressed top-to-bottom and front-to-back in terms of order and then analyzed in terms of the action/s each one of them embodies. To tie analysis down to our life as we experience it and accord it credit and value, it has been boiled down into a number of social and cultural schematic categories. Data analysis yields five social and cultural schemata: (i) Up is dignified. Down is not. (ii) Front is dignified. Back disgraced. (iii) Private should remain private. This is more polite, (iv) Intimacy means closeness. Closeness generates warmth and (v) Physical closeness gives strength.

Key Words: action embodiment, human body, metaphor, Quran, schemata,

1- Introduction

This paper investigates the human body actions as metaphorically embodied in the Quran; though a number of traditions by the Prophet are occasionally cited. It exhaustively examines how man (used generically), and how the actions of his diverse body organs are conceptualized in the Quran via metaphor.¹ This will enable us to better understand the Quranic discourse, see how metaphor gives expression to human actions and which of these worldly actions make of him a winner or a loser on Doomsday. The paper can be considered a study of both metaphor and religion.

“Embodiment” is of growing importance in Cognitive Linguistics especially since the 1980s (Lakoff 1980, Lakoff and Johnson 2003, Lakoff and Turner 1989, Johnson 1990, Kövecses 2007), and has to do with the organism interaction with the social and cultural environment and with the physiological and neurophysiological influences on his mind. Lakoff (1987:267) defines embodiment as “our collective biological capacities and our physical and social experiences as beings functioning in our environment.” This means that parts of our conceptual system and therefore some aspects of our language are structured by the features, parts and functions of our bodies in everyday life. Our conceptual system is mirrored in language patterns such as the systematic use of metaphor.

The study is almost wholly based on George Lakoff's theory of Cognitive Linguistics which means that the individual's life is influenced to a great extent by the central metaphors he uses to interpret complex phenomenon. In *Metaphors We Live By* (1980), Lakoff started using applications to his theory in politics, literature, philosophy and other disciplines. Among many other things, he addressed the Conservatives and the Liberals and how they were influenced by certain metaphorical models (e.g. strict father model vs. nutrient father model.) According to him, man's experience is influenced by and framed in certain linguistic constructions. His theory is known as *embodied mind*. Lakoff successfully argues that metaphor is a conceptual construction and is indeed central to the development of thought. He believes that our conceptual system is basically metaphorical in nature. Metaphor, on the other hand, is generally seen as a linguistic construction in the Western rhetoric.

Embodiment, as we have seen, refers to all the experiences, perceptions and practices that the human body organs intentionally engage in. Intentionality entails human body accountability for what it does and ruling out the biological perception of the body as a mere object that can be acted upon or as a mere experiencer (of pain, for example.) This is not the kind of body we are interested in; we are interested in that kind of body that members of a culture endow themselves with in order to come into relation with Allah, the Creator, to whom they posit themselves.

This brings into play a contrast, albeit indirectly, between the pious body as exemplified in the Quran and the secular body as is “lived” nowadays in many parts of the world. Any study of contemporary religious traditions necessitates some engagement with their dialectical partner, the secular. “Secular” is closely attached nowadays to what many people call modernity and its defining forms of knowledge and practice. According to Hirschkind, C. (2011), the religious emphasizes the pious sensorium or the embodied aptitudes and affects necessary for the achievement of a virtuous life. Pious people usually reshape their wills, desires and emotions in accord with religion; the secular emphasize the secular sensorium or sensibilities that give shape to a secular life based on a system of moral truth and founded on rationalist, utilitarian and materialist principles.

The human body has assumed a lively presence on the anthropological scene and on the stage of interdisciplinary cultural studies (e.g. Feminism, religions, etc.). Until very recently, it was seen as a constant, subject to biological rules existing prior to the mutability and flux of cultural change. But nowadays it is no longer a *brute fact of nature*, to quote Csordas (1994:1); nor should it be understood as a constant amidst flux but as an epitome of that flux. (Ibid. p. 2). The consumer culture (e.g. companies of fabrics, perfumes, movies, etc.) has changed it into a performing self of appearance and display focusing primarily on the mental image of the body as it appears to others, on the outer appearance. And Technology has made the merger of the biological with the technological possible so much that the technological man has become a familiar figuration of the subject of postmodernity, according to Balsam (1995).

The more you know your body, the better you know your God: "He who knows himself, knows Allah"ⁱⁱ - by contemplation, the Prophet says. Thus man comes to know God's existence from his own creation, from the wonders of his bodily frame Allah's power and wisdom, and from the ample provision made for his various needs His love. In this way the knowledge of oneself becomes a key to the knowledge of his Creator.

In the Quran, the human body is a sacred object that cannot and must not be tampered with. Describing His creation of man Allah says that it is He "Who created you, proportioned you, and balanced you."ⁱⁱⁱ He also says "We have certainly created man *in the best of stature*"^{iv}; this best stature includes both frame or body and brain. The body is the object that carries out what the brain or the subject tells it to do. It incorporates the engine and the *embedded technology* that distinguishes it from all other creations: the human body is created in such a way, as is the case with all divine creations, that each of its organs does its assigned function in the best unmatched way. Allah, therefore, invites man to meditate how miraculously he has been created.^v Therefore, any interference in the creation of Allah (i.e. man's body) such as tattooing or cosmetic surgeries is sinful, given that Allah is the best of all creators.^{vi} Interference in one's body implies dissatisfaction on part of the manipulator.

2- A Metaphorical Overview: Man, Language and Nature

The relation between metaphor and the human body is not new. According to Johnson (1990), there is abundant evidence that the world of the body and the body of the world have something in common: people speak of angry sky, social ills, economic recovery; they also describe the human mind as computer. In these cases, where an object is named through its resemblance to a certain part of the human body, or the human mind in terms of a machine, a permanent metaphorical transfer occurs.

Traditionally, metaphor, simile and analogy are based on similarity; Metonymy and synecdoche' on contiguity. Metaphor emphasizes that "A is B", simile emphasizes both A and B. Contiguity-based metaphoric expressions reify objects limiting them to the concrete.

Rueckert et al (1982) claim that the essential value of metaphor resides in its creative capacity to discover new ways of thinking. They cross and join different kinds of categories which, in reality, cannot be joined. They transfer reality: when someone says, for example, "John is a wolf", he transfers *John*, the human being, into a certain kind of animal, with neither category retaining its original characteristics. The result is a new entity which neither belongs to mankind nor to that certain predator. All salient properties of the vehicle are applied to the tenor (Kirmayer, 1992). What we get in fact is a "Jolf", a term coined from "John" and "wolf"; though

the traits of the wolf are more dominating. This is new concept, a new experience. Black claims that it creates a new perspective in reality; while Johnson (1990:70) suggests that it creates a new referent. Metaphors, therefore, transcend nature creating new relationships and new realities. They are, therefore, assertive, whereas similes are hypothetical. This means that metaphor externalizes thinking, facilitates learning, labels new concepts and provides frameworks for ideas. Ortony (1975) goes one step further as he claims that the acquisition of new knowledge is not possible without the use of metaphor (Cited in Chuang, 2012: 262).

The most important twist in the handling of metaphor, however, was made by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) as they showed that metaphor is characteristic of thought and action. Many abstract concepts such as time, purpose and causality have metaphorical underpinnings. Lakoff (1991) claims that metaphor gives structure to, and organizes action. Lakoff (1992) uses "cross-domain mappings" (instead of the traditional terms tenor and vehicle) to refer to the interaction between different worlds. However, Lakoff's primary contribution to the metaphor theory is probably the multifaceted "conceptual metaphor" which he takes as a systematic mode of thought.

Johnson (1990, p. xix) observes that human bodily movement involves "recurring patterns...without which our experience would be chaotic and incomprehensible". Johnson calls these patterns "image schemata"; these image schemata are organized, unified, repeatable, irreducible, and function as abstract structures of images (ibid, p. 44). These patterns emerge as meaning structures primarily at the level of bodily movements and help us make sense of the world around us. Johnson also distinguishes between image schema and mental image which he describes as a *static concept* in the collective brain relating to a certain idea (e.g. capitalism.)

Thus we are before different picturing modes which give expression to our experience: the traditional figures of speech, the conceptual metaphor, the mental image and the schemata. And though Lakoff and Johnson overstretched the role of embodied experience to include all kinds of experience and overlooked the factors of, *inter alia*, language evolution, gender, individual physical ability and culture diversity, yet no one can deny their effort in showing how bodily experience generates schemata.

Elaborating further on Lakoff's work on metaphor, Grady (1997) distinguishes between two kinds of metaphor: primary metaphors and complex metaphors (cited in Kövecses, 2010: 202). Primary metaphors function at a fairly local and specific level of conceptualization and hence in the brain (e.g. *HAPPY IS UP. SAD IS DOWN.*) Complex metaphors, on the other hand, are composed of primary metaphors in addition to our cultural belief relating to them (e.g. *A PURPOSEFUL LIFE IS A JOURNEY.*)

Gibbs et al (2012) explain how certain metaphorical patterns evolve and claim that they self-organize. They claim, for example, that zebras self-organize their skin lines and spots, and that snowflakes can evolve via the exchange of thermal energy from one water molecule to another. Thus the emergence of new shapes is unintentional; so is the creation of new metaphors. By saying this, I believe, Gibbs et al deny that there is an external force (i.e. the Creator) that gives shape to, and organizes the certain pattern of zebra skin stripes via genes and snowflakes shape through strict thermal scientific rules that He has put in advance in everything He created.

Al-Masieri (2002) rightly notes that figures of speech change as the community changes; its concepts and cognition frames, therefore, can be studied through the study of the types and evolution of metaphor.

Metaphors have also shaped our understanding of the body as a whole and of the organs of the body. A man of an erect build is a man of good health; that of a bowed back is sickly. Wrinkles, baldness and white hair make a schema of an aging human being; a soft, wrinkles-free face and black hair create a schema of a youthful human being. Martin (1992) observes that "cultural gender norms are 'written' on male and female through behavior, make-up and dress". Males are disgraced in case they walk, talk, or sit like females. The same applies to females. But these gender distinctions are disappearing: there are unisex clothes; feminine talk and masculine talk are not as distinct as they used to be because of, among other things, coeducation and unrestricted mixing at work. Even natural sex has been tampered with by lesbians and homosexuals. Man is trying to make the two gender metaphors into one. He is fighting against himself. Martin observes that we are witnessing the end of one kind of body and the beginning of another. Should this happen, a new kind of experience would be replacing an already existing one.

Martin (1992) notes that virtually everybody cell carries distinctive molecules that identifies it as "self"; everybody is a special "trade mark" and has a special fingerprint and special eye print, special DNA and an immunity system which, on its own, makes a big metaphor: with white cells functioning as warriors which fight invaders, kill them and clean the scene by devouring the dead bodies of the invading enemy. This is a schema of war as the human body is taken as a castle which has defenders and enemies.

Man, however, has got nothing to do with his uniqueness or even with the automatic internal functioning of his systems. These are operated in a way that has never changed or evolved, and therefore they are given blessings by the Creator. Human agency in this concern is absolutely absent. Man is not accountable for them, but only for his conscious, intentional daily life actions.

The relationship between the human body and language is dialectic and circular: bodily experience is communicated and elaborated in language; and language, in turn, is grounded in bodily experiences and provides the lexicon necessary to make reference to the organization of bodily action (Kirmayer: 1992). Meaning resides not only in the relationships between concepts but also in their connection to the body skills and practices. This is because metaphor expresses something that the body knows well how to do. It provides ways of acting on our representations, or making presentation to others that transform the conventional representations and unpack new meanings.

While dealing with body metaphors, we observe that there is correspondence between particular parts of the body and particular action: hand with work or charity; eyes with espionage; head with obstinacy; face with social standing, specific personal/corporal identity; nose with excessive curiosity, and so on.

3- Man in the Quran

According to Al-Masieri (2002), Man is a *Godly, natural* creature who comes out of his mother's womb and who is part of nature but is not attributable to it. He lives in a certain "world" and in a certain "time" that define him but has inside him some divine elements that can by no means ascribed to time and/or to nature systems. He has been created for a worthy reason and, therefore, his life in this world is meaningful; and his life is not "repeated cycles" in the world of the material.

Al-Masieri states that man is an *organic world* (vs. mechanic) driven by an embedded organic mechanism; therefore, he is accountable for what he does whether good or bad. As an *organic* entity, he is bigger than the total sum of his organs which function collectively to salvage or otherwise bring torture to the whole body on Doomsday. He is the only creature who is accorded a will to do or refrain from doing a certain action. In this world, he is given full control over all his organs. On Doomsday, he loses control over his organs. His tongue, hands, legs and skin turn into eye witnesses that give testimony against him in case he is doomed.^{vii} The relationship between his organs in this life is one of interdependence and cohesion; and they all acquiesce to his commands.

In the Quran, the human body functions according to principles of centralized control; this command and control center is located in man's *naṣiya*^{viii} or forelock which is located in the central front part of the forehead. It is this decision-taking part of the brain which issues orders to the other organs to do their respective actions: the hand to slap or otherwise give charity, the legs to go to a pub or to a mosque, and so on. Thus we are before a full-fledged schema: a commander who issues orders and a slave who obeys. The scene for these actors is the world within reach. Everything man does is registered^{ix}: the good and the bad.

Man's sins, however, can be forgiven via a mechanism called *tawbah* (i.e. repentance) which remains effective as long as he is alive and conscious. The mechanism is similar to that of the immunity system: while the latter repeatedly cleanses the body from invaders, the former repeatedly cleanses his sins irrespective of quantity and quality provided that he remains monotheistic. This can be said in light of certain names of Allah such as *Ghaffūr* and *Ghaffār* each of which means "All-forgiving", with the former meaning forgiving sins irrespective of the quality or nature of sins and the latter meaning forgiving all sins irrespective of quantity. The names '*Affuw* (i.e. Ever pardoning) and *Tawwāb* (i.e. Accepting of repentance) have the same effect. In this regard, I am inclined to see each of the former four names of Allah (i.e. *Ghaffūr* and *Ghaffār*, '*Affuw* and *Tawwāb*) as a mental image as each depicts a certain attribute of Allah who keeps forgiving, pardoning and/or accepting repentance as long as His servants pray for that. Thus we are before a mechanism by which man can cleanse his soul from sins; one that is not different from that by which he can defend and cleanse his body from germs and bacteria.

In the Quran, the umbrella of 'brotherhood' subsumes all mankind. There are three kinds of brotherhood: biological brotherhood, faith brotherhood,^x and homeland brotherhood.^{xi} The strongest of these bonds is the second.^{xii} Each kind of brotherhood entails different rights and obligations. "Indeed, the believers are brothers", the Quran states.^{xiii} It is interesting to note in this concern that *akh* (i.e. brother) in Islam has two plurals: *ekhwa* and *ekhwān* with the former referring generally to blood relationship and the latter to faith relationship.

In times of war, Allah likes Muslims who fight for His cause to be like the strongly built construction.^{xiv} MUSLIMS ARE A STRONGLY-BUILT CONSTRUCTION is a conceptual metaphor. All these verses and Traditions evoke the *as-self* schema of Muslims in relation to each other. Non-Muslims are brothers in humanity and accorded the schema of 'other-self' with 'self' joining both Muslims and non-Muslims and tracing them back to their common father: Adam.

The second schema is the "shepherd" concept.^{xv} This metaphor entails the presence of cattle which should be taken care of, and a supreme authority before which the shepherd is accountable for. The cattle is made up of Muslims (and their homeland brothers), while the authority is Allah. A relevant analogy in this concern is the Tradition which states that "The believers in their mutual kindness, compassion and sympathy are just like one body, when one of the limbs is afflicted, the whole body responds to it with wakefulness and fever".^{xvi}

Man, as an intact unit, is characterized (through metonymy) as having five integral traits: (a) Man has certainly been created in the best of stature,^{xvii} (b) he is always in a rush to achieve his goals as if he is made of haste,^{xviii} (c) he is also in an ongoing time-loss as every second or fraction of a second of his life passes is irretrievable,^{xix} (d) he has been created into toil and struggle,^{xx} and (e) and he has been created in a state of weakness.^{xxi} Of course, man lives these social experiences every moment of his life when he sees by himself how exalted he is in terms of his physique and stature, the rush he lives in his daily life, the sorrow he feels as he sees wrinkles on his face and white hair on his head, the toil he experiences as he goes through test after test and through ongoing dilemmas in this life and how weak he is in both his childhood and old age. All these metaphors are cases of different types of simple or compound metonymy; but we need not elaborate this further.^{xxii} At the same time the last four metaphors are cases of hyperbole; a phenomenon Sweetser (2005a) calls harmony between metaphors.

4- Man's organs and their respective embodied experiences

I shall now examine how metaphor gives expression to the actions executed by his various organs. I shall start with the high-to-low organs of the front longitudinal section of the human body and later with the back longitudinal section. Where necessary, a meronymic partitioning will be done.

Head or *Ra's* is the upper part of everything and includes, *inter alia*, the brain and the face. The main features of the face are the forehead, mouth, eyes, nose, and ears; the first has a cultural value (e.g. dignity) whereas the rest have the sensory functions of smell, sight, hearing and taste respectively.

The head is the most obvious icon of dignity: people who raise their heads are dignified; those who hang them are humiliated.^{xxiii} This is a socio-cultural value. It also signifies old age when it is covered with white hair: praying to His Lord to grant him a successor before he perishes Prophet Zakariya says "...and my head *has glistened with white hair*" (vs. the hair of my head doeth glisten with grey).^{xxiv} This makes of the utterance a case of a figure of intellect,^{xxv} a synecdoche' and a hyperbole at the same time. Old age here is conceptualized as a change in physiology that can be visually seen and lived.

Face or *wajh* is used as a synecdoche' of man.^{xxvi} It is also the place which reflects happiness and/or misery. Happy faces will lit up with *white* out of happiness; miserable faces which lived a

sinful life will be *black* out of humiliation.^{xxvii} This is a cultural model using psychology as a support for the conceptualization of salvation and/or damnation and is captured in this conceptual causative metonymy.^{xxviii} Happiness is conceptualized as a change in physiology that can be seen in the flesh. Damned people will have their eyes made blue (with terror) on Doomsday.^{xxix} Again this is psychological experience that the sinful experience on that day.

Mouths or *Afwāh* is used vis-à-vis hearts and/or chests. This is probably due to the fact that hearts and chests are more sincere than the tongue as they are containers of real intentions.^{xxx} "Mouths" is used once as a container containing hatred,^{xxxi} or as an instrument to extinguish the light of Allah.^{xxxii} Mouths, however, will be sealed off on Doomsday;^{xxxiii} an experience which takes effect only on that day as man will not be living in his normal social and physical environment.

Tongue or *lisān* is used as an instrument standing for language,^{xxxiv} fluency or lack of fluency,^{xxxv} as an instrument of slander^{xxxvi} or otherwise of modest behavior^{xxxvii}. It is also uniquely used to capture body language.^{xxxviii} All these functions are socio-cultural concepts. On Doomsday, however, the tongue will stand as an eye witness.^{xxxix}

Voice or *ṣawt* is a (causative) metonymy of the tongue and is socially and culturally used as a sign of mannerly behavior.^{xl}

Eye or *‘ain* is used to cover a myriad of conceptual experiences in the Quranic discourse: evaluation and assessment,^{xli} passing judgment,^{xlii} showing care and affection,^{xliii} observation,^{xliv} coveting,^{xlvi} publicity,^{xlvi} chastity,^{xlvi} treachery,^{xlvi} humiliation,^{xlix} punishment,^l tranquility,^{li} excessive passion,^{lii} pleasure,^{liii} negligence^{liv} and extreme horror^{lv}. None of these 15 experiences is concrete. There are also two instances where we have a combination of hyperbole and Kināya depicting the state of the companions of the Prophet: (their) eyes overflowing with tears (vis-à-vis tears overflowing from their eyes)^{lvi}. This accords the experience unmatched uniqueness and calls to mind *Eyes Are Rivers* schema. A similar unique hybrid metaphor of metonymy and hyperbole obtains when the unbelievers *Put Their Eyes In A Cover* to avoid remembering Allah; in thus doing, they make of the cover a container and their eyes something contained.^{lvii} This is reminiscent of The Arabic analogy *X PUTS HIS HEAD IN THE SAND* to avoid being seen.

There are many verses in the Quran which urge man to activate the act of seeing into a deliberate act of contemplation.^{lviii} This is equivalent to *SEEING IS UNDERSTANDING* schema—an experience specific to Muslims, nonexistent in disbelievers who do not contemplate issues relating to the real reason of their being in this life.

There are also sight-related terms derived from *abṣara* (i.e. He saw) such as "enlightenment", "insight" and "visible" (i.e. *baṣāer*, *baṣeera*, and *mubṣera*) that are used figuratively; with the first (a causative metonymy) meaning that "Our signs (the signs of Allah) are easily discernible landmarks"^{lix}, the second (locative metonymy) expressing the Muslim's complete certainty in his faith,^{lx} while the third (causative metonymy) is used as a personifying instrument meaning that "Our signs are so clear and visible that they themselves can see."^{lxi}

Ear or *‘udhun* is ordinarily used as an organ of hearing. In the Quranic discourse, however, this organ/instrument is surprisingly used by unbelievers for *not* hearing faith-related matters;^{lxii} they, therefore, have their ears deafened by Allah for not using them. This is a bizarre socio-

cultural experience equivalent to *HEARING IS UNDERSTANDING*. Hearing here entails a bad consequence: liability. To avoid liability, let's not hear, the disbelievers say to themselves. Sometimes, unbelievers put their whole fingers (vs. fingertips) in their ears so as not to hear the word of truth.^{lxxiii} "Ears" also functions as a container/bottle that can be sealed and as an instrument for exploring the news of the enemy.^{lxxiv}

Neck or *raqaba* metonymically stands for slaves and the act of enslavement to make an appeal to free them.^{lxxv}

Hand or *yad* is used as an instrument which executes, or refrains from executing, action whether good or bad;^{lxxvi} it forges things,^{lxxvii} and/or it could be closed in case it belongs to a miser.^{lxxviii} This brings in the schema of a prisoner whose hand is tied to neck.

Chest or *şadr* is the safe in which the heart is kept;^{lxxix} it is a container which could be expanded in case of happiness and tranquility or otherwise constrained in case of depression and disbelief.^{lxxx} It is also used as a place which hides secrets and real intentions.^{lxxxi} The schema that emerges here is *Valuable Things Should Be Kept In A Safe Place*; or else. It entails bad consequences. It could also be used as a transparent container which transpires resentment,^{lxxxii} pride,^{lxxxiii} distress,^{lxxxiv} fear;^{lxxxv} satisfaction.^{lxxxvi} It is also the place in which Satan whispers evil.^{lxxxvii}

Heart or *qalb* stands for man in a part-to-whole relationship,^{lxxxviii} and is used as the container of true intentions,^{lxxxix} tranquility,^{lxxx} stability and strength,^{lxxxi} sin,^{lxxxii} cruelty^{lxxxiii} and negligence.^{lxxxiv} *Heart*, like *chest*, holds all the characteristics of a container: it could be sound^{lxxxv} and therefore receptive to faith, or sealed^{lxxxvi} thus rendering its owner totally unreceptive to guidance. It could be impenetrably thick^{lxxxvii} (thus making its owner rude or only partially receptive to faith) or repentant,^{lxxxviii} i.e. capable and willing to go back to the right path. Hearts could also be tools for understanding,^{lxxxix} reasoning,^{xc} earning,^{xc} or they could be wrapped,^{xcii} incapable of understanding anything.

Under-the-waist area. Almost in the midst part of the human body there exist the most male and female sensitive parts. The only legitimate sexual relationship between male and female in Islam is that between husband and wife. This relation is referred to euphemistically via two complex metaphors:

(1) نِسَاؤُكُمْ حَرْثٌ لَّكُمْ (223:2)

YOUR WIVES ARE A PLACE OF SOWING OF SEED FOR YOU

(2) هُنَّ لِبَاسٌ لَّكُمْ وَأَنْتُمْ لِبَاسٌ لَّهُنَّ (187:2)

THEY ARE CLOTHING FOR YOU AND YOU ARE CLOTHING FOR THEM

In the first metaphor two remote domains are presented: husband and wife engaged in intercourse on one hand, and a farmer engaged in sowing seeds in his field on the other. Sexual intercourse is quite similar to a farmer ploughing his field in the manner both activities are executed, in terms of the result both parties hope to achieve and in terms of pleasure the relevant

parties reap. This conceptual metaphor conceptualizes a psycho-physical, cultural and social human experience as each spouse needs, satisfies, and literally unites with, the other “half”. The second metaphor provides two domains: the domain of clothing and wearer, and that of husband and wife. It depicts the close relationship between the two spouses as that existing between clothes and their wearer. Both need one another: the elegance and beauty of the garment remains meaningless unless it is worn by somebody, and this “somebody” remains socially rejected if he is not “suitably” dressed. Garments give warmth, cover defects and accords social acceptability to man. Man, on the other hand, accords meaningfulness and recognition to clothes.

Back or *dhahr* is the opposite of the chest. These are opposite in place and in significance: When someone shows his back to the enemy or receives a bullet in his back he is considered a coward. He fails his army and therefore deserves the wrath of Allah.^{xciii} This is a *Kināya*. It is also used to express neglect: when someone neglects something he puts it behind his back.^{xciv} It is also the part which, if overburdened, the entire human body breaks down.^{xcv} These are socio-cultural values.

Shin or *sāq* is idiomatically used to refer to serious events or calamities.^{xcvi}

Leg or *rijl* is used by way of personification as an eye witness who will testify against its possessor on the Doomsday in case he is a wrongdoer.^{xcvii}

Foot or *qadam* is the tool that accords man with firmness while walking;^{xcviii} and the tool with which to execute humiliating punishment.^{xcix}

Skin or *jild* is used as a responsive autonomous part which shivers from fear of Allah and then relaxes at His remembrance in case it belongs to a Muslim.^c It will also stand as an eyewitness in the Doomsday testifying against its possessor in case he is sinful.^{ci}

5- Results

Five socio-cultural schemata emerge from the data above.

Schema One: UP IS DIGNIFIED. DOWN IS NOT.

In the Quranic discourse, Allah is the most High^{cii}; He has the highest attribute.^{ciii} The believers are the highest or the most superior.^{civ} Recognizing this attribute, Pharaoh described himself as the most exalted lord^{cv}. The Paradise is high^{cvi}; the record of the believers is in ‘*illiyin*’^{cvi} which is in the seventh/highest sky; whereas that of the wicked is in *sijjeen*,^{cvi} down in Hell.

Hypocrites on Doomsday are in the lowest depths of Fire;^{cix} the weaker residents of Hell will ask Allah to let them see those evil jinn and people who misled them astray so that they (i.e. the weaker) would put them under their feet to make them among the lowest.^{cx}

The face is equally held with honor and dignity: slapping the face is prohibited in Islam,^{cx} the Tradition states. In the Afterlife, the disbelievers’ faces and backs will be beaten to disgrace them.^{cxii}

The eyes are also held with respect and dignity as they signify extreme care and affection.^{cxiii}

The leg and the foot are the lowest organs of man, and therefore the nearest to earth. They stand just opposite the noblest parts of the human body, and therefore, are the least dignified.^{cxiv}

Schema Two: FRONT IS DIGNIFIED. BACK DISGRACED.

The face is the most dignified part of the head. It accredits the individual with the most distinguishing, discrete and identifying features, and therefore, stands in a part-to-whole metonymic relationship to man. Pious people do righteous deeds for His face.^{cxv} These have their faces *white* and will be in the mercy of Allah,^{cxvi} whereas the faces of the disbelievers will turn *black*.^{cxvii}

The chest is held with honor and dignity as well. Brave people receive bullets in their chests, coward people show/turn their backs.^{cxviii} For humiliation, condemned people are beaten on their backs (and faces).^{cxix}

Schema Three: PRIVATE SHOULD REMAIN PRIVATE. THIS IS MORE POLITE.

It is rude and vulgar to mention or refer publicly and explicitly to man's or women's private organs or to intercourse. Therefore, Euphemism suits most what is private.

The garment metaphor mentioned above is the best example in this regard. So is the tilth metaphor. Both metaphors elegantly, comprehensively and economically tackle the private, intimate husband-wife relationship without raising any measure of embarrassment. On other occasions, the Quran is less open, less explicit and uses expressions such as *bāshirūhunna*^{cxx} (i.e. "put your skin on their skin", literally speaking); or *massa* (i.e. "he touched"); idiomatically "he had sex".

Schema Four: INTIMACY MEANS CLOSENESS. CLOSENESS GENERATES WARMTH.

The former two metaphors express, among other things, intimacy or physical closeness: there is nothing closer to man than his clothes and nothing closer to husband than his wife and vice versa. Distance between spouses engaged in sexual intercourse is zero. And warmth is maximum.

Allah describes Himself as the *closest* to those who believe. He also describes Himself as their *waliy* which means, among other things, ally, lover, supporter and is derived from the verb *waliya* meaning "he came nearer".

In another Quranic verse, Allah addresses his believing servants by way of assurance:

"And when My servants ask you, [O Muhammad], concerning Me – indeed I am near. I respond to the invocation of the supplicant when he calls upon Me".^{cxxi}

This will be better understood when we recall that all other (six) verses starting with

"And when they ask you, [O Muhammad], about..." are followed by "say"; this verse is not. This *say* is, in all these *verses*, followed by Allah's instructions to the believers through the Prophet. Therefore, it functions as a mediating, distancing tool that stands between Allah and the

believers. The above example shows that there are no mediators between Allah and His servants when they turn to Him in supplication.

It is worth mentioning in this concern that Arabic has two plural forms for 'abd (i.e. slave): 'abeed meaning slaves and 'ibād meaning servants (in the Quranic discourse.) 'Abeed has the "ee" (i.e. ۛ) of humiliation as it lies horizontally linear, whereas 'ibād has the ā (i.e. the long vowel ۛ) of dignity as it stands vertically tall. The first form distances disobedient people from Allah; the latter brings them closer to Him.

Schema Five: PHYSICAL CLOSENESS GIVES STRENGTH.

This can be demonstrated by the brotherhood schema and by the construction schema discussed above.

6- Conclusions

In this article, we have been introduced to an extensive wealth of metaphors of different types each embodying a certain action, perception or experience (or more) performed by one sense or organ of the human body. A great number of these metaphors went for "eyes", "chest" and "heart"; the thing which attest to their importance to the process of belief. We have also come to know the concept of body as metaphorically visualized in the Quran and as conceived in the secular discourse as well.

These metaphors divide the world into two: the world of believers and that of disbelievers; the former are winners and the latter losers- with each party going through different experiences. These metaphors dictate what should and what should not be done. They, to re-quote Lakoff (1991), *give structure to, and organize action*. A group of schemata depict the relationships that should be existing among Muslims and between Muslims and non-Muslims. Thus metaphor presents a mode of thought.

A different unique category of experience arises in the Quranic discourse: that of the unbelievers losing control over their tongues, hands and legs, and these testifying against their possessors on Doomsday. This will not be experienced in our life.

About the Author:

Dr. As'ad J. Abu Libdeh, Associate Professor **at the** Department of English Language and Translation., Applied Science Private University. Amman, Jordan, 11931.

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Under notes

ⁱTo do this, I have collected all man-related metaphoric verses from the Quran and taken their translations from <http://quran.ksu.edu.sa/> website; and, in few cases, have cited a number of the Prophet's traditions and put them in undernotes to smoothen readability. Nevertheless, I have used some metaphor examples in the body of the text. Naturally, we have to bear in mind that some translations are not necessarily metaphoric. Reference to the Quranic verses will be as follows: the number of the chapter will come first and the verse number will follow, with a colon in between. The relevant Arabic and English terms/parts will be underlined.

Who created you, proportioned you, and balanced you. ii من عرف نفسه فقد عرف ربه
iii الَّذِي خَلَقَكَ فَسَوَّاكَ فَعَدَلَكَ (7:82)

We have certainly created man in the best of stature. (4:95) لَقَدْ خَلَقْنَا الْإِنْسَانَ فِي أَحْسَنِ تَقْوِيمٍ^{iv}

And in yourselves. Then will you not see?

وَفِي أَنْفُسِكُمْ أَفَلَا تُبْصِرُونَ^v (21:52)

So blessed is Allah, the best of creators

فَتَبَارَكَ اللَّهُ أَحْسَنُ الْخَالِقِينَ^{vi} (14:23)

يَوْمَ نَشْهَدُ عَلَيْهِمْ أَلْسِنَتُهُمْ وَأَيْدِيهِمْ وَأَرْجُلُهُمْ بِمَا كَانُوا يَعْمَلُونَ^{vii} (24:24)

On the Day when their tongues, their hands, and their feet will bear witness against them as to their actions.

كَلَّا لَئِنْ لَمْ يَنْتَهِ لَنَسْفَعًا بِالنَّاصِيَةِ^{viii} (15:96)

No! If he does not desist, We will surely drag him by the forelock.

مَا يَلْفِظُ مِنْ قَوْلٍ إِلَّا لَدَيْهِ رَقِيبٌ عَتِيدٌ^{ix} (18:50)

Man does not utter any word except that with him is an observer prepared [to record]

وَاذْكُرُوا نِعْمَتَ اللَّهِ عَلَيْكُمْ إِذْ كُنْتُمْ أَعْدَاءً فَأَلَّفَ بَيْنَ قُلُوبِكُمْ فَأَصْبَحْتُمْ بِنِعْمَتِهِ إِخْوَانًا^x (103:3)

And remember the favor of Allah upon you – when you were enemies and He brought your hearts together and you became, by His favor, brothers.

إِذْ قَالَ لَهُمْ أَخُوهُمْ نُوحٌ أَلَا تَتَّقُونَ^{xi} (26:106)

Remember When their brother Noah said to them, “Will you not fear Allah?”

يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا لَا تَتَّخِذُوا آبَاءَكُمْ وَإِخْوَانَكُمْ أَوْلِيَاءَ إِنِ اسْتَحَبُّوا الْكُفْرَ عَلَى الْإِيمَانِ^{xii} (23:9)

O you who have believed, do not take your fathers or your brothers as allies if they have preferred disbelief over belief.

Indeed, the believers are brothers.

إِنَّمَا الْمُؤْمِنُونَ إِخْوَةٌ^{xiii} (49:10)

إِنَّ اللَّهَ يُحِبُّ الَّذِينَ يُقَاتِلُونَ فِي سَبِيلِهِ صَفًّا كَأَنَّهُمْ بُنْيَانٌ مَرْصُورٌ^{xiv} (4:61)

Indeed, Allah loves those who fight in His cause in a row as though they are a [single] structure joined firmly.

(كَلَّكُمْ رَاعٍ وَكَلَّكُمْ مَسْئُولٌ عَنْ رَعِيَّتِهِ^{xv})

Each one of you is a shepherd and each one is accountable for his cattle.

مَثَلُ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ فِي تَوَادُّهِمْ وَتَرَاحُمِهِمْ وَتَعَاطُفِهِمْ: مَثَلُ الْجَسَدِ، إِذَا اشْتَكَى مِنْهُ عَضْوٌ: تَدَاعَى لَهُ سَائِرُ الْجَسَدِ بِالسَّهَرِ وَالْحُمَّى^{xvi}

The believers in their mutual love, mercy and compassion are like the body: if one of its organs complains, the rest of the body organs show solidarity by sleeplessness and fever.

لَقَدْ خَلَقْنَا الْإِنْسَانَ فِي أَحْسَنِ تَقْوِيمٍ^{xvii} (4:95)

We have certainly created man in the best of stature.

Man was created of haste.

خُلِقَ الْإِنْسَانُ مِنْ عَجَلٍ^{xviii} (14:37)

Indeed, mankind is in loss.

إِنَّ الْإِنْسَانَ لَفِي خُسْرٍ^{xix} (2:103)

We have certainly created man into hardship

لَقَدْ خَلَقْنَا الْإِنْسَانَ فِي كَبَدٍ^{xx} (4:90)

اللَّهُ الَّذِي خَلَقَكُمْ مِنْ ضَعْفٍ^{xxi} (54:30)

Allah is the one who created you in a state of (helpless) weakness.

^{xxii} To know more about metonymy in Arabic rhetoric, see al-Jarem (1971).

xxiii وَلَوْ تَرَىٰ إِذِ الْمُجْرِمُونَ نَاكِسُو رُءُوسِهِمْ عِنْدَ رَبِّهِمْ (12:32)

If you could but see when the criminals are hanging their heads before their Lord.

xxiv قَالَ رَبِّ إِنِّي وَهَنَ الْعَظْمُ مِنِّي وَاشْتَعَلَ الرَّأْسُ شَيْبًا (19: 4)

My Lord, indeed my bones have weakened, and my head has filled with white,

xxv This figure of speech obtains (in Arabic) when agency is ascribed to other than its original subject. Agency, here, is ascribed to "head" rather than to "hair" which usually glistens.

xxvi فَإِنْ حَاجُّوكَ فَقُلْ أَسْلَمْتُ وَجْهِيَ لِلَّهِ (20: 3)

And if they dispute with thee, say (to them) I have submitted my face to Allah.

xxvii يَوْمَ تَبْيَضُّ وُجُوهٌ وَتَسْوَدُّ وُجُوهٌ (106:3)

On the Day when some faces will be (lit up with) white, and some faces will be (in the gloom of) black.

xxviii Metonymy is of 10 kinds in Arabic Rhetoric; but we do not need to elaborate on them. See 22 above.

xxix يَوْمَ يُنْفَخُ فِي الصُّورِ وَنَحْشُرُ الْمُجْرِمِينَ يَوْمَئِذٍ زُرْقًا (102:20)

That day, We will gather the criminals blear-eyed (with terror).

xxx يَقُولُونَ بَلْفَوَاهِهِمْ مَا لَيْسَ فِي قُلُوبِهِمْ (167:3)

They ... saying with their mouths what was not in their heart.

xxxi ... قَدْ بَدَتِ الْبَغْضَاءُ مِنْ أَفْوَاهِهِمْ (118:3)

... Hatred has already appeared from their mouths.

xxxii يُرِضُونَكَ بِأَفْوَاهِهِمْ وَتَأْبَىٰ قُلُوبُهُمْ (8:9)

They satisfy you with their mouths, but their hearts refuse compliance.

xxxiii الْيَوْمَ نَخْتِمُ عَلَىٰ أَفْوَاهِهِمْ وَتُكَلِّمُنَا أَيْدِيهِمْ (36: 65)

That Day, We will seal over their mouths, and their hands will speak to Us...

xxxiv فَإِنَّمَا يَسَّرْنَاهُ بِلِسَانِكَ (97:19)

So, [O Muhammad], We have only made Qur'an easy in the Arabic language.

xxxv وَاخْلُلْ عُقْدَةً مِّن لِّسَانِي (27:20)

And untie the knot from my tongue.

xxxvi فَإِذَا ذَهَبَ الْخَوْفُ سَلَفُوكُمْ بِاللِّسَانَةِ حَذَادٍ (19:33)

But when fear departs, they lash you with sharp tongues.

xxxvii إِنَّ الَّذِينَ يَغُضُّونَ أَصْوَاتَهُمْ عِنْدَ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ أُولَٰئِكَ الَّذِينَ امْتَحَنَ اللَّهُ قُلُوبَهُمْ لِلتَّقْوَىٰ (3:49)

Indeed, those who lower their voices before the Messenger of Allah – they are the ones whose hearts Allah has tested for righteousness.

xxxviii وَإِنَّ مِنْهُمْ لَفَرِيقًا يَلُودُونَ أَلْسِنَتَهُم بِالْكِتَابِ (78:3)

And indeed, there is among them a party who alter the Scripture with their tongues...

xxxix يَوْمَ تَشْهَدُ عَلَيْهِمْ أَلْسِنَتُهُمْ وَأَيْدِيهِمْ وَأَرْجُلُهُمْ بِمَا كَانُوا يَعْمَلُونَ (24: 24)

On the Day when their tongues, their hands, and their feet will bear witness against them as to their actions.

^{xl} See 37 above.

وَإِذْ يُرِيكُمُوهُمْ إِذِ الْتَقَيْتُمْ فِي أَعْيُنِكُمْ قَلِيلًا وَيُقَالُ لَكُمْ فِي أَعْيُنِهِمْ (8:44) xli

And [remember] when He showed them to you, when you met, as few in your eyes, and He made you [appear] as few in their eyes.

وَلَا أَقُولُ لِلَّذِينَ تَرْدِرُونَ أَعْيُنَكُمْ لَنْ يُؤْتِيَهُمُ اللَّهُ خَيْرًا (31:11) xlii

...nor do I say of those upon whom your eyes look down that Allah will never grant them any good.

وَاصْبِرْ لِحُكْمِ رَبِّكَ فَإِنَّكَ بِأَعْيُنِنَا (48:52) xliii

And be patient, [O Muhammad], for the decision of your Lord, for indeed, you are in Our eyes.

تَجْرِي بِأَعْيُنِنَا جَزَاءً لِمَنْ كَانَ كُفِرَ (14:54) xliv

...a [construction of] planks and nails), Sailing under Our observation as reward for he who) had been denied.

لَا تَمُدَّنَّ عَيْنَيْكَ إِلَىٰ مَا مَتَّعْنَا بِهِ أَزْوَاجًا مِنْهُمْ (32:15) xlv

Do not extend your eyes toward that by which We have given enjoyment to [certain] categories of the disbelievers...

قَالُوا فَأْتُوا بِهِ عَلَىٰ أَعْيُنِ النَّاسِ (61:21) xlv

They said, "Then bring him before the eyes of the people that they may testify."

وَعِنْدَهُمْ قَاصِرَاتُ الطَّرْفِ (48:37) xlvii

And with them will be women limiting [their] glances...

He knows that which deceives the eyes... يَعْلَمُ خَائِنَةَ الْأَعْيُنِ (19:40) xlviii

وَنَرَاهُمْ يُعْرَضُونَ عَلَيْهَا خَاشِعِينَ مِنَ الذَّلِيلِ يَنْظُرُونَ مِنْ طَرْفٍ خَفِيٍّ (45:42) xlix

And you will see them being exposed to the Fire, humbled from humiliation, looking from [behind] a covert glance.

وَلَوْ نَشَاءُ لَمَمَسْنَاهُ عَلَىٰ أَعْيُنِهِمْ (66:36) ¹

And if We willed, We could have obliterated their eyes...

وَقَالَتِ امْرَأَتُ فِرْعَوْنَ قُرْتُ عَيْنٍ لِي وَلَكَ (9:28) li

And the wife of Pharaoh said, "[He will be] a comfort of the eye for me and for you..."

وَإِذَا سَمِعُوا مَا أُنْزِلَ إِلَى الرَّسُولِ تَرَىٰ أَعْيُنُهُمْ تَفِيضُ مِنَ الدَّمْعِ (83:5) lii

And when they hear what has been revealed to the Messenger, you see their eyes overflowing with tears...

وَفِيهَا مَا تَشْتَوِيهِ الْأَنْفُسُ وَتَلَذُّ الْأَعْيُنُ (71:43) liii

And therein is whatever the souls desire and [what] delights the eyes.

الَّذِينَ كَانَتْ أَعْيُنُهُمْ فِي غِطَاءٍ عَنْ ذِكْرِي (101:18) liv

Those whose eyes had been within a cover [removed] from My remembrance.

مُهْطِعِينَ مُقْنِعِي رُءُوسِهِمْ لَا يَرْتَدُّ إِلَيْهِمْ طَرْفُهُمْ (43:14) lv

Racing ahead, their heads raised up, their glance does not come back to them, and their hearts are void.

وَإِذَا سَمِعُوا مَا أُنْزِلَ إِلَى الرَّسُولِ تَرَىٰ أَعْيُنُهُمْ تَفِيضُ مِنَ الدَّمْعِ (83:5) lvi

And when they hear what has been revealed to the Messenger, you see their eyes overflowing with tears....

الَّذِينَ كَانَتْ أَعْيُنُهُمْ فِي غِطَاءٍ عَنْ ذِكْرِي (101:18) lvii

Those whose eyes had been within a cover [removed] from My remembrance.

أَفَلَمْ يَسِيرُوا فِي الْأَرْضِ فَيَنْظُرُوا كَيْفَ كَانَ عَاقِبَةُ الَّذِينَ مِنْ قَبْلِهِمْ (109:12) lviii

So have they not traveled through the earth and observed how the end of those before them was.

هَذَا بَصَائِرُ لِلنَّاسِ وَهُدًى وَرَحْمَةٌ لِقَوْمٍ يُوقِنُونَ (20:45) lix

This [Qur'an] is enlightenment for mankind and guidance and mercy for a people who are certain [in faith].

قُلْ هَذِهِ سَبِيلِي أَدْعُو إِلَى اللَّهِ عَلَى بَصِيرَةٍ أَنَا (108:12) lx

Say, "This is my way; I invite to Allah with insight

فَلَمَّا جَاءَتْهُمْ آيَاتُنَا مَبْصُرَةً قَالُوا هَذَا سِحْرٌ مُبِينٌ (13:27) lxi

But when there came to them Our visible signs, they said, "This is obvious magic".

وَلَقَدْ ذَرَأْنَا لِجَهَنَّمَ كَثِيرًا مِّنَ الْجِنِّ وَالْإِنسِ لَهُمْ قُلُوبٌ لَا يَفْقَهُونَ بِهَا وَلَهُمْ أَعْيُنٌ لَا يُبْصِرُونَ بِهَا وَلَهُمْ آذَانٌ لَا يَسْمَعُونَ بِهَا (179:7) lxii

And We have certainly created for Hell many of the jinn and mankind. They have hearts with which they do not understand, they have eyes with which they do not see, and they have ears with which they do not hear.

وَإِنِّي كُلَّمَا دَعَوْتُهُمْ لِتَغْفِرَ لَهُمْ جَعَلُوا أَصَابِعَهُمْ فِي آذَانِهِمْ (7:71) lxiii

And indeed, every time I invited them that You may forgive them, they put their fingers in their ears.

وَمِنْهُمْ الَّذِينَ يُؤْذُونَ النَّبِيَّ وَيَقُولُونَ هُوَ أُذُنٌ (61:9) lxiv

And among them are those who abuse the Prophet and say, "He is an ear".

وَمَا أَدْرَاكَ مَا الْعُقَبَةُ قَدْ رَقِبَتْ (13:90) lxv

And what can make you know what is [breaking through] the difficult pass? It is the freeing of a slave.

وَلَنْ يَتَمَنَّوْهُ أَبَدًا بِمَا قَدَّمَتْ أَيْدِيهِمْ (95:1) lxvi

But they will never wish for it, ever, because of what their hands have put forth.

فَوَيْلٌ لِلَّذِينَ يَكْتُمُونَ الْكِتَابَ بِأَيْدِيهِمْ (79:1) lxvii

So woe to those who write the "scripture" with their own hands...

وَقَالَتِ الْيَهُودُ يَدُ اللَّهِ مَغْلُولَةٌ (64:5) lxviii

And the Jews say, "The hand of Allah is chained."

فَأَنبَأَ لَا تَعْمَى الْأَبْصَارُ وَلَكِنْ تَعْمَى الْقُلُوبُ الَّتِي فِي الصُّدُورِ (46:22) lxix

For indeed, it is not eyes that are blinded, but blinded are the hearts which are within the breasts.

فَمَنْ يَرِدِ اللَّهُ أَن يَهْدِيَهُ يَشْرَحْ صَدْرَهُ لِلْإِسْلَامِ وَمَنْ يَرِدْ أَن يَضِلَّهُ يَجْعَلْ صَدْرَهُ ضَيِّقًا حَرَجًا (125:6) lxx

So whoever Allah wants to guide – He expands his breast to [contain] Islam; and whoever He wants to misguide – He makes his breast tight and constricted.

وَرَبُّكَ يَعْلَمُ مَا تُكِنُّ صُدُورُهُمْ وَمَا يُعْلِنُونَ (69:28) lxxi

And your Lord knows what their breasts conceal and what they declare.

وَنَزَعْنَا مَا فِي صُدُورِهِمْ مِّنْ غَلٍّ (43:7) lxxii

And We will have removed whatever is within their breasts of resentment...

إِنَّ الَّذِينَ يُجَادِلُونَ فِي آيَاتِ اللَّهِ بِغَيْرِ سُلْطَانٍ أَتَاهُمْ إِن فِي صُدُورِهِمْ إِلَّا كِبْرٌ (56:40) lxxiii

Indeed, those who dispute concerning the signs of Allah without [any] authority having come to them – there is not within their breasts except pride...

كِتَابٌ أَنزَلْنَا إِلَيْكَ الْبَيِّنَاتِ فَلَا يَكُن فِي صَدْرِكَ حَرَجٌ مِّنْهُ (2:7) lxxiv

[This is] a Book revealed to you, [O Muhammad] – so let there not be in your breast distress therefrom.

لَأَنْتُمْ أَشَدُّ رَهْبَةً فِي صُدُورِهِمْ مِّنَ اللَّهِ (13:59) lxxv

You [believers] are more fearful within their breasts than Allah ...

قَاتِلُوهُمْ يُعَذِّبُهُمُ اللَّهُ بِأَيْدِيكُمْ وَيُخْزِهِمْ وَيَنْصَرِّكُمُ عَلَيْهِمْ وَيَشْفِ صُدُورَ قَوْمٍ مُّؤْمِنِينَ (14:9) lxxvi

Fight them; Allah will punish them by your hands and will disgrace them and give you victory over them and satisfy the breasts of a believing people.

الَّذِي يُوسُوسُ فِي صُدُورِ النَّاسِ (5:16) lxxvii

Who whispers [evil] into the breasts of mankind.

إِلَّا مَنْ أَكْرَهَ وَقَلْبُهُ مُطْمَئِنٌّ بِالْإِيمَانِ (106:16) lxxviii

...except for one who is forced [to renounce his religion] while his heart is secure in faith...

وَمِنَ النَّاسِ مَنْ يُعْجِبُكَ قَوْلُهُ فِي الْحَيَاةِ الدُّنْيَا وَيُشْهَدُ اللَّهُ عَلَى مَا فِي قَلْبِهِ (2:204) lxxix

And of the people is he whose speech pleases you in worldly life, and he calls Allah to witness as to what is in his heart.

وَإِذْ قَالَ إِبْرَاهِيمُ رَبِّ ارْنِي كَيْفَ تُحْيِي الْمَوْتَىٰ قَالَ أُولِمُ تُولَدُ مِنْهُ بَلَىٰ وَلَئِنْ لَّيُطْمَئِنَّنَّ قَلْبِي (260:2) lxxx

And [mention] when Abraham said, “My Lord, show me how You give life to the dead.” [Allah] said, “Have you not believed?” He said, “Yes, but [I ask] only that my heart may be satisfied.”

وَأَصْبَحَ فُؤَادُ أُمِّ مُوسَىٰ فَارِغًا إِن كَادَتْ لَتُبْدِي بِهِ لَوْلَا أَن رَّبَطْنَا عَلَىٰ قَلْبِهَا (10:28) lxxxi

... She was about to disclose [the matter concerning] him had We not bound fast her heart that she would be of the believers.

وَلَا تَكْتُمُوا الشَّهَادَةَ ۚ وَمَنْ يَكْتُمْهَا فَإِنَّهُ آتَمَ قَلْبُهُ ۚ (283:2) lxxxii

And do not conceal testimony, for whoever conceals it – his heart is indeed sinful.

(فَبِمَا رَحْمَةٍ مِّنَ اللَّهِ لِنْتَ لَهُمْ وَلَوْ كُنْتَ فَظًّا غَلِيظَ الْقَلْبِ لَانفَضُّوا مِنْ حَوْلِكَ (159:3) lxxxiii

And if you had been rude [in speech] and harsh in heart, they would have disbanded from about you.

وَلَا تُطِعْ مَنْ أَغْفَلْنَا قَلْبَهُ عَن ذِكْرِنَا (28:58) lxxxiv

...and do not obey one whose heart We have made heedless of Our remembrance...

إِلَّا مَنْ أَتَى اللَّهَ بِقَلْبٍ سَلِيمٍ (89:42) lxxxv

But only one who comes to Allah with a sound heart.

أَفَرَأَيْتَ مَنِ اتَّخَذَ إِلَهَهُ هَوَاهُ وَأَضَلَّهُ اللَّهُ عَلَىٰ عِلْمٍ وَخَتَمَ عَلَىٰ سَمْعِهِ وَقَلْبِهِ (23:45) lxxxvi

... and [Allah] has set a seal upon his hearing and his heart.

lxxxvii (فَبِمَا رَحْمَةٍ مِّنَ اللَّهِ لِنْتَ لَهُمْ وَلَوْ كُنْتَ فَظًّا غَلِيظَ الْقَلْبِ لَانْفَضُّوا مِنْ حَوْلِكَ (159:3))

And if you had been rude [in speech] and harsh in heart, they would have disbanded from about you.

lxxxviii مَّنْ خَشِيَ الرَّحْمَنَ الْغَيْبِ وَجَاءَ بِقَلْبٍ مُنِيبٍ (33:50)

Who feared the Most Merciful unseen and came with a heart returning [in repentance]

lxxxix وَلَقَدْ دَرَأْنَا لَجَهَنَّمَ كَثِيرًا مِّنَ الْجِنَّ وَالْإِنسِ لَهُمْ قُلُوبٌ لَا يَفْقَهُونَ بِهَا (179:7)

... They [many of the jinn and mankind] have hearts with which they do not understand.

xc أَفَلَمْ يَسِيرُوا فِي الْأَرْضِ فَتَكُونُ لَهُمْ قُلُوبٌ يَعْقِلُونَ بِهَا (46:22)

So have they not traveled through the earth and have hearts by which to reason.

xc ... وَلَكِنْ يُؤَاخِذُكُم بِمَا كَسَبَتْ قُلُوبُكُمْ (225:2)

... but He imposes blame upon you for what your hearts have earned.

xcii وَقَالُوا قُلُوبُنَا غُلْفٌ (88:2)

And they said, "Our hearts are wrapped."

xciii وَمَنْ يُؤْلَمْ يَوْمَئِذٍ دُبُرُهُ... فَقَدْ بَاءَ بِغَضَبٍ مِّنَ اللَّهِ (16:8)

And whoever turns his back to them on such a day...has certainly returned with anger [upon him] from Allah.

xciv وَلَمَّا جَاءَهُمْ رَسُولٌ مِّنْ عِنْدِ اللَّهِ مُصَدِّقٌ لِّمَا مَعَهُمْ نَبَذَ فَرِيقٌ مِّنَ الَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الْكِتَابَ كِتَابَ اللَّهِ وَرَاءَ ظُهُورِهِمْ (101:2)

And when a messenger from Allah came to them confirming that which was with them, a party of those who had been given the Scripture threw the Scripture of Allah behind their backs...

xcv وَهُمْ يَحْمِلُونَ أَوْزَارَهُمْ عَلَى ظُهُورِهِمْ (31:6)

...while they bear their burdens on their backs...

xcvi وَالْتَقَتِ السَّاقُ بِالسَّاقِ (29:75)

This is an expression which metaphorically means calamity will be joined to calamity.

xcvii يَوْمَ تَشْهَدُ عَلَيْهِمْ أَلْسِنَتُهُمْ وَأَيْدِيهِمْ وَأَرْجُلُهُمْ بِمَا كَانُوا يَعْمَلُونَ (24:24)

On the Day when their tongues, their hands, and their feet will bear witness against them as to their actions.

xcviii ... قَالُوا رَبَّنَا أَفْرِغْ عَلَيْنَا صَبْرًا وَثَبِّتْ أَقْدَامَنَا (250:2)

...they said, "Our Lord, pour upon us patience and plant firmly our feet."

xcix وَقَالَ الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا رَبَّنَا أَرْنَا اللَّذِينَ أَضَلَّانَا مِنَ الْجِنَّ وَالْإِنسِ نَجْعَلُهُمَا تَحْتَ أَقْدَامِنَا لِيَكُونَا مِنَ الْأَسْفَلِينَ (29:41)

And those who disbelieved will [then] say, "Our Lord, show us those who misled us of the jinn and men [so] we may put them under our feet that they will be among the lowest.

c اللَّهُ نَزَّلَ أَحْسَنَ الْحَدِيثِ كِتَابًا مُّتَشَابِهًا مَّثَانِي تَفْصِيرُ مِنْهُ جُلُودُ الَّذِينَ يَخْشَوْنَ رَبَّهُمْ بِمِثْلَيْنِ جُلُودَهُمْ وَقُلُوبُهُمْ إِلَى ذِكْرِ اللَّهِ

(23:39)

Allah has sent down the best statement: a consistent Book wherein is reiteration. The skins shiver therefrom of those who fear their Lord.

ci وَقَالُوا لِلْجُلُودِ لَمْ شَهِدْتُمْ عَلَيْنَا (21:41)

And they will say to their skins, "Why have you testified against us"?

And He is the Most High, the Most Great.

cii وَهُوَ الْعَلِيُّ الْعَظِيمُ (255:2)

...and for Allah is the highest attribute

ciii ... وَلِلَّهِ الْمَثَلُ الْأَعْلَى (60:16)

...and you will be superior if you are [true] believers.

civ وَلَا تَهِنُوا وَلَا تَحْزَنُوا وَأَنْتُمْ الْأَعْلَوْنَ (139:3)

"And said, "I am your most exalted lord.

cv فَقَالَ أَنَا رَبُّكُمُ الْأَعْلَى (24:79)

In an elevated garden.

cvi فِي جَنَّةٍ عَالِيَةٍ (22:69)

No! Indeed, the record of the righteous is in

cvi كَلَّا إِنَّ كِتَابَ الْأَبْرَارِ لَفِي عَلَيِّينَ 'illiyyun(18:83)

No! Indeed, the record of the wicked is in sijjeen.

cvi كَلَّا إِنَّ كِتَابَ الْفَجَّارِ لَفِي سَجِّينَ (7:83)

cix إِنَّ الْمُنَافِقِينَ فِي الدَّرَكِ الْأَسْفَلِ مِنَ النَّارِ (145:4)

Indeed, the hypocrites will be in the lowest depths of the Fire.

cx See 99 above.

cxi إِذَا ضَرَبَ أَحَدُكُمْ فَلْيَتَجَنَّبِ الْوَجْهَ

In case there is need to beat someone, Avoid slapping the face.

cxi وَلَوْ تَرَىٰ إِذْ يَتَوَفَّى الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا الْمَلَائِكَةُ يَضْرِبُونَ وُجُوهَهُمْ وَأَدْبَارَهُمْ (50:8)

They are striking their faces and their backs.

cxi وَاصْبِرْ لِحُكْمِ رَبِّكَ فَإِنَّكَ بِأَعْيُنِنَا (48:52)

And be patient, [O Muhammad], for the decision of your Lord, for indeed, you are in Our eyes.

cxiv See 99 above.

cxv وَاصْبِرْ نَفْسَكَ مَعَ الَّذِينَ يَدْعُونَ رَبَّهُمْ بِالْعَدَاةِ وَالْعَشِيِّ يُرِيدُونَ وَجْهَهُ (28:18)

And keep yourself patient [by being] with those who call upon their Lord in the morning and the evening, seeking His countenance.

cxvi وَأَمَّا الَّذِينَ ابْيَضَّتْ وُجُوهُهُمْ فَفِي رَحْمَةِ اللَّهِ هُمْ فِيهَا خَالِدُونَ (107:3)

But as for those whose faces will turn white, [they will be] within the mercy of Allah.

cxvii يَوْمَ تَبْيَضُّ وُجُوهٌ وَتَسْوَدُّ وُجُوهٌ (106:3)

On the Day [some] faces will turn white and [some] faces will turn black.

cxviii سَيُهْزَمُ الْجَمْعُ وَيُوَلُّونَ الدُّبُرَ (45:54)

Their] assembly will be defeated, and they will turn their backs [in retreat].

cxix فَكَيْفَ إِذَا تَوَفَّتْهُمُ الْمَلَائِكَةُ يَضْرِبُونَ وُجُوهَهُمْ وَأَدْبَارَهُمْ (27:47)

Then how [will it be] when the angels take them in death, striking their faces and their backs?

So now, have

cxx قَالَانْ يَاسِرُوهُنَّ (187:2)

relations with them

cxxi وَإِذَا سَأَلَكَ عِبَادِي عَنِّي فَإِنِّي قَرِيبٌ تُجِيبُ دَعْوَةَ الدَّاعِ إِذَا دَعَانِ (186:2)

And when My servants ask you, [O Muhammad], concerning Me - indeed I am near.

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Moroccan University Students' Use of the English Regular Past and Plural Allomorphic Variations

Smirkou Ahmed

Ibn Tofail University
Morocco

Abstract:

The objective of this study was to assess the phonetic use of the allomorphic variations of the past [+ed] and plural [+s] morphemes by a sample of 45 EFL semester one students at Ibn Tofail University, Morocco, using error analysis approach. To collect relevant data, two written tests were designed and distributed to a randomly selected sample to be filled in separately during 40 minutes: the first test consisted of a set of past regular verbs including some adjectives ending in *ed*, and the second one included a number of English nouns requiring the regular plural [+s]. Further, the participants were given an adapted list of nonce words from Berko's study (1985). The principle was if they could provide the plural marking of the unfamiliar words correctly, it would be concluded that they knew how to pluralize words in different phonological contexts. The findings of the study demonstrated that the majority of the subjects failed to use the allomorphic variations /t/ and /id/ in different phonetic environments, substituted the latter allomorphs with the allomorph /d/, and erroneously generalized the allomorph /d/ to the adjectives that end in *ed*. In the second test, a great number of the subjects performed better in pluralizing the nouns that require the voiceless alternant /s/, but found the allomorph /iz/ more complex than the others since it requires a vowel insertion rule to break the cluster of two consonants having similar point of articulation, and overgeneralized the allomorph /-z/ to the nonce words requiring /-iz/.

Keywords: contrastive analysis, error analysis, morpheme, overgeneralization, transfer,

Introduction:

In foreign language teaching classrooms, learners come into contact with a foreign language and experience its linguistic features. Because languages influence each other, learners of English as a foreign language are exposed to cross-linguistic differences between their mother tongue and English and thus may make different types of errors. Lado (1957), in this respect, emphasizes on learners' transfer from their native language to the foreign language in that "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture" (p. 2). In other words, learners transfer the knowledge from L1 (first language) acquisition into the target language which may result in producing ill-formed sentences in the target language if the two languages are characterized by linguistic differences. Indeed, transfer from L1 into L2 (second language) or foreign language has received much interest in applied linguistics since identifying learners' errors gives deep insights into how learners learn a second or a foreign language.

English as a foreign language (EFL) learners often make a number of errors which often range between phonological or phonetic, morphological, and syntactic ones. Since EFL learners are non-native speakers of English, it is widely observed that they make different sorts of errors in their first stages of learning English. For instance, non-native speakers of English are commonly reported to generalize the regular plural [+s] to other regular or irregular plural forms. In this respect, Akande (2005), conducting a study on senior secondary school pupils in Nigeria, argued that the subjects could not distinguish between the allomorphs /s/ and /z/. That students cannot make a distinction between the allomorphs /s/, /z/, and /iz/ may be explained by their low competence in English morphology. In addition to the findings by Akande, students' confusion between the three allomorphs may be due to their lack of exposure to these allomorphic variations.

Therefore, the present study assesses the regular past and plural morphemes' usage by first year students at Ibn Tofail University, Morocco. Particularly, it evaluates their performance in the past allomorphic realizations /d/, /t/, and /id/ as well as regular plural alternants /s/, /z/, and /iz/ in different phonological contexts.

Literature Review

A great body of literature in applied linguistics has extensively shown that certain language structures of learners' mother tongue are transferred into their learning of a foreign or second language. Numerous studies have concluded that non-native speakers of English failed to correctly use some aspects in a foreign or second language due to the transfer of phonological, morphological, or syntactic rules of their mother tongue (L1). For instance, in his study of Saudi BA students at King Khalid University, Al-Badawi (2012) concluded that a great number of students made phonetic, morphological, and syntactic errors. For example, 60% of the sample substituted the voiced bilabial sound /b/ for the voiceless bilabial /p/. It was observed that this phonetic error is due to the absence of the sound /p/ in Arabic language system. Odisho (2005) also argued that native Arabic speakers misarticulated certain English vowels especially vowels which have no close counterpart in Arabic. Similarly, some speakers of Arabic who tend to learn English may make syntactic errors as in (*John he went to school yesterday**) in which they erroneously include two pronouns (*John* and *he*) as the subject of the sentence, which is an error transferred from Arabic.

Such errors are attributed to the influence of learners' L1, which is a fundamental view of the contrastive analysis hypothesis in its explanation of learners' errors.

Contrastive analysis, as one of its basic tenets, refers learners' errors to their L1 interference. It is true that contrastive analysis can help account for a considerable number of errors but not all errors are associated with L1 interference since learners produce certain errors that cannot be explained by the comparison between L1 and L2. In this respect, error analysis proposes an alternative examination of errors to predict learning difficulties. A key principle of error analysis, as expressed by its advocates, is that errors are not only due to the interference of L1 (negative transfer), which is the basic claim of the contrastive analysis. Learners, on the other hand, create their own specific rules or construct a systematic language out of L1 and L2 to facilitate the process of learning. This is referred to as 'interlanguage' by Selinker & others (1992; as cited in Ennaji & Sadiqi, 1994:150). Therefore, error analysis describes learners' errors with more focus on the target language.

It is not always clear that an error is due to the transfer from the learners' native language to the target language. Overgeneralization errors are an example of errors which are attributed to the target language itself. In other words, errors resulting from overgeneralization are created by L2 learners to simplify the process of learning since they still have incomplete competence in L2. In short, overgeneralization occurs because the learner generalizes a particular rule once he starts learning parts of the new system. As an example, generalizing the phonetic realization of the English regular past morpheme [+ed] is a common error committed by Arabic-speaking learners of English. That is, morphological errors may be displayed in overgeneralizing rules of combining stems/roots and affixes. Learners may apply an inflectional marker to a root/stem of a different inflectional class. An error explaining the wrong overgeneralization of an inflectional marker would be a past-tense form such as *spended* *where the past inflectional morpheme is wrongly used with a verb that requires an irregular past-tense form (i.e. *spent*). Such error is referred to as overgeneralization since the regular inflectional past morpheme is overextended to roots that require an internal change.

Another example of overgeneralization error is found in the realization of the English plural marker: a morpho-phonological error. Jing, L. Tindall, E. & Nisbet, D. (2006) investigated the difficulties that the Chinese students may face while using various plural forms in English. Their study showed that the omission of the plural morpheme was a major error made by the participants. It was also concluded that the participants erroneously overgeneralized morphological rules of the plural morpheme. Furthermore, in a study conducted by Al-Badawi (2012) on a sample of 20 Saudi BA students at King Khalid University, he noticed that large percentages of the sample (62.5% of the sample) failed to use the plural (-s/es) in certain noun phrases.

Statement of the problem and study objectives

First year students of English as a foreign language at Ibn Tofail University made some phonetic errors when they were observed using the regular past and plural marker allomorphs in different phonetic contexts. Therefore, the objective of this paper was to assess the realization of the [-ed] past morpheme and the regular plural [-s] by a randomly selected group of semester one students, at Ibn Tofail University, whose major is English. In particular, it aimed at identifying semester one students' phonetic awareness of using the allomorphic variations /d/, /t/, and /ɪd/ of the morpheme [-ed], and /s/, /t/, and /ɪd/ of the plural morpheme in turn.

Research questions and Hypotheses

To identify the phonetic errors committed by the selected sample, this study targeted the following questions:

- 1) Are students aware of the phonetic realizations of the regular past and plural morphemes?
- 2) Do students erroneously overgeneralize the phonetic rules of the regular past and plural morphemes to other forms?
- 3) Is there any difficulty order in using the allomorphic variations /d/, /t/, and /id/ of the past morpheme and /s/, /z/, and /iz/ of the plural morpheme?

The following are the hypotheses set to answer the previous research questions:

- 1) Learners commit phonetic errors because they are unaware of the phonetic realizations of the targeted morphemes.
- 2) A great number of the participants wrongly overgeneralize the rules of the regular past and plural morphemes.
- 3) The participants may face more difficulty in using the allmorphs /id/ and /iz/ since they require a vowel insertion.

Study sample

From approximately 200 students, this study examined a randomly selected sample of 45 first year university students (semester 1, group 1B) whose major is English at Ibn Tofail University, Morocco. The participants' native language is Moroccan Arabic and English is regarded as a foreign language for them. They were 18 male and 27 female and their age ranged from 19 to 22. All of the participants took the test for regular past morpheme, while in the regular plural morpheme test 5 participants could not manage to attend for their personal reasons.

Data Collection and Analysis

To collect the relevant nominal data, the randomly selected sample was given two separated written tests lasting approximately 20 minutes each. The first test included a set of English past regular verbs which ranged between the ones whose pronunciation is /d/, /t/, and /id/. The participants, then, were required to write the correct pronunciation of [-ed] past morpheme either as /d/, /t/, or /id/ for the selected past regular verbs. To know whether the participants would overgeneralize the phonetic rule of pronouncing [-ed] correctly in different phonetic contexts, the data also included some adjectives which end in [ed]. As for the second test, it also lasted 20 minutes during which the subjects filled in a written test that included a set of regular plural nouns. The subjects were supposed to provide the correct allomorphic realizations of the plural [-s] in different phonetic environments. Their responses were analyzed for occurrences of phonological errors. Thus, we made use of the qualitative method to measure their performance.

There is high possibility that the participants may articulate the plural morpheme correctly, yet they may not be aware of the plural marking rules. For this reason, the participants were given an adapted list of nonce words from Berko's study (1985). The principle was that if they could pronounce the plural marking of the unfamiliar words correctly, this would indicate that they knew how to pluralize words in different phonological contexts.

Results and Discussions

The participants' results were analyzed using frequency and percentage measures. First, the findings of the English past regular morpheme are presented in Tables 1, 2, and 3, which show different realizations of [-ed] past morpheme: as /t/ in Table 1, /id/ in Table 2, and /d/ in Table 3;

whereas Table 4 presents some adjectives ending in *ed*. Subsequently, the samples' results as regards the regular plural morpheme are described in tables 5 and 6. The tables, in particular, show the sample's correct and incorrect use of this morpheme.

1. Data description and analysis for the past regular morpheme

This section is mainly about the findings concerning the English regular past morpheme. The results show that the participants were unaware of the phonetic realizations of the [+ed] regular past morpheme in that they failed to provide the correct pronunciation of this morpheme in different phonetic contexts. For example, as demonstrated in Table 1, a great number of the participants provided the incorrect articulation of this morpheme for the verbs *announced* (95%), *watched* (82%), *distressed* (82%), *thanked* (75%), *relaxed* (75%), and *missed* (57%). This indicates that the majority of the participants displayed lack of awareness of the allomorphic variation which is phonologically conditioned: it is realized as voiceless /t/ when preceded by a voiceless sound as in the latter verb examples.

Table 1. The participants' responses as to the past [-ed] morpheme realized as /t/ allomorph

[+ed] realized as /t/			
Regular verbs	Frequency of errors		Percentage of errors
	Correct use	Errors	
Kissed	23	22	48%
Liked	29	16	35%
Missed	19	26	57%
Watched	8	37	82%
Laughed	21	24	53%
Hoped	20	25	55%
Finished	22	23	51%
Stopped	25	20	44%
Thanked	11	34	75%
Shocked	26	19	42%
Relaxed	11	34	75%
Distressed	8	37	82%
Announced	2	43	95%

Similarly, the results in Table 2 show that the participants were not familiar with the vowel insertion rule to break a cluster of two consonants having similar point of articulation as in *aggravated*, *needed*, and *started* in which the sounds *t*, and *d* are alveolars and, hence, English opts for the insertion of the vowel *i* (or sometimes schwa) to break this consonantal cluster. This

is the reason why many students made errors in *started* (84%), *wanted* (66%), and *aggravated* (64%), for instance.

Table 2. The participants' responses as to the past [-ed] morpheme realized as /id/ allomorph
[+ed] realized as /id/

Regular verbs	Frequency of errors		Percentage of errors
	Correct use	Errors	
Wanted	15	30	66%
Needed	23	22	48%
Succeeded	22	23	51%
Handed	21	24	53%
Started	7	38	84%
Aggravated	16	29	64%

In Table 3, however, the participants made fewer errors in the verbs which require the voiced allomorph /d/ in comparison with the other allomorphs /t/ and /id/: only 17% and 26% who made errors in the past phonetic realization of the verbs *snow* and *love*, respectively.

Importantly, the results further demonstrated that, unlike in the allomorph /d/, the participants faced more difficulty in the allomorphs /t/ and /id/. This may be explained by the fact that there are more phonetic contexts where [+ed] is realized as voiced. Also, in the early stages of learning the phonetic realization of the regular past morpheme, learners tend to generalize the allomorph /d/ to other allomorphic variations, but later on they start correcting their mistakes.

Table 3. The participants' responses as to the past [-ed] morpheme realized as /d/ allomorph
[+ed] realized as /d/

Regular verbs	Frequency of errors		Percentage of errors
	Correct use	Errors	
Played	23	22	48%
Snowed	37	8	17%
Loved	33	12	26%
Listened	22	23	51%
Confused	15	30	66%

The participants were, further, provided a list of adjectives ending in *ed* (as Table 4 illustrates) and were asked to come up the correct articulation of the *ed* ending. Their responses confirmed our hypothesis about overgeneralization. To explain, the majority of the sample

applied the rule of the allomorph /d/ to the adjectives *wicked* (86%) and *naked* (77%). They possibly thought they are verbs.

Table 4. The participants' responses as to the articulation of adjectives ending in -ed

Adjectives ending in [ed]			
	Frequency of errors		Percentage of errors
	Correct use	Errors	
Aged	27	18	40%
Wicked	6	39	86%
Naked	10	35	77%
Skilled	35	10	22%

2. Data analysis and discussion for the plural marker

In this section, the participants' responses with regard to the regular plural morpheme are described and discussed. Table 5 shows that the subjects performed better in pluralizing the nouns that require the voiceless alternant /s/ (only 14% of them provided the wrong alternant) than the plural words requiring the allomorphs /iz/ and /z/. The findings also revealed that the majority of the participants (68%) failed to provide the correct allomorph /iz/ in its appropriate phonological context. There are two possible reasons to account for this difference in the subjects' performance of the three allomorphs. First, the /iz/ alternant is more complex since it requires an extra rule: the insertion of the vowel [i] to break the cluster of two consonants having similar point of articulation. Second, the allomorph /iz/ is the least frequent one in the English regular plural nouns in comparison with the other allomorphs. Therefore, the subjects' errors in the allomorph /iz/ are due to their less exposure to this allomorph. In contrast, the subjects displayed few errors in the allomorphs /z/ and /s/ because these allomorphs are more frequent in English plural nouns, and the participants were possibly more exposed to them.

Further, the participants exhibited overgeneralization of the allomorph /iz/ to other phonetic contexts where the allomorphs /s/ and /z/ are required. For example, a number of students failed to provide the correct plural morpheme in the words *mosques* and *machines*; they were confused between the articulation of the ending [es] in such words and the ones in words like *roses* and *buses*, and thus they thought the ending [es] is always realized as /iz/ in all word forms.

Table 5. The participants' responses as to the regular plural morpheme realized as /iz/, /z/, and /s/ allomorphs

Alternants	/iz/		/z/		/s/	
	incorrect	correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect	Correct
Frequency of Errors	286	139	75	304	58	221

Percentage	67%	32%	19%	80%	20%	79%
Total Percentage of incorrect answers	68%		18%		14%	

The participants were further given an adapted list of nonce words from Berko's study (1985), which is known as 'wug' experiment. The principle was that if the participants could pronounce the plural marking of the unfamiliar words correctly, this would indicate that they knew how to pluralize words in different phonological contexts.

As represented in table 6, the subjects found more difficulty in the nonce words requiring /-iz/ allomorph than the ones requiring /-z/ or /-s/. This result supports the findings in Table 5, in which the majority of the participants encountered more difficulty in the allomorph /-z/. This finding also confirms what Berko (1958) concluded in her study of the plural allomorphs /s/, /z/, and /iz/ in which the subjects found the allomorph /iz/ more complex than the others.

Interestingly, a great number of the participants incorrectly articulated the nonce words *tor* and *cra* with the allomorph /-s/. This wrong articulation might be due to the subjects' influence by the point of articulation of the initial voiceless sounds *t* and *k* in the words *tor* and *cra* respectively. That is, in the articulation of the two voiceless, bilabial, stops (*t*, *k*), the tongue already anticipates a voiceless allomorph at the final position of the word.

It is also significantly noticed that the majority of the participants overgeneralized the allomorph /-z/ to the nonce words requiring /-iz/. As previously explained, because the alternant /-z/ requires an extra-rule, namely the epenthesis (vowel insertion) rule, the participants found it more difficult, which confirms our hypothesis.

Table 6. The participants' responses to the articulation of nonce words adapted from Berko's study

*both allomorphs were considered to be correct.

Nonce Words	Expected plural allomorphs	Correct pronunciation %	Incorrect Pronunciation %	deviant forms %			Other deviant forms %
				As /s/	As /iz/	/z/	
Niz	/iz/	3	97	6		80	11
Tass	/iz/	6	94	6		76	12
Kazh	/iz/	10	90	0		73	17
Gutch	/iz/	40	60	0		53	7
Wag	/-z/	53	47	30	6		11
Tor	/-z/	63	37	23	10		4
Cra	/-z/	30	70	63	3		4
Heaf	/-s/ or /z/*	78	22		20		2
Lun	/-z/	73	27	16	3		8

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

The present study explored semester one students' performance in the use of the regular past morpheme allomorphs as well as the plural marking ones. It has been concluded that

semester one students at Ibn Tofail University committed errors in the targeted allomorphic variations. The participants faced more difficulty in the phonetic realizations /t/ and /d/, and they erroneously substituted them with the allomorph /d/. Such substitution can be attributed to the students' unawareness of the allomorphic variations of the regular past morpheme.

It has been also concluded that the majority of the subjects found /iz/ as the most difficult allomorph since it requires a vowel insertion. This common allomorphic error is due to the fact that the subjects have not been exposed to the three different allomorphic variations especially to the /iz/ allomorph. The findings of the study also demonstrated that some students wrongly generalized the articulation of the ending (es) as /iz/ to all words having (es) in the final position. This finding confirms previous findings as regards the morphological errors. For example, in his study on Nigerian secondary school pupils, Akande (2005) argued that a great number of the pupils had a low level in morphology in that they made errors of overgeneralization, inconsistency, and the interference of their mother tongue in English.

The results of this study may be very useful for textbook designers and teachers. Including the allomorphic variations of the past regular morpheme and the plural one in textbooks may make students conscious of the different phonetic realizations of the past and plural regular morphemes. Teachers may also provide students with a set of regular past and plural words that require different phonetic articulations and call their attention to their correct pronunciation in various phonetic environments. Students, then, learn how to correctly articulate the allomorphs in different phonetic contexts.

About the Author:

Smirkou Ahmed holds an MA in TEFL from Ibn Tofail University, Morocco. Currently, Smirkou Ahmed is about to defend my dissertation on Morphology. At the same time, Smirkou Ahmed has been teaching at Ibn Tofail University as an assistant teacher and at ENA (Ecole Nationale d'Architecture) in Rabat. Smirkou Ahmed research interests include applied linguistics and morphology.

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Saudi EFL Students' Perceptions toward the Online Interactions of their Peers and Instructors

Ali Hussein Alamir

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

Abstract

The role of the instructor during the online L2 learning of Saudi English foreign language (EFL) students has been seen as essential in their online educational environment. This paper examines the quality of Saudi EFL students' online interactions. It aims at exploring how Saudi students perceive and view the online interactions of their peers and instructors to help promote their L2 learning in online educational discussion forums. Over an entire academic semester in a Saudi prestigious university, 49 EFL students were requested to interact online with their peers and instructors by discussing some argumentative topics. The data which were examined in this paper included participants' questionnaires and interviews. Quantitative and qualitative analysis methods were employed. The findings of the present study show that Saudi EFL students perceived their instructor-student online interactions more positively than their student-student online interactions. They valued the online interactions of their EFL instructors as more important and useful for their L2 learning than the online interactions of their EFL peers. It was concluded that the online presence of instructors appeared to encourage their students to think critically, express their thoughts, and develop their grammatical and spelling accuracy. Further research should look at how students perform their second language (L2) and maintain their social presence during student-student and instructor-student online exchanges.

Keywords: discussion forums, instructor-student exchange, online interaction, perceptions, Saudi students, student-student exchange

Introduction

There has been a growing emphasis on the use of online discussion forums in L2 tertiary education because of the opportunities the forums offer students in their blended and online learning contexts (e.g., Hadjistassou, 2008; Hanna & de Nooy, 2009; Kol & Schcolnik, 2008; Kosunen, 2009; Montero et al., 2007; Nor et al., 2012; Paiva & Rodrigues-Junior, 2009; Ritchie & Black, 2012; Saude et al., 2012). However, there has been little research that looked at the perceptions and attitudes of Saudi EFL learners toward their online interactions with their peers and instructors in their educational discussion forums. Researching how Saudi EFL students view and perceive the online interactions of their peers and instructors is scant and whether or not these interactions are seen as helpful for their L2 learning in the online environment remains unexplored.

Using Online Discussion Forums in Second Language Learning

Discussion forums can allow students to interact with their peers and instructors outside of the face-to-face class times and at their convenience (Nor et al., 2012). Montero et al. (2007) observed that participation in forums in a topic-oriented discussion helps students to identify language problems and solve them, and develop the acquisition of the linguistic and communicative skills. Forums played an essential role in supporting collaborative L2 learning (Hadjistassou, 2008). They allow students “to ask questions, express their thoughts, share resources, and justify their opinions beyond the four walls of the classroom” (Nor et al., 2012, p. 237).

Paiva & Rodrigues-Junior (2009) argue that learning in the educational discussion forums originates from the collaborative interaction between the instructor and students. Central to the role of instructor, discussion forums can promote higher rate of peer interactions because the instructor’s intervention is seen as minimal compared to that in face-to-face classroom (Kosunen, 2009; Nor et al., 2012).

The role of the instructor during students’ L2 interactions has been seen as crucial in the online environments (Zhang et al., 2007). In terms of students’ perceptions of student-teacher online interactions, Yang (2011) found that 72% of students agreed that they were able to share their thoughts and ideas with their peers and teachers, 83% believed that the teacher encouraged them in expressing their thoughts, and 90% thought that they had good interactions with their teachers and teaching assistants. Students overall had positive attitudes towards their online interactions with their instructors because the online interactions of their instructors seemed to encourage them to express their thoughts and enhance their L2 learning. AbuSeileek (2007) explains that most students in the online cooperative group “felt that they got a [sic] more individual attention from the instructor” (p. 508). Therefore, it can be argued that *more individual attention* which is given by the instructor during online interaction can be conceived of as scaffolding which is, from a sociocultural standpoint, seen as essential for promoting language learning among learners in the online environment.

Although online discussion forums have been under scrutiny by researchers for about two decades, the nature of students’ L2 interactions when interacting in student-student and instructor-student online exchanges needs further investigation. Hadjistassou (2008) points out that “the conditions for offering engaging and constructive [exchanges] in asynchronous forums are much more complex and have not been fully explored” (p. 358). Paiva & Rodrigues-Junior (2009) conclude that in instructor-student online interactions “[w]e are still learning how to behave in online educational forums, and research can show us what is underlying this online

environment" (p.66). Yang (2011) asserts that "[p]revious studies have emphasized the relationship between students' engagement and learning performance, and yet the context in which students and the teacher interact [online] to engage each other has been ignored" (p. 181).

The present study examines the following research questions to shed light on how Saudi EFL students perceive and view online interactions in both student-student and instructor-student online exchanges.

- 1) Do Saudi EFL students have significant differences in their perceptions of interactions between student-student and instructor-student online exchanges?
- 2) What are the qualities of Saudi students' perceptions of interactions in their student-student and instructor-student online exchanges?

Method

In the present study, 49 Saudi EFL undergraduate male students participated in the online discussion forums with their three EFL non-Saudi instructors. The participants were sourced from the Faculty of Languages and Translation (FLT) of a prestigious university in the Southern region of Saudi Arabia. Students' native language is Arabic and they have an age mean of 22.5 years old. They are lower-intermediate-modest English users (Allan, 2004). They have been learning English for several years ($M=9$ years) and using blended learning mode (face-to-face and blackboard) for more than one year ($M=17$ months). In terms of their electronic literacy, participating students often use computer and internet and they sometimes use online discussion forums. The participating instructors are male PhD holders in the fields of linguistics and applied linguistics. Their native language is Arabic and their age is ranged from 37 to 50 years old. The three EFL instructors have been teaching English for many years (9 years, 15 years, and 20 years) and the length of their Blackboard experience in the EFL context seems relatively similar (two years, two years, and three years). They usually use online discussion forums when they teach in their English blended courses.

A mixed-methods research methodology was utilized in the present study in line with previous L2 studies (e.g., Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010; Yang, 2011). Thus, to obtain richer data researchers have been placing greater emphasis on employing a mixed-methods approach (e.g., Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010; Yang, 2011). In line with Miyazoe & Anderson (2010) and Yang (2011), the current study used the methods of questionnaires and interviews in order to obtain richer data and to better understand the perceptions and attitudes of Saudi EFL learners towards the online interactions of their peers and instructors. A questionnaire and an interview were designed by the researcher (see Appendix A and B). They were conducted in the students' native language to ensure that students could provide accurate responses and avoid misleading answers (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Mackey & Gass (2005) point out that conducting such methods in the participants' first language "remov[e] concerns about the proficiency of the learner impacting the quality and quantity of the data provided" (p. 174). The validation of Arabic translation was obtained from a certified translator in advance of the study. The questionnaire comprised structured closed and open ended questions and they were given to students by their instructors in class time. The interview consisted of structured open-ended questions and students were interviewed individually by the researcher in a conference room at the FLT. Each interview lasted about 50 minutes and it was voice recorded. Unfortunately, 21 students (43%) attended the interview with the researcher and the pressure of final examinations prevented other students from participating in the interview.

As an essential part of English blended courses at the FLT, the online discussion forums of the Blackboard educational system were used by the participants. The forums were created by the instructors for promoting students' online interactions in terms of L2 learning. Students discussed argumentative topics with their peers for five weeks and with their instructors for further five weeks. The topics were developed by the researcher and the instructors "so that [students] will not waste time 'surfing' the Internet to find a topic" (Ritchie & Black, 2012, p. 358). The themes of the topics were deemed appropriate because they were relevant to the participants' EFL context and their ordinary Saudi lifestyles. Hadjistassou (2008, p. 385) suggests using "culturally-relevant topics" for EFL students to enhance their participation in online discussion forums. The present study ensured that the topics were divided evenly, counterbalanced, and randomly assigned to student-student and instructor-student online interactions. For example, students in the forums discussed their opinions about a "favourite football team" with their peers, and similarly they discussed their opinions about their "favourite shopping mall" with their instructors. Participation in the online discussion forums was included in the overall assessment of students' English blended courses. The instructors allocated 70% of the course marks for face-to-face learning and 30% for online learning. The forum interactions are counted as 10% out of the assessment of students' online learning.

Concerning the data analysis methods, the present study employed quantitative and qualitative methods to analyse students' questionnaire and interview data. Questionnaire data were analysed quantitatively using SPSS software and qualitatively using narrative and descriptive approaches. The interview data were transferred to Nvivo software and analysed qualitatively using narrative and descriptive methods. The qualitative analysis was first conducted on the Arabic data and extracts were translated into English during the analysis of students' questionnaires and interviews. 30% of Arabic to English translated information were reviewed by a certified translator to make sure that the translation was accurate.

Quantitative Analysis Results

Descriptive Statistics Results

Table 1. Students' Perceptions—Descriptive Analysis Results

Students' Perceptions	Student-Student		Instructor-Student	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Online interactions were excellent with	3.53	.89	3.93	.98
2. I felt comfortable interacting with	3.73	.97	4.00	.97
3. I felt personally connected with	2.97	.80	3.63	.92
4. Online interactions were very important with	3.73	.83	4.00	.95
5. Online interactions gave me the confidence to participate and interact with	4.06	.89	4.00	.91

6. Online interactions gave me a sense of being a part of one social learning community with	4.10	.84	4.04	.95
7. Online interactions motivated me to engage in interaction in	3.89	1.00	4.08	.97

As can be seen in table 1, by and large, the mean value of students' perceptions was found to be higher in instructor-student than in student-student online interactions. This shows that students liked the online interactions of their instructors than the online interactions of their peers. By looking at the first four perceptions in Figure one, it can be observed that students valued the interactions of their instructors more than the interactions of their peers.

Students liked and valued interacting in instructor-student online exchanges more than in student-student online exchanges because they benefited from the interactions of their instructors. That is, instructors' online interactions might have provided students with opportunities to develop several aspects of their English such as improving L2 accuracy or learning new grammatical and lexical forms. In terms of perceptions in items five, six, and seven in Figure one, students' perceptions did not seem to differ between student-student and instructor-student online interactions. Students valued their feelings of confidence, social learning, and motivation in student-student at a similar level as in instructor-student online exchanges. This is because they may have regarded themselves and their peers and instructors as one learning community where it is expected that they should have the same degrees of feelings of confidence, social learning, and motivation when they interact with their peers or instructors to promote their language learning.

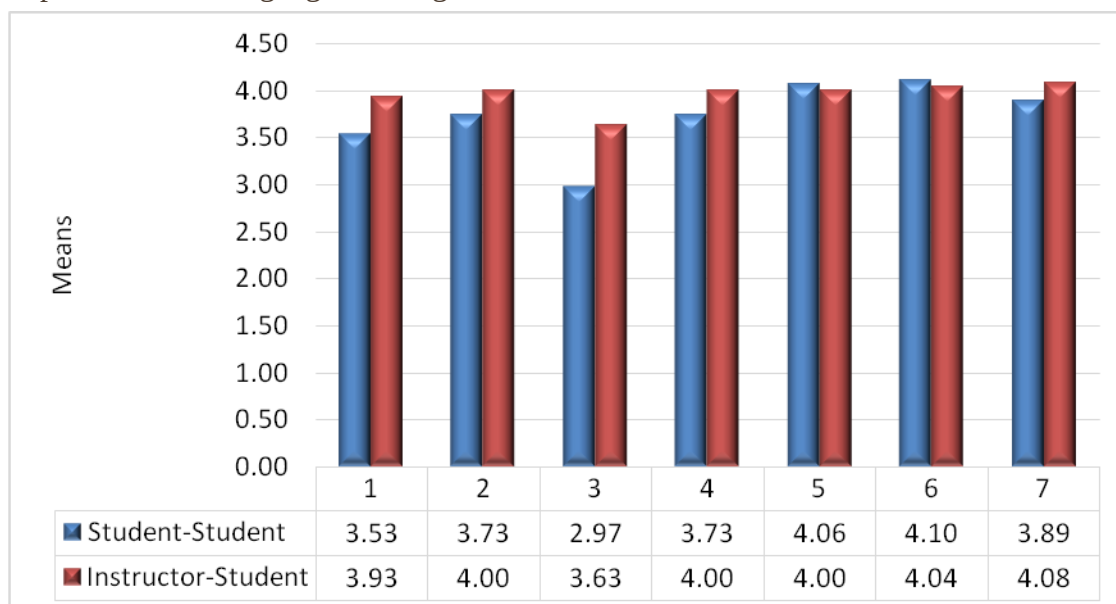


Figure 1. Students' Perceptions

Inferential Analysis Results

To examine whether the means of students' perceptions differed significantly between the two types of online interactions, a nonparametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was deemed appropriate and selected because the data of students' perceptions were not found to be normally distributed—the Kolmogorov-Smirnova and Shapiro-Wilk tests were used for examining normality. The negative z-values which the test revealed in table 2 occurred because this non-parametric test examines the mean rank differences across the data, not the mean differences which the descriptive statistics show in Table one and Figure one. Because of this, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test generates negative z-values when it examines the differences of mean rank.

Table 2. Students' Perceptions—Inferential Analysis Results

N=49		
Students' Perceptions	Z	P
1. Online interactions were excellent	-2.17	.029
2. I felt comfortable interacting	-2.02	.043
3. I felt personally connected	-4.30	.000
4. Online interactions were very important	-2.04	.041
5. Online interactions gave me the confidence to participate and interact	-.52	.597
6. Online interactions gave me a sense of being a part of one social learning community	-.65	.513
7. Online interactions motivated me to engage in interaction	-1.48	.138

According to the test results in table 2, significant differences were found in the means of students' perceptions between student-student and instructor-student online exchanges. These significant differences were found in the students' perceptions of *online interactions were excellent* ($p=.029$), *I felt comfortable interacting* ($p=.043$), *I felt personally connected* ($p=.000$), and *online interactions were very important* ($p=.041$) between the two conditions of online exchanges. These four perceptions show that students significantly perceived the online interactions of their instructors more positively than the online interactions of their peers. This may be because students received more attention and support from their instructors when they interacted in instructor-student than in student-student online exchanges. In terms of the last three perceptions (i.e., perception items five, six, and seven), no significant differences ($p>.05$) were found in the students' perceptions between the two conditions of online interactions. Students might have thought that feelings of confidence and social learning and being motivated were the same for their language learning with both their peers and instructors in online interactions.

It was deemed important for the present study to investigate students' perceptions in terms of the score distribution on the levels of their questionnaire's Likert scale. Because the Likert scale was built based on levels from one to five, the weight of perception scores from one

level to another might give further explanations for understanding the results of students' perceptions. Because of the zero values and small percentages of the questionnaire levels of *Strongly Disagree* and *Disagree* across the students' perception data, the two levels were combined together to help present the results adequately and understand them in a clearer way in comparison with other levels on the Likert scale. The percentages of students' perceptions, where significant differences were found, were explored and the analysis results are reported in figure presentations and discussed in the following sections. The exploration of the Likert data of students' perceptions addressed the large percentage categories which clearly show the extent to which students perceive and view the online interactions of their peers and instructors.

Results of Student Perceptions' Distributions *Online Interactions were Excellent with*

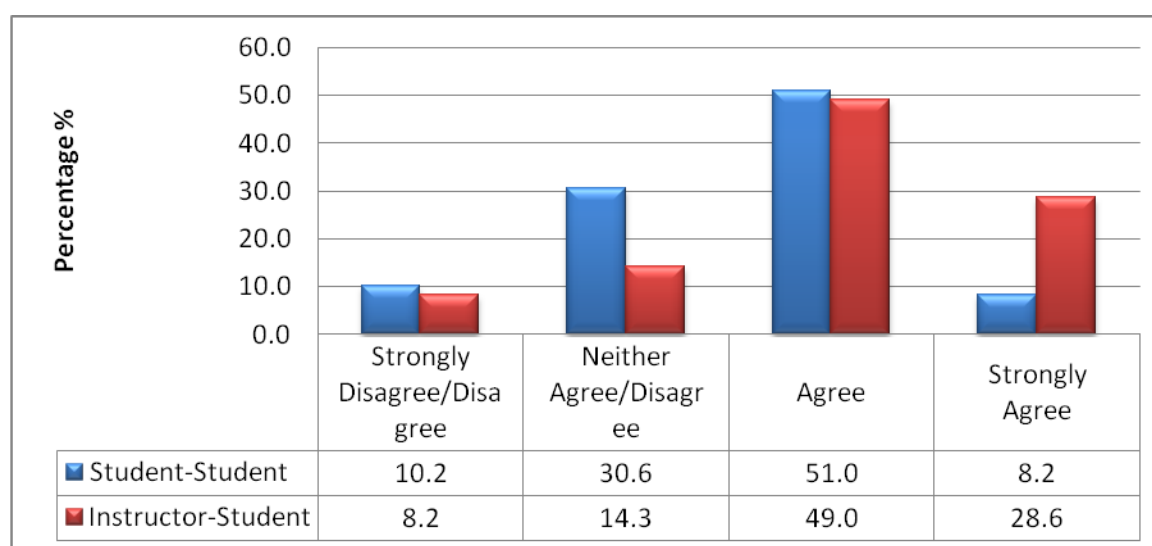


Figure 2. Online Interactions were Excellent with

As can be seen in Figure 2, large numbers of students (49% agreed and 28.6% strongly agreed) valued the interactions in instructor-student online exchanges as being excellent compared with interactions in student-student online exchanges. Students had higher positive perception towards the online interactions of their instructors because they may have benefited from their interactions. It can be observed that 30.6% of students neither agreed nor disagreed although 51% of the students agreed (and 8.2% strongly agree) that the online interactions of their peers were excellent. This perception result can indicate that students valued their peers' online interactions as less positive than the online interactions of their instructors. Perhaps, students did not benefit from the online interactions of their peers as they benefited from their instructors' online interactions and this is why they held more positive perception towards their instructor-student online interactions.

Another interpretation which can be made on the basis of this perception result is that students might have regarded the presence of their instructors as useful for their online interactions in the discussion forums in comparison with the absence of their instructors. That is, the presence of the instructor (as the knowledge expert) in the forums can provide students with a supportive

learning atmosphere where students can see their instructors share the floor with them, support their language learning, and take care of their language learning problems.

I felt Comfortable Interacting with

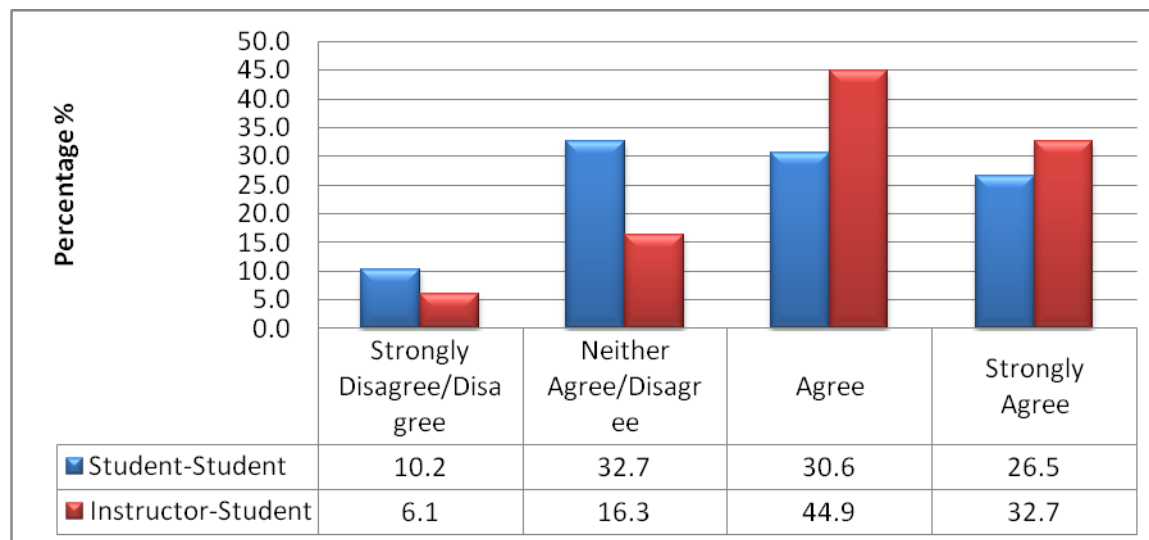


Figure 3. I Felt Comfortable Interacting with

In terms of the second perception, substantial numbers of students (44.9% agreed and 32.7% strongly agreed) showed that they felt comfortable interacting in instructor-student online exchanges as can be seen in Figure 3. As compared with their perception of student-student online exchanges, students were seen to be more comfortable interacting in instructor-student online exchanges. Because of the presence of their instructors students might have felt more comfortable interacting in instructor-student online exchanges as their instructors might have provided them with language support and facilitated their language learning in the discussion forums. It can be found that 32.7% of students neither agreed or disagreed that they felt comfortable interacting in student-student online exchanges. This percentage shows that students were unsure whether they felt comfortable interacting with their peers. Although a few numbers of students (strongly) disagreed that they felt comfortable interacting in student-student and instructor-student online exchanges, large numbers of students still held more positive perceptions about feeling comfortable interacting with their instructors.

I felt Personally Connected to Interact with

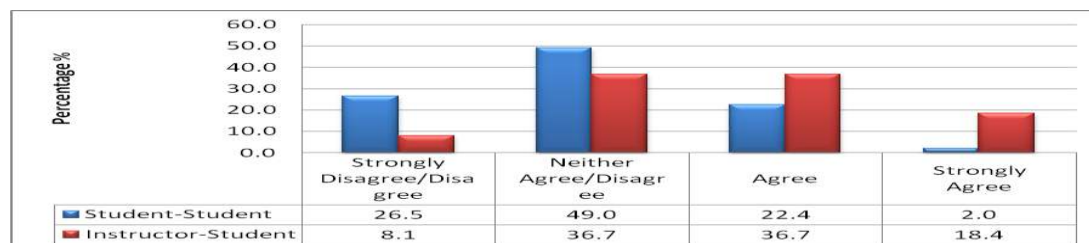


Figure 4. I felt Personally Connected to Interact with

As can be seen in Figure 4, a large number of students (36.7% agreed and 18.4% strongly agreed) indicated that they felt personally connected with their instructors in instructor-student online exchanges and 26.5% of students (strongly) disagreed that they felt personally connected with their peers in student-student online exchanges. This shows that students had positive perceptions of feeling personally connected with their instructors more than with their peers. This personal connectedness can be attributed to the fact that students felt that they communicated socially with their instructors at a personal level in the forums. Having said that, it should be pointed out that students did not appear to interact socially with their peers or instructors outside the confines of the context of their language learning. Online interactions in the discussion forums seemed to be the only social interactions which students engage in with other interlocutors in the present study. As compared with the face-to-face classroom, online interactions were found to help students establish personal connectedness between them and their instructors. This personal connectedness enabled students to seek support from their instructors pertaining to their language learning and personal learning issues while they were interacting in instructor-student online exchanges. This was evident in the current study because several students in their interviews were found to communicate with their instructors using email to discuss their language learning problems and seek advice on their personal learning matters.

Figure 4 shows that 36.7% of students indicated that they neither agreed nor disagreed that they felt personally connected with their instructors. Similarly, a considerable number of students (49.0%) neither agreed nor disagreed that they felt personally connected with their peers. Students felt the same in terms of feeling personally connected with their instructors and peers.

Online Interactions were very Important with

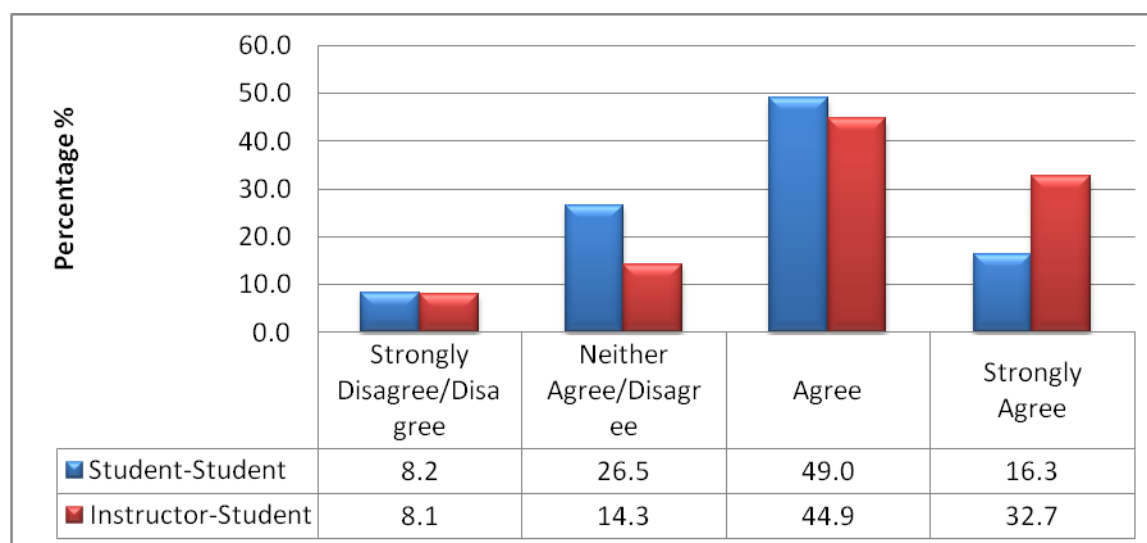


Figure 5. Online Interactions were very Important with

As can be shown in Figure 5, a large proportion of students (44.9% agreed and 32.7% strongly agreed) indicated that their instructor-student online interactions were important. This is again because students might have benefited from the online interactions of their instructors as to improve some aspects of their English language. Although considerable numbers of students (49% agree and 16.3 strongly agree) indicated that student-student online interactions were

important, 26.5% of students in student-student neither agreed nor disagreed with this perception. The proportion of neither agreed nor disagreed shows that students were unsure whether their student-student online interactions were important and this may be because of the fact that they were interacting with students (novices) not with instructors (experts).

Students' Perceptions of Instructors' Online Interactions

Table 3. Students' Perceptions of Instructors' Interactions—Descriptive Analysis Results

N=49		
Students' Perceptions	M	SD
8. Online interactions of the instructor supported my interactions	3.91	.75
9. Online interactions of the instructor encouraged me to improve my English language	4.10	.94
10. Online interactions of the instructor encouraged me to compose correct grammatical sentences	4.00	.88
11. Online interactions of the instructor encouraged me to write correct spelling	3.73	1.07

According to Table three, students had high means of perceptions about the statement that instructors' online interactions were seen as beneficial for their language learning. This indicates that students valued their instructors as helpful and perceived their online interactions as positive.

This is because instructors may have supported their students' online interactions and encouraged them to improve their English language, thereby helping them to write correct grammar and spellings.

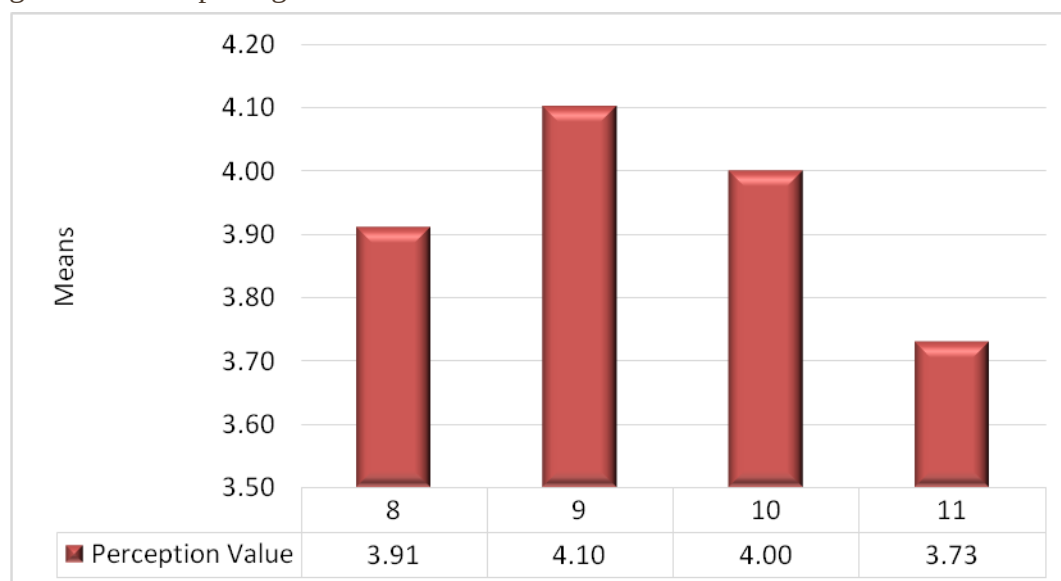


Figure 5. Students' Perceptions of Instructors' Interactions

By looking at Figure 6, it can be observed that student have a higher mean in perception nine which indicates that the online interactions of instructors encouraged students to improve their English language in comparison with other perception means. Students' answers in perception items ten and eleven also supported above findings that instructors' online interactions might have encouraged students to write correct grammatical sentences and use correct spellings.

The present study investigated the above perceptions in terms of scores' weight on the response levels identified in the Likert scale to further understand students' perceptions of instructors' online interactions. The scales of *Strongly Disagree* and *Disagree* were also merged together because of zeroes and small score values to help present the results adequately.

Online Interactions of the Instructor Supported my Interactions

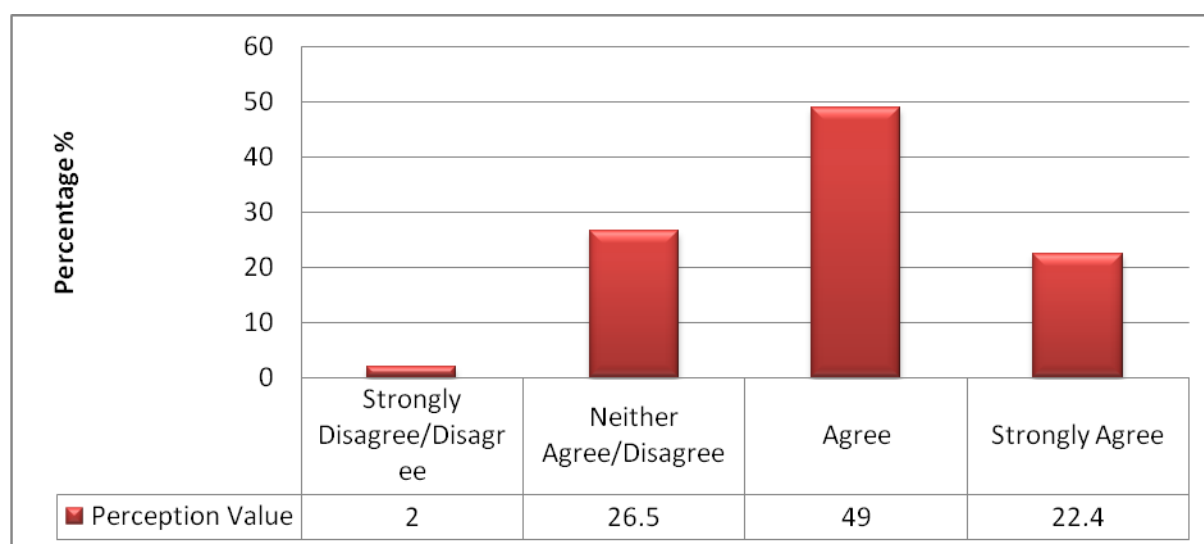


Figure 6. Online Interactions of the Instructor Supported my Interactions

As can be seen in Figure 7, a substantial number of students (49% agreed and 22.4% strongly agreed) agreed that instructors' online interactions supported their online interactions. This shows that students valued their instructors' interactions as positive for promoting their online interactions. That is because instructors guided the interaction in instructor-student online exchanges and their online interactions might have been found to trigger students to engage in reflective interaction. However, 26.5% of students neither agreed nor disagreed that instructors' online interactions supported their online interactions.

Online Interactions of the Instructor Encouraged me to Improve my English Language

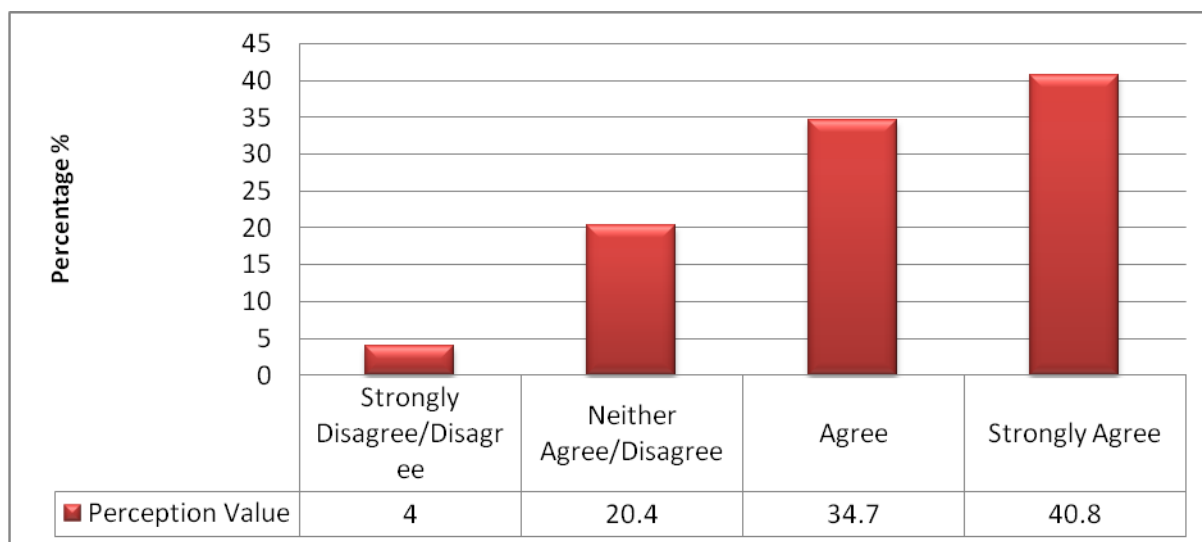


Figure 7. Online Interactions of the Instructor Encouraged me to Improve my English Language

As can be seen in Figure 8, large number of students (34.7% agreed and 40.8% strongly agreed) believed that the online interactions with their instructors encouraged them to improve their English language. This result supports above results as students were found to rate the online interactions of their instructors as excellent, important, and supportive. Nevertheless, 20.4% of students were found to be unsure of whether their instructors' online interactions encouraged them to improve their English language. Perhaps it was difficult for those students to judge the improvement of their English language, especially if their language competence was low.

Online Interactions of the Instructor Encouraged me to Compose Correct Grammatical Sentences

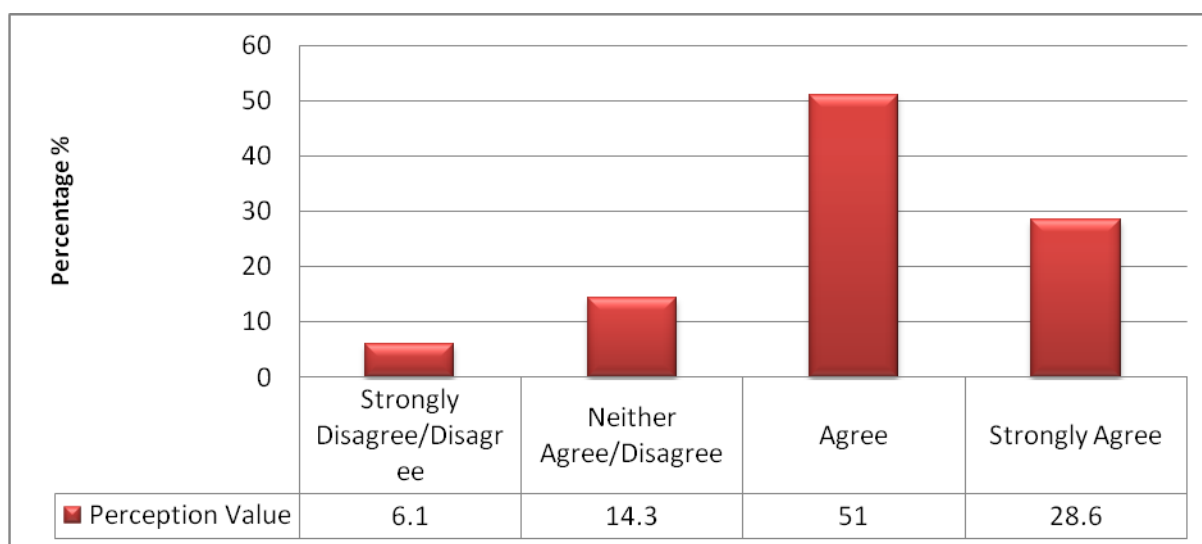


Figure 8. Online Interactions of Instructor Encouraged me to Compose Correct Grammatical Sentences

As can be seen in Figure 9, considerable numbers of students (51% agreed and 28.6% strongly agreed) believed that the online interactions of their instructors encouraged them to compose correct grammatical sentences. This also supports the above findings when students perceived that they benefited linguistically from their instructors' online interactions. Nonetheless, a small number of students (14.3%) neither agreed nor disagreed that their instructors' online interactions encouraged them to compose correct grammatical sentences.

Online Interactions of the Instructor Encouraged me to Write Correct Spelling

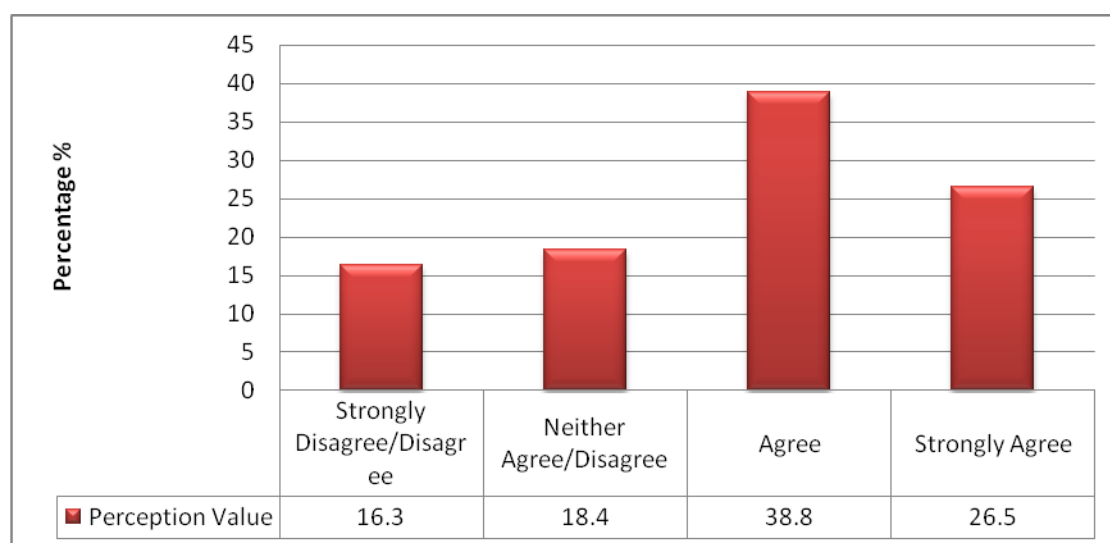


Figure 9. Online Interactions of the Instructor Encouraged me to Write Correct Spelling

In terms of spelling, Figure ten shows that 38.8% of students agreed and 26.5% students strongly agreed that instructors' online interactions encouraged them to use correct spelling. This shows that the presence of the instructor might have positively influenced students to pay attention to their L2 spellings. On the other hand, it can be observed that 16.3% of students disagreed and 18.4% of students did not agree or disagree that the online interactions of their instructors encouraged them to write correct spelling.

Qualitative Analysis Results

Instructor-Student Online Interactions were Important

First of all, from students' questionnaires, it was observed that 43 students (87.75%) indicated, by responding to the open-ended questions, that they valued their instructors' online interactions as more important than their peers' online interactions. This substantial percentage shows that students perceived the online interactions of their instructors more positively than the online interactions of their peers. This result supports the above quantitative findings as instructors' online interactions were perceived as helpful for improving students' language. For instance,

Musfer indicated in his questionnaire that the online interactions of his instructor were seen as important for improving his language.

I found that the interactions of instructor-student are more important than the interactions of student-student because they helped me to develop my grammatical accuracy and encouraged me to think deeply when I wrote in the online discussion forum.

The presence of his instructor seemed to influence him to pay more attention to the linguistic accuracy of his online interactions. He also indicated that his instructor's online interactions encouraged him to think carefully. It can be suggested that the instructor's scaffolding (such as directing referential questions) during online interactions might have influenced students to think carefully. What was found in Saif's interview below supports Musfer's perception result above by showing that the online interactions of instructors were perceived as more important for developing grammatical accuracy than the online interactions of students' peers.

The interactions of instructor-student are more important than the interactions of student-student because they can help students to improve their English grammar and accuracy when they interact in the online discussion forums.

Naser in his questionnaire summarized how the online interactions of his instructor were seen as important.

From my point of view, the instructor has a substantial role during online interactions in the discussion forum because he can help students to correct their grammatical and spelling errors. He also can help them develop their knowledge of culture, and this, in turn, can help students develop their English language effectively.

Naser perceived that the instructor played an important role in online interactions. Because instructors are regarded as the language experts, students can benefit from their language expertise such as learning language grammar and culture.

Instructor-Student Online Interactions were Useful for L2 Learning

In terms of perceiving the online interactions of instructors as useful for language learning, Ameer was found to feel excited because the online interactions of his instructor encouraged him to take care of his linguistic accuracy.

The interactions of my instructor made me felt excited because they helped me to pay more attention to language mistakes and write good sentences in instructor-student online exchanges. They encouraged me to write precisely and contribute to the discussion in the online forum.

Thus, it can be deduced that the role which the instructor plays eventually help students to acquire new language knowledge and develop their English language.

Mansoor reported how he perceived the online interactions of his instructor when he interacted in instructor-student online exchanges.

When my instructor started to interact with my postings, I really felt excited and energetic and that was the most interesting thing for me during instructor-student online exchanges.

The online interactions of instructors showed that instructors valued their online students' interactions and this in turn influenced students to feel excited.

I Felt Comfortable Interacting in Instructor-Student Online Interactions

By examining students' questionnaire responses to open-ended questions, it can be found that 36 students (73.46%) indicated that they felt comfortable interacting in instructor-student online exchanges. This considerable number gives more support for the quantitative findings in the present study. It was also found that a larger number of students reported in their questionnaire's open-ended responses that they liked to interact online with their instructors (20 students, 41%) more than with their peers (17 students, 35%) because of several reasons which students noted—the other students (12 students, 24%) liked to interact with their peers and instructors equally. These reasons which students noted are reported and discussed in the following sections.

Instructor-Student Online Interactions were Reflective

The first reason why students liked to interact in instructor-student more than in student-student online exchanges is that students perceived the online interactions of their instructors as more reflective (i.e., responding and contributing to posts) than the online interactions of their peers. This can be attributed to the online presence of the instructors. That is, because instructors directed questions and argued with their students, this triggered their students to interact with their instructors and contribute to the reflectivity of instructor-student online interactions. For example, Zaman explained how his peers interacted in student-student and instructor-student online exchanges.

I noted that my peers interacted and did their best when they interacted with their instructor in instructor-student more than when they interacted without their instructor in student-student online exchanges.

Naser supports this by reporting that he felt more serious when interacting with his instructor than with his peers because of the online presence of his instructor.

Because of the presence of my instructor I felt more serious to interact in instructor-student than in student-student online exchanges.

As reported above, it can be noted that some students liked the online interactions of their instructors more than the interactions of their peers because student-student online interactions did not seem to be reflective and students did not show the same seriousness in their student-student online interactions as compared with their instructor-student online interactions.

Instructor-Student Online Interactions were Useful for Thinking and Language Exposure

The second reason is that instructors' online interactions were perceived by students as useful because they encouraged them to think more about what they wrote and exposed them to the target language. For example, Ibraheem reported that he benefited from the online interactions of his instructor because they encouraged him to think.

I liked to interact in instructor-student more than in student-student online exchanges because the interactions of my instructor encouraged me to think more about what I was going to write in the online discussion forum.

Similarly, Amaar perceived the online interactions of his instructor as useful because it exposed him to the English language.

I liked to interact in instructor-student more than in student-student online exchanges because the interactions of my instructor exposed me to the English language.

Because instructors as the experts interacted online with their students, their referential questions encouraged students to think more when they answered them and their language output exposed them to the English language.

Instructor-Student Online Interactions were Helpful for Grammatical and Spelling Accuracy

The third reason is that the online interactions of instructors were perceived by students as helpful because they encouraged them to correct their grammatical and spelling errors. This was the most noted reason in the present study in terms of why several students liked to interact more with their instructors than with their peers. Saeed, for instance, indicated that he benefited from the online interactions of his instructor to improve his grammatical accuracy.

I liked to interact in instructor-student more than in student-student online exchanges because my instructor encouraged me to correct my grammatical mistakes when I interacted in the online discussion forum.

Fahad supports what Saeed believed by indicating that his instructor corrected students' linguistic errors when they interacted in instructor-student online exchanges.

I observed that my instructor was concerned with correcting students' grammatical and spelling errors in instructor-student online exchanges and I really liked that.

Abdul indicated in his questionnaire that the online interactions of the instructor can have a positive influence on students' language.

The interactions of the instructor can influence students to develop their language in terms of using correct grammar and spelling when they interact in the online discussion forum.

Likewise, Talal valued the online interactions of his instructor as helpful for the development of his grammatical and spelling accuracy.

I felt that my language developed after I interacted with my instructor in instructor-student online exchanges. The online interactions of my instructor helped me to correct my grammatical and spelling mistakes.

The online presence of instructors might have encouraged students to pay more attention to their language errors and their online interactions helped them to improve their linguistic accuracy.

Instructor-Student Online Interactions were Useful for Strengthening the Relationship between Student and the Instructor

Another interesting reason why students preferred to interact in instructor-student more than in student-student online exchanges is because instructors' online interactions were perceived as useful in terms of lessening interaction barriers between students and their instructors. Sultan, for instance, reflected on the online interactions of instructor-student online exchanges.

The interactions of instructors are seen as helpful because they can break many barriers between students and their instructors and this in turn can have a positive effect on language learning in the online discussion forum.

In line with what Sultan perceived, Aziz perceived the online interactions of his instructor as useful because they fostered students' online interactions and developed a strong relationship between students and their instructor in the online environment.

The most interesting thing which I noted during the interactions of instructor-student online exchanges was the development of a strong relationship between students and their instructor.

It can be deduced that the online interactions of instructors with their students might have developed a supportive relationship between students and their instructors because they interacted online with each other as one learning community. A good relationship between students and their instructors is seen as important for fostering online interaction and language learning among students because it can support them to interact and develop their language in the online environment.

Discussion

The results of quantitative analyses showed that students had greater means of positive perceptions towards the online interactions of instructor-student than the interactions of student-student. Students significantly valued their instructors' online interactions as excellent, comfortable, and important as compared with their students' online interactions. The qualitative analysis results of students' questionnaire and interview data demonstrate that students perceived the online interactions of instructor-student more positively than the online interactions of student-student. This finding gives more support for the previous quantitative findings by noting that students valued their instructors' online interactions as more helpful for online interaction and language learning than their peers' online interactions. Students felt personally connected to their instructors more than peers to the extent that some students used emails to communicate their personal language learning issues to their instructors.

When instructors were present during online interactions, this made students feel comfortable because their instructors were available online to support their online interactions and language learning. The referential questions and corrective feedback which were produced by instructor during online interactions were seen as useful. The former encouraged students to think more and engage in online interaction with their instructors and the latter helped students to improve their linguistic accuracy.

Are there Significant Differences in Saudi Students' Perceptions?

The present study found significant differences in the perceptions of Saudi EFL students. Saudi students valued their instructor-student online interactions more positively than their student-student online interactions. This finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g., AbuSeileek, 2007; Yang, 2011; T. Zhang et al., 2007). This is because Saudi students perceived the online interactions of their instructors as more knowledgeable and important than the online interactions of their peers. They also felt comfortable and personally connected with their instructors when they interacted online with them. This clearly shows that Saudi students had a more positive attitude towards their instructors' online interactions than towards their students' online interactions.

What are the Qualities of Saudi Students' Perceptions?

The present study found that Saudi students had different perceptions towards their student-student and instructor-student online interactions. First, a considerable number of students valued the instructor-student online interactions as important because Saudi students benefited from their instructors' online interactions. As found, instructors' online interactions were valued as useful for students' language development because instructors' online interactions encouraged Saudi students to express their thoughts and improve their linguistic accuracy in the online environment. These findings are consistent with Yang (2011) who revealed that students benefited from the online interactions of their instructors to develop their language accuracy and

their instructors' online interactions appeared to encourage them to express their thoughts. Secondly, a substantial number of Saudi students reported that they felt comfortable interacting online with their instructors more than with their peers. This finding supports the results of Zhang et al. (2007) that students felt more comfortable when interacting online with their instructors than peers in the discussion forums. This is because students in Zhang et al. (2007) liked getting positive feedback from their instructors. In the present study, Saudi students liked their instructors' online interactions because they benefited from them as they helped them to improve their English language and support their online learning. Saudi students considered their instructors' online interactions to be reflective and useful for the development of their grammatical and spelling accuracy and encouraged their critical thinking thus strengthening the relationship between students and their instructors in the online discussion forums

Conclusion

In conclusion, Saudi students perceive the instructor-student online interactions more positively than the student-student online interactions because instructors' online interactions encourage students to interact and develop their language. Because of the presence of instructors, instructor-student online interactions encouraged students to interact, think carefully, pay attention to language errors, be reflective, and improve linguistic accuracy more than student-student online interactions.

There are some limitations in this study. The small sample size and the homogeneity of the participants and not having female participants might have affected the results of the present study. Because there was no control group in this study, it can be difficult to claim that the online presence of the instructor influences student online L2 interactions. Thus, the results of the present study cannot be generalizable to other EFL contexts. Furthermore, interacting with EFL instructors of different cultural backgrounds may influence the perceptions of EFL students in online environments. In this study, Saudi students did not participate with their Saudi EFL instructors.

Researching the perceptions of heterogeneous population of EFL participants is needed in online L2 learning. This would allow a more definite and generalizable conclusion as to how EFL students perceive and view their peers' and instructors' online L2 interactions. Because of the specificity of this EFL context (Saudi EFL L2 learning), it is worth conducting qualitative investigations to help understand the perceptions of Saudi students and whether there are other factors, different from the ones we observed in this study, that may affect Saudi students' perceptions in their online L2 learning.

About the Author:

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

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Appendices
Appendix A:

Student Questionnaires

Code:

QUESTIONNAIRE

We appreciate your willingness to participate in this study. The responses you write in this questionnaire will be treated with total confidentiality by the researchers. After completing this questionnaire, please put it in the enclosed sealed envelope. Then, put it into the students' box located at the Faculty of Languages and Translation.

This questionnaire has four sections (A, B, C, and D). Before you start completing this questionnaire, please read the instructions provided in every section carefully and choose items or answer questions accordingly.

A) Collecting Students' Personal and Background Information.

Please read each question carefully and choose the best answer by selecting a or b or by writing a correct answer under questions:

1) How old are you?

.....years old

2) Is Arabic your mother tongue language? If not, what is it?

☐ a. Yes

☐ b. No:

3) Is English your foreign language?

☐ a. Yes

☐ b. No

4) Do you speak other foreign languages? If yes, what are they?

☐ a. Yes:

☐ b. No

5) Have you performed an English international proficiency test (e.g., TOEFL or IELTS)?

☐ a. Yes

☐ b. No

What was the name of the test?

When did you do it?

What was the total score?

What was the score of writing?

6) Have you ever travelled to a country where English language is the formal language?

☐ a. Yes

☐ b. No

Where did you travel?

How long did you stay there?

7) Have you ever studied any English course on the Blackboard while learning English language?

☐ a. Yes

☐ b. No

How long have you studied using the Blackboard system?

How many courses did you study using the Blackboard system?

8) Are you currently studying English courses on the Blackboard system?

☐ a. Yes

☐ b. No

How many courses?

9) How many years have you been learning the English language?

I have been learning English language for.....years.

B) Rating Students' Computer and Internet Literacy.

Please rate the following items in terms of your ability in and familiarity with computers and the internet by circling one number only from 1 to 5 according to the scale in the below Table:

5	Very often
4	Often
3	Sometimes
2	Not often
1	Not at all

Please see the following example:

I use computer for my homework.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes (3)	Often 4	Very often 5

Computer and Internet Literacy	Scale				
10. I use computers.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5
11. I use the internet.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5

12. I use e-mails.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5
13. I use English discussion forums on the internet.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5
14. I use English chat on the internet.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5
15. I use internet messenger.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5
16. I use Arabic discussion forums on the internet.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5
17. I use the university Blackboard educational system.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5
18. I use the discussion forums of the university Blackboard educational system.	Not at all 1	Not often 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5

C) Exploring Students' Perceptions of Online Interactions with Peers and Instructor

According to the scale in the Table below, please rate the following items in terms of your perceptions and attitudes towards your participation in the online discussion forums of the university Blackboard educational system by circling one number only from the scale 1 to 5.

5	Strongly Agree
4	Agree
3	Neither Agree/Disagree
2	Disagree
1	Strongly Disagree

First: Your interactions in student-student online exchanges.	Scale				
19. Online interactions were excellent with my peers.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
20. I felt comfortable interacting with my peers.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
21. I know my peers in the discussion forum very well.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

22. I felt personally connected with my peers.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
23. Online interactions with my peers were very important.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
24. Online interactions with my peers gave me the confidence to participate and interact.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
25. Online interactions with my peers gave me a sense of being a part of one social learning community.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
26. Online interactions of my peers motivated me to engage in interaction in the discussion forum.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
27. The topics used for online interactions motivated me to interact in the discussion forum.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
28. The length of online interactions was good.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

Second: Your interactions in instructor-student online exchanges.	Scale				
29. Online interactions were excellent with the instructor.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
30. I felt comfortable interacting with the instructor.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
31. I felt personally connected with the instructor.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
32. Online interactions of the instructor were very important.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
33. Online interactions of the instructor gave me the confidence to participate and interact.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
34. Online interactions of the instructor gave me a sense of being a part of one social learning community.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

	1	2	3	4	5
35. Online interactions of the instructor motivated me to engage in interaction in the discussion forum.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
36. Online interactions of the instructor supported my interactions in the online discussion forum.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
37. Online interactions of the instructor encouraged me to improve my English language in the discussion forum.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
38. Online interactions of the instructor encouraged me to compose correct grammatical sentences in the discussion forum.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
39. Online interactions of the instructor encouraged me to write correct spelling in the discussion forum.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
40. The topics used for online interactions motivated me to interact in the discussion forum.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
41. The length of online interactions was good.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree /Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

D) Exploring Students' Perceptions (Open-ended Questions).

Please read the following questions carefully. According to your experience and feelings, write your answers clearly about your interactions in the online discussion forum in this study.

1) Did you like to interact more in student-student or in instructor-student online exchanges? Why?

.....

2) Was the presence of the instructor in the online discussion forum very important to you? Why?

.....

3) Did you feel comfortable and socially engaged when interacting in instructor-student online exchanges? Why?

.....

4) What was the most interesting thing to you about the interactions in instructor-student online exchanges?

.....

5) What was the most interesting thing to you about the interactions in the online discussion forum in this study?

.....

6) Did you find any difficulties in using the online discussion forum, or interacting in student-student and instructor-student online exchanges? If so, please mention some of these difficulties?

.....

- 7) If you would like to write or suggest anything about your participation in this study, or interactions in student-student and instructor-student online exchanges, please feel free to do so.
-
-

Thank you very much for your participation ☺

Appendix B:

Student Interviews

INTERVIEW

In this interview, a student has to answer the questions prompted by the researcher around a discussion table. The role of the researcher is to listen to the interviewee's answers and interaction, and to make sure that the student responds to the interviewer's questions and provide information about the study. This interview has four sections (A, B, and C). The researcher will record the students' responses on computer audio files using a digital voice recorder.

A) General Questions about Participation in the Present Study.

- 1) How was your experience in participation in the online discussion forum in this study?
- 2) What was the most interesting thing to you in terms of interactions in the online discussion forum in this study?
- 3) Describe your interactions when you interacted in the online discussion forum?
- 4) What benefits did you gain from participation in the online discussion forum in this study?
- 5) Did you have any difficulties when you participated in this study?
- 6) Would you like to say anything more about interactions in the online discussion forum in this study?

B) Questions about Interactions in Student-Student Online Exchanges.

- 1) How was your experience in the interactions of student-student online exchanges in this study?
- 2) Were you willing to interact in student-student online exchanges in this study? Why?
- 3) Did you feel comfortable when interacting in student-student online exchanges in this study? In what way? Give some examples please?
- 4) Did you feel socially engaged when interacting in student-student online exchanges in this study? In what way? Give some examples please?
- 5) Did you feel a sense of being a part of one online social learning community when interacting in student-student online exchanges in this study? In what way?
- 6) Describe your reactions when you read the messages and posts of your peers in student-student online exchanges in this study?
- 7) How did you feel about your interactions in the online discussion forum compared to those of your peers when you interacted in student-student online exchanges in this study? Why?
- 8) What was the most interesting thing you found when you interacted in student-student online exchanges in this study?
- 9) Did the discussion topics stimulate you to interact in student-student online exchanges in this study? How? Give some examples please?
- 10) Do you think that your language improved as a result of you interaction in student-student online exchanges in this study? How? Give some examples please?
- 11) Did you have any difficulties during interactions in student-student online exchanges in this study?
- 12) Would you like to say anything more about the interactions of student-student online exchanges in this study?

C) Questions about Interactions in Instructor-Student Online Exchanges.

- 1) How was your experience in the interactions of instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 2) Were you willing to interact in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? Why?
- 3) Did you feel comfortable when interacting in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? In what way? Give some examples please?
- 4) Did you feel socially engaged when you interacted in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? In what way? Give some examples please?

- 5) Did you feel a sense of being a part of one online social learning community when you interacted in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? How?
- 6) What were your feelings about the presence of the instructor during instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 7) Describe your reactions when you read the messages and posts of the instructor in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 8) Did the presence of the instructor encourage you to interact in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? How?
- 9) How did you feel about your interactions in the online discussion forum compared to those of your peers when you interacted in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? Why?
- 10) What was the most interesting thing to you when you interacted in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 11) Did the discussion topics stimulate you to interact in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? How? Give some examples please?
- 12) Do you think that your language improved as a result of interacting with the instructor in instructor-student online exchanges in this study? How?
- 13) Did you have any difficulties during interactions in instructor-student online exchanges in this study?
- 14) 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!

“I could right what had been made wrong”: Laila Lalami’s appropriation of Aphra Behn’s *Oroonoko*

Yousef Awad

Department of English Language and Literature
Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Jordan
Amman, Jordan

Abstract:

This paper investigates Arab American novelist Laila Lalami (b. 1968)’s re-writing of Álgar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca’s *La Relación*, a travelogue that chronicles Spanish conquistador Panfilo de Narváez (1470–1528)’s expedition to claim La Florida to the Spanish crown in the sixteenth century. Lalami’s *The Moor’s Account* (2014) is a historical novel narrated by Mustafa ibn Muhammad ibn Abdulssalam al-Zamori, a Moroccan slave known in Spanish annals as Estevanico/Estebanico, who was one of four survivors of the Narváez expedition and whose testimony, unlike those of his Castilian companions, was left out of the official record. As a postcolonial historical novel, *The Moor’s Account* recovers Mustafa’s voice and empowers him to narrate the adventures he undertakes in La Florida for eight years. The paper argues that in re-imagining and re-constructing Mustafa’s story, Lalami appropriates and adapts Aphra Behn’s seventeenth century novel *Oroonoko* (1688) which is one of the earliest English novels to foreground the themes of displacement and enslavement through relating the eponymous hero’s adventures in Surinam. Hence, this study is both analytical and comparative: on the one hand, the paper gives a close reading of Lalami’s *The Moor’s Account*; on the other hand, the paper highlights the similarities and differences between the two texts. The two novels attempt to recover the silenced voices of two African men / Moors who have traded in slaves and were themselves enslaved at a later point in their lives. At the same time, the two novels differ in their narrative techniques, representation of women and dénouements.

Keywords: adaptation, appropriation, Aphra Behn, Arab American Literature, Laila Lalami, *The Moor’s Account* (2014), postcolonial historical novel

**“I could right what had been made wrong”:
Laila Lalami’s appropriation of Aphra Behn’s *Oroonoko***

In telling this history, my companions began to modify its more damaging details [...] In this shortened and sanitized form, the chronicle of the Narváez’s expedition became suitable for the royal court, the cardinals and inquisitors, the governors and officials, and the families and friends they had left behind in Castile. (Laila Lalami, *The Moor’s Account*, p. 286)

Laila Lalami is an Arab American novelist who grew up in Morocco and received her higher education in the UK and the US. Currently, she is an associate professor of creative writing at the University of California at Riverside. Her novel, *The Moor’s Account* (2014) won an American Book Award from The Before Columbus Foundation, was also named a finalist for the 2015 Pulitzer Prize in Fiction and was longlisted for the Man Booker Prize. This paper investigates Lalami’s fictional account of Spanish conquistador Panfilo de Narváez’s expedition to claim La Florida to the Spanish crown in the first third of the sixteenth century. Lalami’s *The Moor’s Account* (2014) is a historical novel narrated by Mustafa ibn Muhammad ibn Abdulssalam al-Zamori, a Moroccan slave known in Spanish annals as Estevanico/Estebanico, who was one of four survivors of the ill-fated mission and whose testimony, unlike those of his Castilian companions, was left out of the official record. Lalami interpolates historical discourse, shows its limitations and recovers Mustafa’s voice as he relates the adventures he undertakes in La Florida for eight years along with Spanish conquistadors Andrés Dorantes de Carranza (c. 1500 – c. 1550), Alonso del Castillo Maldonado (? – c. 1540?) and Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca (c. 1488 – c. 1560), the latter being the author of *La Relación*, (1542) a travelogue addressed and dedicated to King Charles V that chronicles the Narváez expedition.

In re-imagining and re-constructing Mustafa’s tale, Lalami’s novel appropriates and adapts Aphra Behn’s seventeenth century novel *Oroonoko* (1688) which chronicles the eponymous hero’s adventures in Surinam. In fact, the two novels attempt to recover the silenced voices of two African men / Moors who have traded in slaves, were themselves enslaved at a later point in their lives, renamed and despatched to the New World where each starts a new family and anxiously awaits the birth of a child. Notwithstanding the similarities in the plotlines of the two novels and the actual historical sources on which Behn and Lalami have founded their novels, there are obvious differences between the two novels. Firstly, while *Oroonoko*’s voice is mediated by that of the narrator, Lalami’s novel is narrated by the protagonist himself, adding a sense of immediacy and propinquity, and subsequently, creating a solid bond between the hero and the reader as the latter becomes privy to the former’s inner thoughts. Secondly, while Behn renders *Oroonoko*’s wife, Imoinda, silent, submissive and helpless, Lalami depicts Mustafa’s wife, Oyomasot, as resilient, enlightened and dynamic. Finally, the two novels end differently: while *Oroonoko*, who murders his pregnant wife to protect her from rape in case his revenge plan goes awry, is defeated and dismembered, Mustafa shrewdly finds a way to free himself and his pregnant wife from bondage.

Beside *The Moor's Account*, Lalami published two novels, namely *Hope and Other Dangerous Pursuits* (2005) and *The Secret Son* (2009). In these two novels, Lalami presents the daily experiences of a number of Moroccan characters and highlights the socioeconomic, political and cultural matters that influence their lives. Lalami's fiction, to quote the words of Idrissi Alami (2013), depicts “a disparate confluence of complex identities affected by both local Moroccan and distant Spanish cultures as bound by centuries of relationships that continue to inform, and haunt, their collective cultural memory” (p. 150). In other words, Lalami's two novels reflect on how Morocco's geographical location and its long history of interaction with Europe decisively shape the identities of millions of Moroccans. In this context, Lalami's fiction explores issues of immigration, globalization and local political affairs and illustrates how these forces influence the lives of the characters depicted in these novels. Immigration, it should be noted, is a theme that permeates Lalami's novels as the migrant characters “refus[e] to settle down in original homeland and [are] aware of the continuation of the racist and ethnic thinking in their diasporic space” (Elboubekri, 2014, p. 263).

Unlike Lalami's previous two novels, *The Moor's Account* is a historical novel set in the sixteenth century. As a genre, to borrow the words of Dalley (2014a), “postcolonial historical novels ask to be read as serious interpretations of the actual past” (p. 52). This means that Lalami's novel seeks to re-interpret historical events through empowering marginalized people and foregrounding what may be deemed by the mainstream as insignificant incidents. In this sense, *The Moor's Account* re-writes historical events from the perspective of the disfranchised since it is narrated by Mustafa ibn Muhammad ibn Abdulssalam al-Zamori, also known in Spanish annals as Estevanico/Estebanico, a Moroccan slave whose name was fleetingly mentioned in renowned Spanish conquistador Álvaro Núñez Cabeza de Vaca's *La Relación*, a travelogue addressed and dedicated to King Charles V that chronicles the Narváez expedition in La Florida in the first third of the sixteenth century. In this sense, Lalami's book, to cite Dalley's words on the genre of the contemporary postcolonial historical novel, is “committed to producing meaningful knowledge of contested pasts” (2014b, p. 9).

In *The Moor's Account*, Mustafa was born to a Moroccan notary in the town of Azemmur in the year 903 of Hegira (around 1497 of Gregorian calendar).¹ He received his basic education at a local school in preparation for a future career his father had carefully planned for him as a notary. However, against his father's wishes, Mustafa decides to be a merchant, and in short time, he begins to trade in slaves. Soon, Azemmur is besieged by the Portuguese and Mustafa's life takes a downturn. His father dies, his uncles flee the town and he is left with the responsibility of feeding his two brothers, a divorced sister and an ageing mother. As the economic crisis tightens, Mustafa finds himself out of work and decides to sell himself into slavery. He hands in the money to his brothers, hoping that it will help them survive the ongoing harsh economic conditions.

Mustafa is shipped to Seville and is given the name of Esteban as he enters the service of Bernardo Rodriguez, a young fabric merchant. After five years, Bernardo sells Mustafa to settle some outstanding debts. The new owner, Andrés Dorantes de Carranza, re-baptizes Mustafa as Estebanico and the two joins Pánfilo de Narváez's expedition to explore the New World. The ill-fated expedition which consisted of six hundred men set sail in 1527, but after a year, only four survived: Alonso del Castillo Maldonado, Álvaro Núñez Cabeza de Vaca, Estebanico and his master. For eight years, the four live among the Indian tribes, serve as physicians, get married and start new families. The four move from one tribe to another and are followed by hundreds of Indians who are enthralled by the four men's medical talents. Eventually, they come across

Spanish guards and are re-united with the Viceroy. While the three Spanish men are invited to officially deliver their testimonies, called the Joint Report, to the Audiencia of Santo Domingo, Estebanico is denied this honour but is lulled by his master's repeated promises to set him free. Aware of Estebanico's navigational and multilingual skills, the Viceroy buys Estebanico and employs him in a new expedition to invade the New World's northern lands. However, worried about the future of his pregnant wife, Estebanico cleverly finds a way to run along with his wife from bondage.

As the above plotline shows, Lalami's novel attempts to recover the silenced voice of Mustafa ibn Muhammad ibn Abdulssalam al-Zamori. In other words, *The Moor's Account* disrupts the hegemonic narrative of Cabeza de Vaca's *La Relación*. In this sense, Lalami's historical novel “challenge[s] mainstream and repressive narratives” (De Groot, 2009, p. 3). By narrating the mis/fortunes of the Narváez expedition from the perspective of Estebanico who was not allowed to officially record his testimony, Lalami centralizes the marginalized and unsettles power structures that render the Moroccan man invisible. In this sense, Lalami attempts to re-write history from the margins since for many postcolonial writers, as C. L. Innes puts it, “history is the crucible out of which their fiction is fashioned” (2014, p. 823). In *The Moor's Account*, the narrator, Mustafa announces from the outset that his narrative intends to “correct the details of history that was compiled” by Alonso del Castillo Maldonado, Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca and Andrés Dorantes de Carranza (p. 3). While Mustafa shows respect for the three men, he insists that:

[U]nder the pressure of the Bishop, the Viceroy, and the Marquis of the Valley, and in accordance with the standards set by their positions, they were led to omit certain events while exaggerating others, and to suppress some details while inventing others, while I [...] feel free to recount the true story of what happened to my companions and me. (p. 3)

Mustafa's words reveal that chronicling historical events is a site over which national, political, social and personal issues converge. Mustafa's words illustrate how the documentation of the official history involves an endless process of editing and re-writing.

As a postcolonial novel, *The Moor's Account* empowers the disfranchised and the marginalized. Mustafa, a Moroccan slave in the service of the Spanish crown, transforms the dominant discourse, and hence, asserts his presence and identity. To use Ashcroft's (2001) words on strategies of cultural resistance taken by postcolonial subjects, Mustafa is not “swallowed up by the hegemony of the empire”, and hence, Lalami's book “interpolate[s] the various modes of imperial discourse [...] to counter its effects by transforming them” (p. 14). In this context, Lalami's historical novel blurs the boundaries between history and literature, and subsequently, “reveal[s] the fundamentally allegorical nature of history itself” (p. 15). Seen from this perspective, history, as Ashcroft rightly argues, “is a construction of language and of culture, and, ultimately, the site of struggle for control which post-colonial writing is in a particularly strategic position to engage” (p. 83). Ashcroft maintains that in order for postcolonial writers to interpolate history, they have to engage the medium of narrativity itself, and hence, “subvert the unquestioned status of the ‘scientific record’ by re-inscribing the ‘rhetoric’ of events” (p. 92).

Ashcroft's words demonstrate how postcolonial writers can employ fiction to narrate their version(s) of historical events. In fact, Ashcroft's words recall Selmon's (1988) comments on the process of “transforming our inherited notions of history” (p. 159). Selmon argues:

[A]nd the extent to which we are able to see history as language, as discourse, as a way of seeing, or as a code of recognition is also the extent to which we are able to destabilise history's fixity, its givenness, and open it up to the transformative power of imaginative revision. (p. 159)

Selmon's last few words highlight the importance of re-imagining historical events and re-interpreting them. Thus, the postcolonial historical novel becomes an expedient vehicle for re-envisioning historical episodes and representing them from the perspective of the marginalized and disfranchised. In this sense, Mustafa's narrative disrupts the official version of history that renders him invisible.

In fact, Mustafa's insistence on faithfully chronicling the historical events he participated in and witnessed recalls Aphra Behn's declaration at the outset of her novel, *Oroonoko, or The Royal Slave* (1688) to tell the story of the eponymous hero without embellishment:

I do not pretend, in giving you the history of this royal slave, to entertain my reader with adventures of a feigned hero, [...] nor in relating the truth, design to adorn it with any accidents but such as arrived in earnest to him: and it shall come simply into the world, recommended by its own proper merits and natural intrigues. (p. 9)

The narrator takes pains to convince the reader that she is “an eye-witness to a great part of the events and what she could not be witness of, she received from the mouth of Oroonoko himself” (p. 9). In this sense, Behn, as Rosenthal (2004) succinctly puts it, “manipulates the narrative's point of view to offer the perspectives of distinct narrative voices” (p. 164). According to Rosenthal, one of these perspectives belong to Oroonoko “who tells his story to the narrator in the style of heroic romance befitting his character”, while the other perspective is that of “an elite young woman who admires Oroonoko [...], but who also betrays him” (p. 164).

However, despite her unwavering commitment to accuracy and precision in recording the African prince's history, the narrator excuses herself to “omit, for brevity's sake, a thousand little accidents of his life” (p. 9). This decision, one may argue, echoes Mustafa's words on how the three Spanish noblemen have omitted, exaggerated, suppressed and even invented some details (Lalami, p. 3). Indeed, there are enough thematic and structural commonalities between the two novels since each tells the story of an African man / Moor who at first trades with Europeans in slaves before he becomes a victim of the very trade that reinforces his social status in his homeland. In addition, as the two men are enslaved, they are renamed and shipped to the New World where they futilely seek to return to their homelands. Moreover, while in the New World, each of them gets married and anxiously awaits his wife to give birth. In this sense, in re-constructing and re-imagining Mustafa's narrative, Lalami appropriates and adapts Behn's *Oroonoko*, one of the earliest English novels that foreground the themes of enslavement and displacement.

But the differences between the two literary works are numerous, and significantly, they reflect the differences between a Eurocentric text written in the seventeenth century by an English woman and a novel written in the twenty first century by a Moroccan American woman. To borrow the words of Sanders (2006) on appropriations, Lalami's book “affects a more decisive journey away from the informing source into a wholly new product and domain” (p. 26). While *The Moor's Account* borrows some thematic and structural features from *Oroonoko*,

it transforms and transposes these elements. In other words, Lalami's novel is a postcolonial piece of work in which Africans seek to “write themselves into a historical narrative of their own construction” (Innes, 2014, p. 825). In this sense, in addition to re-writing the original source of her novel, namely Cabeza de Vaca's *La Relación*, Lalami engages with Behn's *Oroonoko* in a way that redresses some of the representational oversights, mistakes and gaps in the novel. Behn's ambivalent position is eloquently expressed by Lipking (2004) who stipulates that Behn's novel “may demean Europeans, but foreseeably shares a superiority over the wretched” (p. 178).

Seen from this perspective, Lalami's novel attempts to rectify the representational lapses in *Oroonoko* by appropriating and adapting its narrative technique, representation of women and dénouement. While *Oroonoko*'s voice is mediated by that of the narrator, Lalami's protagonist narrates his adventures directly, adding a sense of immediacy and creating an intimate relationship with the reader as the latter becomes privy to Mustafa's inner thoughts. Secondly, while Behn renders *Oroonoko*'s wife, Imoinda, as silent, submissive and helpless, Lalami depicts Mustafa's wife, Oyomasot, as resilient, enlightened and dynamic. Finally, notwithstanding the actual historical events on which the two works are founded, *The Moor's Account* and *Oroonoko* end differently: while *Oroonoko* murders his pregnant wife to protect her from rape and is eventually defeated and humiliated, Mustafa slyly finds a way to free himself and his pregnant wife from bondage. Lalami's book is a historical novel that re-writes history through appropriating and adapting a canonical and foundational text of English literature. As Dalley (2014b) succinctly points out, “the contested nature of postcolonial pasts prompts novelists to frame their work vis-à-vis norms of plausibility, verifiability, and the dialogue with archives and alternative accounts” (p. 9).

The Moor's Account re-writes Cabeza de Vaca's *La Relación* and draws on Behn's *Oroonoko*. In re-imagining and re-constructing Mustafa's adventures in the New World, Lalami appropriates and adapts Behn's novel. To use Sanders's words on appropriation once more, Lalami's novel presents “a wholesale rethinking” (p. 28) of *Oroonoko*. To start with, *Oroonoko* and Mustafa are African men / Moors. The first is a prince from Coramantien which has slave trade links with Europe (p. 13). Behn describes *Oroonoko* as a multilingual “gallant Moor” and points out that a Frenchman “took a great pleasure to teach him morals, language, and science” (p. 14). For Behn, *Oroonoko* is different from other Africans since his colour is lighter:

His face was not of that brown rusty black which most of that nation are, but of perfect ebony, or polished jet [...] His nose was rising and Roman, instead of African and flat. His mouth the finest shaped that could be seen; far from those great turned lips which are so natural to the rest of the negroes. (p. 15)

Behn's description of *Oroonoko*, as Todd (2003) puts it, “can be read as a simple desire to make him distinct, other, the cynosure of all noble men” (p. xxv). Todd insists that *Oroonoko* “recalls the Moorish or Turkish stereotype of a character in whom the common European urge to power is presumed without European checks, to the destruction of himself and those around him” (xxxiv). Moreover, this description makes one think of *Oroonoko* as a north African, i.e. a Moor. Over the years, *Oroonoko* has sold African slaves to European merchants (p. 36), and eventually, he becomes a victim of this trade as an English captain enslaves him and a group of his men (p. 37). Despite the English captain's reiterated promises of setting him free, *Oroonoko* is shipped to the New World and re-named Caesar (p. 43); ironically, he retains his royal status: “[H]e endured no more of the slave but the name, and remained some days in the house, receiving all

visits that were made him, without stirring towards that part of the plantation where the Negroes were” (p. 44).

The similarities between Oroonoko and Mustafa are quite clear. Mustafa is a Moor from the town of Azemmur. Just like Oroonoko, Mustafa received his education at a local school in his hometown: “I had eventually learned the principles of Arabic grammar, memorized the Qur’an, and was ready to graduate from the misd” (p. 58). Similar to Oroonoko, Mustafa trades in slaves: “[I]t no longer mattered to me what it was I sold, whether glass or grain, wax or weapons, or even, I am ashamed to say, especially in consideration of my later fate-slaves” (pp. 60-61). As the economic situation worsens in Azemmur, Mustafa sells himself as slave for fifteen reais (p. 83). His description of how he has become a slave is quite heartrending: “A soldier led me to the lower deck, where I was shackled to other men, facing the row of women, with children in between us [...] And everywhere, everywhere, hung the stench of bondage and death” (p. 83).

In Seville, Mustafa is baptised and given the name of Esteban (p. 109). After five years in the service of his master, Bernardo Rodriguez, Mustafa is exchanged for a debt owed to Andrés Dorantes de Carranza: “I had entered the Casa de Contratación as Esteban, but I left it as Estebanico. Just Estebanico – converted, orphaned, and now dismissed with a boy’s nickname” (p. 149). Like Oroonoko, Mustafa is multilingual (p. 111). Just like Oroonoko who is reunited with his beloved Imoinda in the New World, Mustafa gets married to Oyomasot, the daughter of the cacique of one of the Indian tribes, who later, like Imoinda, gets pregnant. In fact, in the New World, like Oroonoko, Mustafa is just a slave in the name. At one point, when Mustafa asks his master to give him a document that confirms his release from bondage, the latter tells him: “You are one of us, you know that” (p. 274).

As the above similarities show, in re-constructing and re-imagining Mustafa’s life, Lalami draws on Behn whose “achievement in *Oroonoko* makes her an important predecessor of a line of renowned female novelists” (Todd, 2003, p. xxxiii). But these similarities should not blind us from the obvious differences between the two novels. In fact, the narrative technique, the representation of women and the dénouement are three areas that Lalami pronouncedly transforms. As one of the first English novels, the narrative voice in *Oroonoko* is crude and confusing. Much has been written about Behn’s employment of narrative technique. For instance, Rosenthal highlights how Behn manipulates narrative voices in her novel:

Thus Behn introduces a narrator within a narrator, a relationship between Oroonoko and the primary narrator that involves stories, within the novel’s fiction, that he tells to her, that she will in turn tell to us. Sometimes we even have a narrator within a narrator within a narrator [...] Yet Behn also includes a synthesizing, semi-omniscient authorial voice that differs from that of the narrator, for certain events take place that none of the three story-telling characters witness. (p. 157)

The existence of “multiple narrators” and their continuous intervention in relaying and commenting on the events creates a distance that, to a some extent, alienates the reader from Oroonoko. The narrative technique that Behn employs renders Oroonoko “less knowable and more ambiguous” (Todd, 2003, p. vvii). This is clear, for instance, in the following quotation where the voice of the narrator occludes any possible identification between the reader and Oroonoko:

I have often seen and conversed with this great man, and been a witness to many of his mighty actions; and do assure *my reader*, the most illustrious courts could not have produced a braver man, both for greatness of courage and mind, a judgment more solid, a wit more quick, and a conversation more sweet and diverting. (p. 14, emphasis added)

The Oroonoko that the reader meets is wholly constructed by the narrator's imaginations, prejudices and limitations. In a way, this is the narrator's Oroonoko, and hence, the relationship between the reader and Oroonoko is mediated by the narrator's attitudes and impressions.

In fact, a distance is created and maintained throughout the narrative between the reader and the protagonist. This distance is further reinforced because of the narrator's continuous apologetic statements highlighting her unworthiness of writing the chronicles of this great warrior:

But his misfortune was to fall in an obscure world, that afforded only a female pen to celebrate his fame; though I doubt not but it had lived from others' endeavors if the Dutch, who immediately after his time took that country, had not killed, banished, and dispersed all those that were capable of giving the world this great man's life much better than I have done. (p. 43)

The narrator's persistence to belittle her status as a storyteller has an unintended effect of demeaning the hero himself whose tale is being relayed, and hence, distancing the reader from him. In fact, the novel's last paragraph greatly contributes to widening the gap between the reader and the African prince: “Thus died this great man, worthy of a better fate, and a more sublime wit than mine to write his praise. Yet, I hope, the reputation of my pen is considerable enough to make his glorious name to survive all the ages” (pp. 76-77). As this quotation suggests, the novel turns to be about the narrator's inability to memorialize Oroonoko rather than about his misfortunes per se. In other words, the closing paragraph of the novel encourages the reader to identify with the narrator rather than Oroonoko.

Behn's narrative technique may be contrasted with that of Lalami since in her novel the eponymous hero's voice is clear, unmediated and uninterrupted. As the novel opens, Mustafa positions himself as an honest man who is aware of his limitations as a storyteller narrating events that took place a few years ago. By opening his narrative with this statement, Mustafa gains the reader's confidence and presents himself as a trustworthy narrator:

Because I have written this narrative long after the events I recount took place, I have had to rely entirely on my memory. It is possible therefore that the distances I cite might be confused or that the dates I give might be inexact, but these are minor errors that are to be expected from such a relation. (p. 3)

In spite of the fact that historical novelists, as Clendinnen (2006) puts it, project back into their “carefully constructed material setting contemporary assumptions and current obsessions” (pp. 27-28), the narrator in the above quotation is both credible and persuasive. He is fully aware of the complexity of the process of telling a tale, and hence, he lets the reader know that the tale he is about to relate is not entirely free from lapses of memory. Mustafa is “establishing a bond with the reader” (MaKay, 2011, p. 41) through making the reader privy to his shortcomings and faults.

Mustafa directly addresses the reader and makes them aware of his secret feelings and inner conflicts. For instance, when Señor Dorantes asks Mustafa to narrate to him how he ended up in Seville, Mustafa addresses the reader directly in a way that makes the reader the immediate recipient of his words:

Reader, the joy of a story is in its telling. My feet were throbbing with pain and my stomach was growling with hunger [...] Telling a story is like sowing a seed – you always hope to see it become a beautiful tree, with firm roots and branches that soar up in the sky. (p. 124, emphasis added)

Mustafa is a smart narrator who knows how to endear himself to the reader. The sense of immediacy and propinquity he manages to weave throughout the narrative helps consolidate his credibility and authority as a narrator. In other words, through addressing the reader directly, the narrator establishes a rapport that eventually makes the reader empathize and identify with him; in short, the reader becomes Mustafa's secret sharer and confidante.

The two different narrative strategies that the two novelists follow influence the way the reader perceives the protagonist in each literary work. Since Oroonoko's opinions and thoughts are mediated by the narrator's voice, the reader is not privy to Oroonoko's inner emotions and feelings. For instance, when Oroonoko is informed about the ostensible death of his beloved, Imoinda, the narrator conveys his reaction in the following manner:

[T]hat henceforth he would never lift a weapon, or draw a bow, but abandon the small remains of his life to sighs and tears, and the continual thoughts of what his lord and grandfather had thought good to send out of the world, with all that youth, that innocence and beauty. (p. 33)

Had this very paragraph been narrated by Oroonoko himself, the reader would have had a first-hand experience of the protagonist's psychological torment and torture since this is one of the most significant moments in Oroonoko's life. In other words, the reader's sense of Oroonoko's anguish is deflated by the narrator's mediating words. In this way, the narrative technique that Behn employs substantially restricts the reader's comprehension of Oroonoko's inner pains.

Instead, the narrator focuses on Oroonoko's heroism, bravery and fighting skills, and hence, diverts the reader's attention from the African prince's anguish and agony. For instance, when the narrator describes Oroonoko's prowess in fighting a fierce tiger (p. 53), the reader's attention is drawn to Oroonoko's physical strength at the expense of the hero's inner feelings. Ultimately, one may argue that the reader may admire Oroonoko's physical strength but has no clue into what goes inside his mind or heart: Oroonoko remains an inscrutable enigma. On the other hand, the narrative technique Lalami employs consolidates the relationship between the reader and the narrator. When the narrator unveils his anxieties and expectations, he directly addresses the reader, and hence, cements the bond between the two. For instance, after being adrift for long time in the sea, Mustafa and his companions spot an island. Mustafa relishes this moment and shares his relief and joy with the reader: “So you can imagine, *gentle reader*, how relieved we were to find another island” (p. 158, emphasis added). Elsewhere, the narrator makes the reader privy to his inner feelings when he reveals how he has allured his wife, Oyomasot: “Reader, beware: the things you say to impress a beautiful woman have an odd way of being repeated to you when you least expect them [...] I was still trying to attract Oyomasot's notice”

(p. 236). Mustafa lets the reader have a peek into his personal affairs as he shares with the reader how he has fallen in love with Oyomasot.

Moreover, Mustafa's physical strength is eclipsed by his mental abilities. During their peregrinations in the wilderness, Mustafa makes a number of important suggestions that prove vital to the expedition's survival. After all, it is Mustafa who becomes the "head physician" and whose medicinal skills make the four adventurers famous and rich. It is actually Mustafa who expresses his apprehension when the number of Indians who are following them substantially increases. The others are not as far sighted as Mustafa to see the repercussions of this increase: "I grew worried. This will not turn out well, I said to Oyomasot one morning" (p. 243). Mustafa is provident and foresighted. One may be tempted to argue here that Mustafa is Oroonoko's foil: while the African prince is a mighty warrior, Mustafa has no fighting skills. Unlike Oroonoko, whose mental aptitude does not match his physical strength, Mustafa is witty, imaginative and resourceful.

The representational differences between Oroonoko and Mustafa parallel those between their wives, Imoinda and Oyomasot, respectively. In *Oroonoko*, Imoinda is portrayed as a silent and submissive housewife whose fate is dictated by the desires of two powerful men, the Coramantien's king and Oroonoko. In contrast, Oyomasot, is depicted as a dynamic, articulate and perceptive woman. She may be contrasted with Imoinda, whose beauty outshines what she does or says. In other words, unlike Oyomasot, Imoinda is the embodiment of the submissive housewife whose fate is determined by powerful men. As Ferguson (1991) rightly argues, "Imoinda is doubly enslaved – to the whites, male and female, who have bought her and also, as the narrative insists, to her black husband" (p. 169). Behn, Ferguson maintains, represents Imoinda "as the property, body and soul, of her husband" (p. 169). Ferguson concludes that by victimizing and annihilating Imoinda, "the white woman's book is born, quite starkly, from the death and silencing of black persons, one of them pregnant" (p. 172). In other words, in order for the English woman to survive and thrive, the black woman must die. As Todd (2003) succinctly puts it, "Imoinda is decorative and exotic" (p. xxxii).

Behn imbues Imoinda with an aura of mythical beauty, describing her as "the beautiful black Venus" (p. 16). When Oroonoko first sees Imoinda, he is "infinitely surprised at the beauty of this fair Queen of Night, whose face and person was so exceeding all he had ever beheld" (p. 16). At the royal court, people "speak of nothing but the charms of that maid" (p. 17). When the king hears about her beauty, he sends her the royal veil, a sign that means that she has become his. When informed about the king's plan, she just weeps silently: "[H]er heart was bursting within, and she was only happy when she could get alone, to vent her griefs and moans with sighs and tears" (p. 22). Even when Oroonoko manages to secretly enter the seraglio, Imoinda is depicted in a way that foregrounds her fragility and frigidity; in a way, she is like sleeping beauty who awaits prince charming to awaken her: "The prince softly wakened Imoinda, who was not a little surprised with joy to find him there; and yet she trembled with a thousand fears" (p. 29). Behn's description of what happens between the two suggests that Oroonoko is raping Imoinda: "[H]e [Oroonoko] soon prevailed, and *ravished* in a moment what his old grandfather had been endeavoring for so many months" (p. 29, emphasis added).

When Imoinda even expresses her joy of being "ravished" by Oroonoko and vows her loyalty and faithfulness to him, her words to Oroonoko are reported to the reader by the narrator; Behn does not quote what Imoinda exactly says to her lover: "'Tis not to be imagined [...] the vows she made him, that she remained a spotless maid till that night" (p. 29). When the guards sent by the king knock on the door, Oroonoko clearly tells them that Imoinda is his tonight and

tomorrow she will be the king's. Imoinda seems to be a commodity that Oroonoko and the king divide between them: “Therefore, stand back, and know, this place is sacred to love and me this night; to-morrow 'tis the king's” (p. 29). Imoinda is defined by and bound up with, to quote Ferguson's words, “ideologies of property possession” (p. 169), and hence, is rendered silent, passive and submissive. The Imoinda-as-commodity image is reinforced by the fact that the king decides to sell her off rather than kill her as a punishment for her transgression and treason (p. 31).

Even after Imoinda is re-united with her beloved hero in Surinam, she remains silent and voiceless. Apart from the fact that she almost kills the tyrant deputy governor Byam with a poisoned arrow, Imoinda plays no great part in the progress of the events. This is best illustrated towards the end of the novel. When Oroonoko realizes that his efforts to free himself and his pregnant wife from bondage are futile, Oroonoko decides first to kill his wife and then take revenge on his captors: “He considered, if he should do this deed, and die either in the attempt or after it, he left his lovely Imoinda a prey, or at best a slave to the enraged multitude; his great heart could not endure that thought” (p. 71). As Ortiz (2002) succinctly puts it, “Imoinda's susceptibility to impregnation makes her the site on which both Oroonoko and the British empire stake their claims of authority” (p. 133). When Oroonoko talks to Imoinda about his decision, he “find[s] the heroic wife faster pleading for death that he was to propose it, when she found his fixed resolution; and, on her knees, besought him not to leave her a prey to his enemies” (p. 71). Once again, Behn refuses to give Imoinda the chance to express her thoughts and opinions, and instead, the narrator reports Imoinda's words to the reader.

Unlike silent Imoinda, Oyomasot is daring and cannot be silenced. The first time we meet her, we realize that she is a self-reliant woman who refuses to be intimidated by Mustafa who offers to help her pull down a rope from a mulberry tree on which it was stuck (pp. 226-227). In the conversation that ensues, Oyomasot is assertive, authoritative and self-confident. Mustafa has fallen in love with her precisely because of these traits: “From the start, what struck me about Oyomasot was that she did not care [...] that her father and mother disapproved of her wandering off alone” (p. 228). For instance, when her mother rebukes her for leaving her brother's furs hanging on their racks during the storm, Oyomasot refuses to be hushed and defends herself eloquently:

Why did he not bring them in from the rain? Oyomasot asked. She said this in a level tone, but that only made her mother angrier.

That was your duty, not his.

He would rather get wet than bring them in himself? (229)²

Oyomasot is also resourceful and articulate. When Mustafa and his companions fail to convince the Indians to go back to their lands because they cannot guarantee their safety since the alcalde and his men turn out to be insincere and unscrupulous, it is Oyomasot who steps up to the plate and persuades the Indians to disperse.

Oyomasot refuses to be ignored and neglected, especially when the decision to be taken pertains to her life. For instance, when the possibility of returning to Europe, via New Spain, has arisen, Oyomasot is frustrated because Mustafa has never asked her about her opinion on this issue (p. 253). Moreover, she encourages her husband to free himself from bondage and warns him not to believe Señor Dorantes's promises. She awakens him from his lull: “What you want is not something that can be asked for, it can only be taken” (p. 296). Oyomasot entices Mustafa to revolt against his master. Unlike the docile and acquiescent Imoinda, Oyomasot is a freedom

fighter who inspires self-determination and self-respect. She indeed motivates him to plan an escape plot. Once Mustafa finds out that his wife is pregnant, he makes up his mind to secure their freedom. In this context, the pregnancy of the two women and the prospects of the arrival of a new member of the family may be viewed as a catalyst for change and transformation.

Unlike Oroonoko who murders his pregnant wife for fear that his plan to take revenge on his captors goes awry, and hence, his wife becomes susceptible to rape and abuse, Mustafa takes his wife's pregnancy as a good omen to seek freedom rather than to finish her life: “At last a good omen, I replied. [...] We had to use other means” (p. 307). Mustafa is smart enough to comprehend the rules of the game. Interestingly, he uses “we” rather than “I”. Unlike Oroonoko who decides on behalf of his wife, Mustafa shares his plan with his wife. In this context, it is interesting to see how Oyomasot's pregnancy has a positive effect on Mustafa. In contrast, Imoinda's pregnancy has an ominous influence on Oroonoko:

[S]o that he began to suspect them of falsehood, and that they would delay him till the time of his wife's delivery, and make a slave of that too: for all the breed is theirs to whom the parents belong. This thought made him very uneasy, and his sullenness gave them some jealousies of him. (p. 48)

Unlike resourceful Mustafa, warrior Oroonoko revolts against his captors. When he was abandoned by his followers, Oroonoko kills his pregnant wife before starting his plan to murder Byam. His attempt fails; he is humiliated and dismembered.

In this context, Richards's (2013) analysis of Oroonoko's dismemberment is quite revealing. Richards argues that “Behn's narrator produces a body in pain in order to create a fiction of power, both the narrator's own power as well as the power of fiction itself” (p. 668). Richards maintains that the pipe that Oroonoko requests to ease his pain as their captors torture him, practically “serves to silence him and to eliminate any possibility of a more definitive statement of his sentiments, of letting the reader know what *Oroonoko* is actually about” (p. 671). On the other hand, by the end of Lalami's *The Moor's Account*, Mustafa is neither humiliated nor silenced. On the contrary, he slowly develops a plan to escape along with his pregnant wife and, significantly, he discusses it with her:

Are you sure your plan will work?

Yes.

You have made promises before.

It will be different this time, I said. You will see. (p. 304)

Mustafa's plan is quite simple and smart. When he was sent with a small expedition in search of the Seven Cities of Gold, he convinces the people in charge of the expedition that he and his wife along with the Amigos should precede the expedition. Mustafa was to send back a group of Amigos with a signal as he proceeds. Mustafa's plan succeeds and when he sends back the last group of Amigos with a signal, he triumphantly announces: “At last, I was free of the Amigos [...] And my involvement with the empire was finally over” (p. 316). Mustafa and Oyomasot begin their journey home to the land of Avavares, his wife's tribe (p. 320).

Behn and Lalami take pains to present historical accounts of stories of enslavement and displacement. In these two novels, borders between history and fiction are blurred, confirming Clendinnen's (2006) stipulation that the historical novel is a site over which “the primarily

aesthetic purpose of fiction and the primarily moral purpose of history” uneasily converge (p. 34). As the above analysis demonstrates, the two novels have given historical accounts of the mis/fortunes of two African men / Moors who were enslaved, re-named and shipped to the New World. Notwithstanding the actual historical events that Behn and Lalami have attempted to portray, the dénouement of each novel reflects its proclaimed goal. Behn declares at the outset of her novel that she wants to give the reader the history of a prince whom she saw in person and was charmed with his character (p. 13). Lalami’s novel re-writes Cabeza de Vaca’s *La Relación* from a Moroccan slave’s point of view. To re-construct Mustafa’s narrative, Lalami draws on Behn’s novel, *Oroonoko*, and in the process she adapts and appropriates some of the novels features including its narrative technique, presentation of women and dénouement. Behn adamantly proclaims that she is recording the history of Oroonoko as she eye-witnesses part of the events and hears the remainder from the hero himself. In other words, Behn presents herself as a historian who ostensibly chronicles events without embellishment.

On the other hand, as a postcolonial historical novel, Lalami’s *The Moor’s Account* seeks to fill in the gaps, correct history and present the point of view of the marginalized:

And in this relation I tried to tell the story of what really happened when I journeyed to the heart of the continent. The servants of the Spanish empire have given a different story to their king and their bishop, their wives and their friends. The Indians with whom I lived for eight years, each one of them, each one of thousands, have told yet other stories. Maybe there is no true story, only imagined stories, vague reflections of what we saw and what we heard, what we felt and what we thought. (pp. 320-321)

In addition to reiterating the idea that Mustafa’s narrative is unembellished whereas that of his Spanish companions is heavily edited, the last few words of the above quotation assert that history, to quote Ashcroft once more, “is a method rather than a truth [...], an institutional formalization of the stories we tell ourselves to make sense of our lives” (p. 86). In this sense, Mustafa’s words, and indeed Lalami’s novel, interpolate historical discourse, “disrupt[t] its discursive features and reveal the limitations of the discourse itself” (p. 103). In short, as a postcolonial novel, *The Moor’s Account*, to quote the words of Selmon on how postcolonial novels transform history, “proceed[s] beyond a ‘determinist view of history’ by revising, reappropriating, or reinterpreting history as a concept” (p. 159). Through appropriating and re-writing *La Relación* and *Oroonoko*, Lalami seems to adopt as a mantra Mustafa’s words which are quoted in the title of this paper: “I could right what had been made wrong” (p. 296).

Notes

- ¹. It is noted that throughout the narrative, the novelist uses the Hegira calendar rather than the Gregorian one. I believe this is a strategy that the novelist employs to re-write history from a non-European perspective.
2. Lalami does not use quotation marks when a character speaks. One interpretation of why she resorts to this technique is that because Mustafa, the narrator, has written the story long after the events he recounts took place, and therefore, he relies entirely on his memory (p. 3). This virtually means that the words she uses are not exactly the ones spoken by the characters. By not using quotation marks, Mustafa shows his limitations as a narrator and presents himself as a credible and scrupulous man.

About the Author:

Dr. Yousef Awad obtained his PhD from the University of Manchester, UK, in 2011. Since then, he has been working as assistant professor at the University of Jordan. Dr. Awad has published a monograph on Arab writers in diaspora titled *The Arab Atlantic*. He also published a number of articles that explore a range of themes like cultural translation, identity and multiculturalism in the works of Arab writers in diaspora. Recently, Dr. Awad has started a project that focuses on the appropriation of Shakespeare by Arab writers in diaspora.

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English Triumphalism in Academic Writing: The Price of Global Visibility

Randa Sibah

iUniversity of Exeter, United Kingdom.

Abstract

Within the academic field, it has been said that one has to “publish in English or perish” (Viereck, 1996: 20). Lured by the prospect of international readability, and thereby possibility of higher citations, non-native English speaking (NNES) researchers resort to publishing their work primarily and exclusively in English. While this has created a global academic environment with a common medium of communication, it has been at the cost of other important national languages. Global visibility comes at the price of local or regional invisibility. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of English medium publication (EMP) on local languages. An exploratory research methodology with a critical agenda was employed. Qualitative data obtained through semi-structured interviews revealed that NNES researchers acknowledge the privilege attached to publishing in internationally indexed journals and employ numerous strategies to facilitate successful publication. However, most participants expressed clear dissatisfaction toward this policy and some indicated that, apart from publishing mainly in English, they also publish in their local language for the purpose of serving their local communities. It was concluded that additional efforts are needed to engage NNES who are competitive at the international level in research that is of local and regional importance in the purpose of promoting linguistic diversity and enhancing collaboration between core and peripheral languages.

Key words: critical applied linguistics (CALx), English medium-publication (EMP), linguistic imperialism, non-native English speaking (NNES)

Introduction

The emergence of English as the dominant international language of academic publication has been well documented (Ammon, 2003). A database analysis revealed that more than 95% of indexed natural science journals and 90% of social science journals use all or some English (Thomson Reuters, 2009a as cited in Yigitoglu, 2010). Benfield & Howard (2000) further report that the proportion of Medline journal articles in English has increased from 72.2% in 1980 to 88.6% of the overall total in 1996. A similar picture for the field of chemistry is outlined by Sano (2002), who argues that over the period 1970-2000, the share of chemistry journal articles published in English rose from 54.2% to 82.1% overall.

Not only has English dominance diminished the chances of academics who are non-native speakers of English to publish in high impact international journals (Ammon 1998), it has also negatively affected indigenous cultures and languages. Researchers working towards preserving world languages have repetitively pointed to the linguistic impoverishment that adds up over time. According to Canagarajah (1999), multilingual scholars enrich the knowledge base of core academic communities since they write about things that mainstream disciplinary communities do not know of and draw attention to untapped or unknown resources. Thus, their limited participation in global scholarship will indeed impoverish knowledge production (Uzuner, 2008).

Supporters of 'English triumphalism' (Graddol, 2006:10) argue that the spread of English is natural, neutral and beneficial for international communication and mutual understanding. Crystal (2001), for one, claims that conversation without a common language between academicians from different nationalities would prove impossible. Counter to this, are other critics who reject the neutrality of English and argue that it is a form of linguistic imperialism that aims at perpetuating the hegemony of English (Phillipson, 1992). Pennycook (2001:80) argues "English threatens other languages, acts as a gatekeeper to positions of wealth and prestige...through which much of the unequal distribution of wealth, resources and knowledge operates." A less radical stance has been adopted by Canagarajah (1996) who proposes appropriating English to one's needs in the purpose of promoting diversity and a balanced ecology of languages.

Some scholars have investigated the difficulties NNES researchers face when adapting to the literacy practices of English speaking disciplinary communities (Flowerdew, 2000; Lillis & Curry, 2006). Others drew attention to the effects English-Medium Publication (EMP) is having on NNES scholars' academic career (Bidlake, 2008; Medgyes & László, 2001) and choice of research topics and methodology (Flowerdew, 2000; Lillis & Curry, 2006; Paiva & Pagano, 2001; Davis & Tschudin, 2007). However, studies on the effects EMP has on local languages are rather scarce (Mauranen, 2003; Ammon, 1990). This study, which is conducted in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, is an attempt to fill this gap. It is based on critical applied linguistics, and aims at problematizing the assumption that the dominance of EMP has no negative effects on languages outside the Inner Anglophone Circle.

Literature Review

This study is located in the field of critical applied linguistics (CALx) and critical pedagogy. The literature review section outlines the theoretical framework, discusses global inequality due to

the spread of English with reference to the current practices in academic publication and lastly investigates the effect of English-Medium Publication (EMP) on the position of local languages.

Theoretical Framework

This study aims at problematizing the ‘taken for granted’ assumption that EMP is beneficial and does not impact native languages outside the Anglophone circle. It is based on critical applied linguistics (CALx) whose goal is not simply to describe the current situation, but to question the established views and assumptions around practice and theory in language education. CALx springs from “an assumption that we live amid a world of pain” (Pennycook, 2001: 7) and that critical applied linguistics can alleviate that pain and create possibility of change. Critical language policy research is part of the field of critical applied linguistics and aims at producing social change through examining “the processes by which systems of inequality are created and sustained” (Tollefson, 2006: 43). Hence, language policies such as EMP should be viewed with a critical lens, to determine whether and how EMP promotes the spread of a dominant language i.e., English and endangers others. I support the argument that it is important to raise awareness to the detrimental effects EMP is having on languages outside the Anglophone Circle in the purpose of changing the status quo and adopting feasible solutions that will ultimately benefit all.

The Spread of English: A Critical Perspective

For many scholars, the position of English in the world is not accidental. Phillipson (1992) claims that English has been promoted by the UK and the US for their national interests. He further identifies the power expressed in the English language and reinforced by English language teaching professionals around the world as ‘linguistic imperialism’ (1998: 339). Nonetheless, Phillipson’s notion of linguistic imperialism has been criticized by Bisong (1995) who asserts that English is a linguistic choice that does not endanger indigenous languages and cultures. Fishman (1996) likewise rejects the notion of English imperialism and argues that English and local languages can actually complement each other by satisfying different needs and having different social functions. In the same line, Crystal (1997) believes that English was just in “the right place at the right time” (cited in Phillipson, 2000:105) and those who choose to speak it do so freely. Brutt-Griffler (1998, 2002) follows a similar approach in her description of ‘World English’ and De Swaan (2001) maintains that English global popularity is due to the benefits it can provide and that people choose to learn it not just because of the promotion by agents, such as the British Council, but also because of its high communicative potential.

English and Global Inequality

Although English is considered as a key to economic success of nations worldwide, its global spread has propelled significant social, political and economic inequalities. However, Conrad (1996), Davies (1996) and Fishman (1996), concur that it is the world political-economic system rather than the English language alone that is responsible for global inequality. The major threat lies in the weak political status of marginalized languages that promotes the domination of English in education, government, publication and media.

Canagarajah (1999: 41) states that “language in itself is not good or evil - it is how language is used by power structures that implicates it in evil”. Hence, metaphors used by numerous scholars in labelling English as a Tyrannosaurus Rex (Swales, 1997), a killer language (Skuttnab-Kangas, 2006) and a hydra (Rapatahana & Brunce, 2012) seem to be unsuitable. Mufwene (2001: 12) maintains: “Languages do not kill languages; their speakers do, in giving

them up, although they themselves are victims of changes in the socio-economic ecologies in which they evolve”. Counter to these are the arguments put forward by Crystal, (2001) and Dalby, (2002) who attribute the cause of language death to the dominance of English and the threatening impact it is exerting on other languages. Accordingly, as people concerned with language matters, we need to encourage linguistic diversity and raise awareness to the relationship between national and international languages in the purpose of preserving the rights of minority, national and immigrant languages (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996).

English Medium for Publication (EMP)

English has become the dominant language involved in the production, reproduction and circulation of knowledge (Short et al., 2001). In this era, to publish in a language other than English is to cut oneself off from the international community of scholars and to decrease one’s chance to professional advancement. Publishing in English is the only way a multilingual scholar can be noticed (Medgyes & Kaplan, 1992). The studies of Duszak & Lewkowicz (2008) and Giannoni (2008) also support this argument, whereby survey results revealed that Polish scholars favour writing in English despite the numerous difficulties they face. However, privileging English has a detrimental effect on the evolution of local languages and research cultures. It has been argued that the adoption of the Anglophone normative conventions for the sake of acceptance for publication may involve *epistemicide*, ‘the repackaging of a text in terms of the dominant epistemology, thereby rendering invisible rival forms of knowledge’ (Bennett, 2012: 45). Wolters (2013) posits that the price of globalization entails that NNES scholars compellingly renounce the cultural embedding of their countries since the agenda of which knowledge counts is set in an Anglophone world, where everything that does not fit to its cultural habits and traditions has little chance to surface.

Another consequence of EMP relates to the research itself. To increase chances of publication, local issues most in need of study are oftentimes eschewed in favour of issues that hold more interest for the international scientific community (Lillis & Curry, 2006; Willemyns, 2001). Contrary to these claims is the argument put forward by Peraz -Liantada, (2012) who states that English certainly offers opportunities for scientific exchange, communication with the international community and recognition and prestige for NNES scientists. In this new era of multilingualism and plurilingualism, it is the NNS researchers that need to be worried, for by not learning a foreign language, they risk being left out in this increasingly multilingual and global community. Others including Altbach (2009: 25) and Jacoby (1987: 235) call NNES researchers to take ‘responsibility’ and to continue ‘disseminating their research and analysis in local languages’ and to demonstrate their commitment to a public world and a public language.’ In fact, the number of scientific publications in languages other than English keeps growing even more rapidly as the scientific communities in non-Anglo countries (for instance, in China, Indonesia, Iran, Turkey, Southern Europe and Latin America) expand and diversify. However, the vast majority of high impact journals are still in English. Indeed, it is the privilege attached to the internationally indexed journals that propels NNES academics toward writing and publishing in English. The cases of both Hong Kong and China (Flowerdew & Li, 2009) exemplify how publishing in center-based English-language journals is often accorded a much higher status than local publication.

While much of the literature on global English reinforces the position of English by building on the implicit and incorrect assumption that English is the only international language

of academia, numerous scholars advocate the need to counteract English linguistic hegemony so as to ensure balanced language ecology. However, if the rhetoric of maintaining linguistic diversity is to be more than pretty words on paper, solutions have to be found. Scholars need to demonstrate how linguistic diversity should and can be maintained. More studies need to unmask any academic rhetoric that claims English is detached from the forces behind its expansion and serves global equality.

Recognition that national languages are at stake can lead to action, which in turn might neutralize or minimize the threat. More academic and policy attention needs to be directed to the rise of the English language, especially in regionally specific contexts. The spread of English indeed should be viewed with a critical lens to show how privileging English can threaten local creativity and national unity. This research was motivated by my interest in issues around equal participation in producing academic knowledge (Lillis & Curry, 2006) and by my growing awareness of the difficulties faced by colleagues from non-English speaking countries including myself.

The Study

Significance of the Study

Lured by the prospect of international readability, and thereby possibility of higher citations, non-native English speaking (NNES) researchers resort to publishing their work primarily and exclusively in English since Anglophone contexts are often more valued as objects and sites of research than research coming from the outer Anglophone areas. This is attributed to the belief that English-medium publications are of higher status than publications in other languages. However, the promotion of EMP necessarily implies a demotion of local languages. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of EMP on local languages and to explore NNES researchers views regarding the adoption of EMP. This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the foremost consequences, if any, of the adoption of EMP?
2. Cognizant of the reality that EMP is now firmly established and will not likely be deposed any time soon, how can these consequences be minimized?
3. What is the effect of EMP on local languages?

Research Participants

This study used purposive sampling technique, which selects participants “based on a specific purpose rather than randomly” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a, p. 713) and is believed to be a rich source of the data of interest (Du Gay, 1996). Based on my epistemological stance of wanting to explore the meanings academics attach to writing and publishing in a language that is not their native tongue, I used networks i.e., ResearchGate and LinkedIn and contacted 70 academics of which only 9 agreed to participate in the study. Nonetheless, I feel that this number of participants is sufficient to explore experiences from a variety of perspectives. The participants were selected based on two criteria: that they were all non-native English speakers and have done a lot of publications in English. Thus, they suited the purpose of the study and would most likely contribute appropriate data, both in terms of relevance and depth. All participants hold positions within faculties of humanities, science and social sciences in international and Saudi universities. Their countries of origin are India, Turkey, Austria, Egypt, Syria, Jordan and Saudi Arabia. Special attention was put in selecting the nationalities. While one originated from former

colonies of the English Empire i.e., India, others came from countries where English is used as a foreign language i.e., Austria, Syria, Turkey, Jordan and Saudi Arabia.

After identifying the main participants, consent letters were sent detailing the purpose of the study, expectations of participants and issues of confidentiality. Participants were told that they had the option to withdraw from the study at any time. They were also assured that their names would remain confidential and that all *information* provided would be treated with *utmost secrecy*.

Interview Design and Data Collection Procedure

Semi-structured interviews were used as a data collection method since they serve my critical enquiry and enable me to critically study situations from cultural, economic, political, and historical perspective. Interview questions were developed in relevance to the critical literature on English hegemony and researchers' experiences; the interview was then piloted to see if it worked as planned and prompts were used to elicit more detailed responses from the researchers. Nine interviews were conducted with researchers of different nationalities, genders, ages and professions. Each interview lasted between 30-45 minutes and was held either in the working place of the participants or through detailed email conversations.

In all instances, the interviews opened with an introduction and explanation of the purpose behind the study. Rubin & Rubin (1995, cited in Du Gay, 1996) recommend that the researcher begin the interview with an informal chat about something related to the topic of the study to put the participants at ease and establish positive rapport. Participants were then asked to give some background information about themselves such as their ages, nationalities, work experiences, research interests and number of publications. The second part of the interview consisted of questions that problematize EMP and examine the effect of English on local and regional languages. Accordingly, participants were asked about their views on the dominance of English in publication, the effect it may impose on their native language, the difficulties they encounter when trying to write and publish in English and the strategies they use to overcome these obstacles.

At the end of each interview, the participants were thanked for their time and shared experiences and were assured that all the data provided would remain confidential.

Findings and Discussion

The dominant themes that emerged from the analysis of the participants' responses are as follows:

Publishing in English indexed journals

All participants attested their preference for publishing in English indexed journals. The reasons they gave were generally to reach a wider audience, to increase citation rates and to accommodate the assessment criteria. Shyam, for one, argued, in English indexed journals, 'global visibility is higher; as such the possibility of citation is more.' Similarly, Gusun stated, 'with visibility comes recognition and recognition opens closed doors' and Nadia maintained that reaching a wider readership is of utmost importance were she to attain 'high academic standards.'

In addition to trying to reach a wider audience, participants' preferred choice is also driven by the prospect of meeting the assessment expectation. Their value to their institution is

primarily based on their research output, which is measured by the number of articles published and the number of times these articles have been cited. Accordingly, both Nadia and Munir stated that although the expectation of faculty members to publish in internationally indexed journals is not always made explicit; it is well understood in general and is quickly assimilated by new faculty members. However, Gusun and Khyam noted that since they work in institutions where English is the sole medium of instruction, it is taken for granted that publications need to be in English medium.

There is also a general agreement among most of the participants that institutional support is provided for those who tend to publish in internationally indexed journals. To this end, Fahed, a senior academic, notes, 'our institution gives researchers grants, helps them to attend conferences, provides annual benefits and uses the publications to extend or shorten contracts.' However, Gusun stated that the institution where she works does not provide any support though its 'departmental policy requires two English journal publications per year from each faculty.'

It is clear that publishing in internationally indexed English journals is the target participants aim at for international readership, promotion and higher citation rates. Publishing in English indeed is the only way a multilingual scholar can be noticed (Medgyes & Kaplan, 1992; Giannoni, 2008).

Inequality and English

Despite the fact that all participants agreed that EMP policy has indeed facilitated communication across the international scientific community, almost all admitted that it has also silenced a large proportion of that community. Fahed, for one, said:

English has sidestepped, ignored and marginalized other communities...but again because you want to be visible...because the level of competition of high...so if you write internally, you will go down and your level will go down.

Similar views were expressed by Nadia, Gusun and Andrea. While Nadia stated, 'NNES writers have some really good ideas, but they are unable to express them in a language other than their own,' Gusun argued, 'English has constrained other communities because not everyone has the language proficiency to meet the demands of publishing in English' and Andrea maintained, 'language affects thinking, and, if the proficiency in a foreign language is not quite what you wish it to be, it has an effect on your writing and thinking.'

A few participants expressed their dissatisfaction to publishing exclusively in English indexed journals. Tarek, for example, found that due to English centrality, other languages have become 'peripheral.' Similarly, Ahmad drew attention to the fact that EMP 'negatively impacts the development of national societies, diminishes national language content on the Internet and ultimately leads to the impoverishment of knowledge.' This draws to mind what Uzuner (2008) warned regarding the limited participation of NNES scholars and the impoverishment of knowledge production that adds up over time. This dearth of publications indeed isolates peripheral academics from their international disciplinary communities. Fahed further blamed the low rate, outdatedness and poor quality of Arabic research and Munir expressed a feeling of remorse for not publishing in Arabic, his native language, and argued that he has always felt guilty since all researchers he collaborates with are 'from outside the Arab world.'

Publishing in local languages

Of all the participants, only four (Ahmad, Tarek, Fahed, Andrea) have published in their native language. To Fahed, publishing in one's native language is considered 'a social commitment.' He argued that in addition to fulfilling what is required (i.e. publishing in English), he has written a number of guide books in Arabic for local students: 'I want my students to have access to valuable knowledge.' Similarly, Ahmad has been fruitfully publishing in local journals for he felt it is incumbent to disseminate his research and thoughts to the local academic and non-academic readership and regards publishing in one's native language a 'must when it is about the scientific, economic or social development of the country.' Tarek has also manifested a positive attitude towards writing in his native language i.e., Arabic and stated, 'Being recognized globally, to me, is as important as being recognized regionally...it is important that we promote our language as we are promoting English.'

It seems that Ahmad, Tarek and Fahed are fulfilling what Altbach (2009: 25) calls the 'responsibility' of scholars 'to disseminate research in local languages.' For Andrea, writing in German, her native language, is particularly difficult due to the fact that 'English and German have a different direction of thinking'. Whilst 'English is more reader oriented, German focuses more on the content.' However, it is worth mentioning that Nadia declared that she has no regret for letting go of her native language in favor of English; in fact, she sees it as a 'matter of appreciation' to write or speak in the other person's native language. This point was also echoed by Gusun who explicitly stated that it was her choice to write exclusively in English. These arguments bring to mind Mufwene's (2001: 12) logical dispute that 'Languages do not kill languages; their speakers do, in giving them up, although they themselves are victims of changes in the socio-economic ecologies in which they evolve.'

It should be emphasized that all nine participants explicitly pointed out that research published in languages other than English will not be globally recognized and its citation and circulation will be limited. In fact, Nadia noted that such research 'gets buried' as it is 'globally invisible.' This concurs with what Gibbs (1995), Phillipson (2001) and Tardy (2004) posit that work not published in English tends to be undervalued or even ignored, thereby falling into the domain of 'lost science.'

Obstacles faced and strategies used when publishing in English

Studies presented by different scholars (e.g. Flowerdew 2000, 2001; Burrough-Boenisch 2003; Lillis & Curry 2006), collectively attest that writing in English creates insurmountable problems to non-Anglophone researchers whose first language is not in the same language family as English. Of all the participants, Khyam, of an Indian origin and Fahed, of an Arabic origin pointed out that due to 'limited' vocabulary (Khyam) and linguistic incompetence (Fahed); they sometimes face difficulties expressing their ideas. This feeling of unskillfulness resembles that voiced by Flowerdew (1999: 235) who argued that his sample of Hong Kong academics felt handicapped by a 'less rich vocabulary' and 'less facility in expression.' According to P8, NNEs scholars face an extra 'headache' when writing academic texts. 'Our texts', he clarified, 'require a lot of editing in regards to both content and language whereas with a native speaker, only the content is edited to make the message stronger.'

The rest of the respondents, namely Khyam, Ahmad, Zaid, Tarek, Gusun and Andrea stated that they do not encounter any linguistic difficulties as they consider themselves 'fully

bilingual.’ However, Gusun noted that ‘there were times when I felt like I can write so much better if I was writing in my native language i.e., Turkish.’ She further drew attention to how time consuming the process of writing in English can be since ‘I want to make sure the draft I send out to reviewers is a mature one so when the feedback comes, it is not overwhelming.’ Zaid on the other hand, feels more competent in L2 as he stated, ‘due to under-use of lexical and stylistic devices, I have lost the ability to write academically in my native language and therefore write solely in English.’

Further difficulties mentioned by the respondents relate to their work being rejected by international journals. Scholars such as Swales (2004) contend that the main rejection criteria for NNES writers’ manuscripts are content-based aspects such as lack of clarity in presenting results rather than linguistic ones. Gusun stated that many of her papers have been rejected due to ‘incomplete data collection and analysis’ whereas Nadia related the high rejection rate to the fact that ‘reviewers are generally unfamiliar with the methodology I use.’ Similarly, Munir and Fahed argued that rejection was due to the fact that ‘content did not fit the journal criteria’ whereas Ahmad, a senior expert in the scientific and technological fields further stated, ‘it seems that there exist a certain form of rivalry’ and that ‘some journals are governed by certain schools.’ A similar argument was confirmed by Nadia: ‘reviewers come from a different paradigm than me.’ She further stated, ‘it is sad that much of our work gets rejected.’ These interpretations support Canagarajah, (2002) and Lin’s (2005: 38) arguments which suggest that NNES scholars’ papers need ‘to be framed by the perspectives of the Anglo-European center theorists’ and those of Lillis & Curry (2006) which highlight the strong influence literary brokers have on the content of academic texts produced outside the Anglophone circles.

The literature has revealed a range of strategies used by NNES scholars at various stages of writing for publication (Burrough-Boenisch, 2003; Li, 2007; Li & Flowerdew, 2007). A strategy emphasized by Fahed is that in order to get published in center journals, he regularly asks native speakers colleagues to check and edit his English whereas Nadia, Ahmad, Tarek and Munir pointed out that they usually resubmit their work to other journals since they frequently disagree with the reviewers’ comments. It is worth mentioning that one respondent, Gusun, showed a positive attitude toward reviewers’ comments whereby she stated, ‘I agree with the reviewers’ comments; therefore, I revise and either resubmit to the same journal or shop for another one.’

Demotion of local languages

One of the criticisms of EMP is its threatening impact on local languages. To this end, participants were asked to summarize the effects of EMP, if any, on their local languages. Of all participants, three (Khyam, Munir and Fahed) concurred that the dominance of English is double edged as it carries both negative and positive consequences; two (Nadia, Ahmad) expressed criticism of the status quo and three (Gusun, Zaid, Andrea) stated that the effect is neutral. On the positive effects, Khyam stated that since there are more than 22 scheduled languages in India, his country of origin, it would be more feasible to use English for scientific publications and adopt other local languages in social science disciplines as the latter is ‘generally based on field studies that have relevancy with the concerned geographical areas.’ This argument concurs with Canagarajah (1996) who proposed appropriating English to one’s needs. Munir also felt some positivity in the adoption of English as he stated that by writing exclusively in English, he is

‘contributing to the promotion of a universal language, which has always been the dream of people and Fahed maintained that English linguistic style needs to be incorporated into Arabic, his native language, since it is ‘more straightforward’, ‘clearer’ and ‘to the point.’

As regards to the negative effects, Fahed argued that English is ‘undermining, diluting and erasing our culture’ whereas Munir admitted that by promoting English, he is doing harm not only to his native language i.e., Arabic but to other main languages as well. The result, in his perspective, is ‘the dominance of English at the expense of other local languages.’ Nadia, originally from Egypt, further highlighted the negative consequences of EMP by stating:

This policy makes me less likely to try to write in Arabic because it won’t benefit me internationally...I feel ashamed of this...I want to keep pride in my own identity and language yet to be successful academically, I need to keep focusing on English and ignore Arabic.

This feeling of regret resembles that voiced by a Slovakian scholar in a study by Curry & Lillis (2004: 680) who remarked, ‘I am ashamed. We should do more.’ To this end, Ahmad recommended having a well-enforced policy for publications, through which Arabic is used to discuss national issues for as he further elaborated ‘such issues are being overlooked.’ This brings to mind the belief Curry & Lillis (2004) held on how local concerns are eschewed in favor of matters that hold more interest for the international scientific community. Nadia and Andrea further recommended supporting local publications since more linguistic diversity brings with it more diversity in thoughts and traditions’ and Fahed explicitly pointed out that Arabic scholarship has much to offer to the West; thus, ‘one should play in the arena of research internationally, but do something for his community.’ Lastly, Munir spoke of Arabizing education and supporting Arabic research, which in his viewpoint need to be a unified effort across the Arab world: ‘the Arabic culture needs to be respected and preserved because as long as we look down on our own culture, and aspire to adopt different international cultural patterns, Arabic will never gain the respect it deserves.’

Clearly, these arguments have been echoed by Baker (2001) who encouraged a balanced ecology of languages where interaction between users of languages does not allow one to spread at the cost of others and where diversity is maintained for the long-term survival of humankind.

Limitations and Recommendations

As a small-scaled exploratory study relying on interviews as the primary source of data, the research reported in this paper has obvious limitations. In regards to the selection of the participants, it is possible that those who volunteered had strong opinions regarding EMP. However, I, as a researcher, was alert for possible biases and inconsistencies in respondents’ answers. Additionally, the use of one data collection tool could also be considered as another limitation: an additional tool i.e., documentaries would have enhanced the validity of the study. However, the fact that I had only limited contact with the respondents prevented me from compiling additional data. Lastly, since the participants in this study were not randomly selected, it is unlikely to generalize the findings of the study to a larger population.

The study has definitely provided additional insight, as most views presented were consistent and validated the complexities EMP imposes and its negative effects on regional and local languages. Nonetheless, more research needs to be conducted with larger sample sizes as it may offer more insights into the publishing practices of multilingual scholars. Another area that needs to be

addressed is to examine the challenges, if any, monolingual scholars face in getting access into core disciplinary communities in the purpose of corroborating findings with the present study.

Concluding Remarks

Taken as a whole, publishing in the domestically indexed journals and publishing in internationally English indexed journals does not carry the same weight, with the latter enjoying more prestige, wider international recognition and higher citation rate. The findings in the study revealed that participants consider international refereed journals as the most important form of research publications for career advantage, and by far regarded English as the predominant language of publication. Despite the fact that all participants agreed that EMP policy has facilitated international communication and knowledge dissemination, most concurred that it has also marginalized, constrained and sidestepped national communities. However, it is worth noting that a few participants namely Ahmad, Tarek and Fahed feel responsible towards local communities; thus, in addition to fulfilling what is required (i.e. publishing in English), they have written a number of books and articles in their native language for the purpose of enriching local knowledge and serving their communities. Some participants (Khyam, Fahed) have also pointed out they sometimes struggle expressing their ideas in English while others considered themselves fully bilingual and stated that they do not encounter any notable difficulties. Nonetheless, all attested that their work is often rejected by international journals due to content-based aspects.

I believe that the so far unchallenged practice of EMP, which is part of the diffusion-of-English paradigm, should be challenged for three main reasons: First, EMP disadvantages NNES scholars who face numerous obstacles in their attempt to successfully write and publish in English. Second, EMP propels inequality between central and peripheral countries and leads to knowledge impoverishment. Third, EMP has detrimental effects on the status of local and regional languages. Therefore, I would first suggest that it is necessary for NNES researchers to engage in research that is of local and regional importance to help preserve their cultures and languages. Second, language policy makers need to provide academic writing support and training to NNES scholars and encourage linguistic diversity for it not only provides us with various linguistic properties but also preserves other languages, and sparks creativity and flexibility generated by interaction between languages (Dalby, 2002). By reaching a wide readership within and outside the academia at the local and regional levels, NNES scholars will eventually nurture the readership, stimulate discussion, and achieve an impact.

About the Autor:

Randa Sibahi has spent over fifteen years working with international students as an ESL instructor in Saudi schools and colleges, She is highly motivated, and a very enthusiastic educator. Her ultimate aim as an educator is to help students become global citizens who have the 21st century skills that will enable them to succeed and prosper in the next decades. She is currently an Ed D student at the University of Exeter.

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Transposition and Modulation to Translate Tourism Texts from English into Indonesian

Budi Purnomo

Department of Tourism ,Sahid Tourism Institute of Surakarta
Solo City, Central Java, Indonesia

Abstract

This study attempts to evaluate the types and accuracy of two translation strategies, i.e. transposition (change of grammatical category) and modulation (change in point of view) used to translate tourism texts from English into Indonesian. The study is intended to be a descriptive and qualitative method. The data sources are obtained from documents and inter-raters. The documents are tourism texts along with their translations taken from *Garuda Indonesia* magazine. To reveal the types of transposition and modulation, the English and Indonesian texts were analyzed by the researcher. To know the accuracy of transposition and modulation, the translations were rated by three expert raters. The results of the analysis show that: (1) there are three types of transposition: (a) the change from singular to plural (and vice versa), or in the position of the adjective, (b) the change in grammatical structure from SL to TL because the SL grammatical structure does not exist in TL and (c) an alternative to when literal translation of SL text may not accord with natural usage in TL; (2) there are two types of modulation: (a) obligatory modulation and (b) free modulation; (3) the transposition used is generally accurate; and (4) the modulation used is generally less accurate. The findings imply that transposition and modulation might be fundamental for translation strategies, a distinction which has been taken for granted in translating activities.

Keywords: modulation, tourism texts, transposition

1. Introduction

Translation is a transfer process which aims at transforming a written source language (SL) text into an optimally equivalent target language (TL) text which requires syntactic, semantic and pragmatic understanding and analytical processing of the source language. In translating a text, a translator needs a strategy. Suryawinata & Haryanto (2003: 67) state that translation strategy is a technical guide to translate words for words, phrases for phrases, or sentences for sentences. In translation literatures, the translation strategy is also called translation procedure. Based on practical characteristics, translation strategy directly relates to practical problem and problem solving in translation. Furthermore, they classify translation strategy into (1) structural strategy and (2) semantic strategy. Structural strategy concerns with sentence structures whereas semantic strategy concerns with word meaning or sentence meaning. There are three kinds of structural strategy: (1) addition, (2) subtraction and (3) transposition, and nine kinds of semantic strategy: (1) borrowing, (2) cultural equivalent, (3) descriptive equivalent and componential analysis, (4) synonym, (5) formal translation, (6) specification and generalization, (7) gain, (8) omission or deletion and (9) modulation.

Of the above strategies, this research studies two kinds of strategy: (1) transposition as a structural strategy and (2) modulation as a semantic strategy. The two strategies are appropriate to be applied in translating sentences from English (SL) into Indonesian (TL) based on two reasons. First, there are many different grammatical structures in English and Indonesian. Because of these differences, it needs transposition as a structural-adjustment strategy. Secondly, when a translator is searching word, phrase, clause, or sentence equivalence in Indonesian, s/he often finds meaning shifts in order that the translation result is acceptable for the readers. Considering that a translator may not choose equivalence as s/he likes, modulation is needed to find the proper equivalence.

Up to now many interesting studies have been done on translation shifts and translation strategies. Kashgari (2011) found that translating using equivalence is not necessarily the best strategy, i.e., it does not produce a meaningful rendering of the source term [ST] into the target term [TT]. Rather, purposefully using non-equivalence results in a “better” translation. Akbari (2012) described that structural shifts which result from re-arrangement, addition, omission, change of sentence tense can be defined as problem solving-strategies adopted consciously by translators of literary texts, may minimize the inevitable loss of meaning, through explicitation and compensation when rendering a text from English into Persian. Khanmohammad & Mousavinasab (2014) investigated frequency of different kinds of linguistic translation shifts (i.e. structural shifts, class shifts, unit shifts and intra-system shifts) that occurred in the process of translating different kinds of medical texts from English into Farsi in Iran. Their study shows that using Catford’s structural analysis is not sufficient for evaluating the medical translations from English into Farsi.

Furthermore, transposition and modulation as translation strategies will be explained in the following review of literature.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Transposition

The term transposition is firstly proposed by Catford (1965: 73) with the name ‘shift’ and by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958: 97) with the name ‘transposition’. In *Dictionary of Translation Studies*, Shuttleworth & Cowie (1997: 190) quoted the definition of Vinay and Darbelnet as follows: “Transposition is defined as the process of replacing one word class with another

without changing the meaning of the message”. Then Newmark (1988: 85-89) states that not only the world class which is changed, but also the grammatical structure. Newmark defines transposition as “a translation procedure involving a change in the grammar from SL to TL”. The term is then developed by Machali (2000: 67-69) to analyze translation strategy from English into Indonesian or vv. In this research, then I define **transposition** as a translation strategy which involves the changing of grammatical forms from SL to TL. The aim of using transposition is to obtain appropriate grammatical forms and common lexicons in TL. Transposition can be an obligatory or an option.

Furthermore, Machali (2000: 63-64) classifies transposition into four types: (1) rules of singular noun and plural noun, (2) patterns of noun phrase structure, (3) common equivalences of TL and (4) grammatical-structure changes of linguistic units.

2.2 Modulation

The term modulation is also stated by Vinay and Darbelnet (158: 51) with the definition “a variation through a change of viewpoint, of perspective and very often of category of thought”. In *Dictionary of Translation Studies*, Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997: 66) quote the opinion of van Leuven-Swart that divides modulation into two kinds: generalization and specification. They define generalization as “the type of modulation in which the dissimilarity between ST and TT TRANSEMES is characterized by a SHIFT towards greater generality in TT; as such it contrasts with the opposite phenomenon of SPECIFICATION”. Concerning with specification, Shuttleworth & Cowie (1997: 159) explain that

Specification is distinguished from the other type, GENERALIZATION, in that here the SHIFT which occurs between ST and TT TRANSEMES is in the direction of a higher level of explicitness. In other words, a shift towards greater specification will produce a transeme the meaning of which is made more precise, by either the addition of extra words or the use of words with a less general meaning. (P.159)

In the above definition of generalization and specification, there is a term transeme. Van Leuven-Zwart (1989: 164) explains that transeme refers to a basic unit for the linguistic comparison of a literary text and its INTEGRAL TRANSLATION. Reasoning that “sentences are generally too long and words too short to be easily compared”, I suggest the transeme as a suitable basic unit of comparison.

Modulation is then developed by Machali (2000: 67-69) to analyze translation strategy from English into Indonesian or vv. In this research, I define **modulation** as a translation strategy which involves meaning shifts due to perspective change or point of view. The aim of using modulation is to obtain meaning equivalence between the meaning of SL and TL. By the equivalence the readers are easy to understand the content of the text.

Furthermore, Machali (2000: 69) classifies modulation into three types: (1) addition/creation of linguistic units, (2) specific-general meaning and (3) clarified meaning and natural equivalence.

2.3 Criteria to Asses Accuracy of Transposition and Modulation

In this research, I develop criteria to assess accuracy of using transposition and modulation which can be described into the following diagram.

Diagram 1. Assessment Criteria for Transposition and Modulation

Translation Strategy	Category	Criteria
Transposition	Accurate Transposition	(1) Accuracy of the use of TL structure as valid rules and (2) translation results seem common.
	Less accurate transposition	(1) Less accurate of the use of TL structure as valid rules and (2) translation results seem less common.
	Inaccurate Transposition	(1) Inaccuracy of the use of TL structure as valid rules and (2) translation results seem uncommon.
Modulation	Accurate modulation	(1) Use of words or expressions in TL that have equivalent meaning with SL and (2) equivalence seems natural and commonly used by TL speakers.
	Less accurate modulation	(1) Use of words or expressions in TL that have no equivalent meaning with SL, but the message has been transferred and (2) equivalence seems less natural and less commonly used by TL speakers.
	Inaccurate modulation	(1) Use of words or expressions in TL that have no equivalent meaning with SL and the message has not been transferred and (2) equivalence seems unnatural and uncommonly used by TL speakers.

2.4 Objects to Asses Accuracy of Transposition and Modulation

To find out that transposition and modulation are used as fundamental strategies in translation, I use tourism texts in *Garuda Indonesia* magazines as a case study.

Tourism texts in leaflets and brochures are often to the point and effective for economical reason. In contrast tourism texts in books, bulletins and magazines, the text writers are more freely to express their ideas, retell their touring experience or describe tourism objects. The completeness of information and language aesthetics are more considerable than the economic reasons. It is in relevance with the function of writing tourism texts, i.e. as an instrument of information to entertain tourists.

Topics of tourism texts are various, such as tourist attraction, tourist transportation, tourist accommodation, travel agent and tourist guide. In a tourism text, those topics are usually not independent but as a completeness of one another in sequence and unity of events which are described by a text writer. Accuracy and completeness of information that are described in an aesthetic language determine quality of a tourism text. From the above explanation, I define tourism text as a text in which the content is related to tourism topics and written in aesthetic language as information instrument to entertain tourists.

Garuda Indonesia magazine is a magazine which is published monthly and mainly contains description of tourist attractions and information of Garuda Indonesia Airline flights as

complimentary for passengers. In this research, I use tourism texts of March, April and July 2013 editions which were written in English and Indonesian (translation) as research objects. The titles of the three texts are (1) *Holland's Tulips Blaze with Color*, (2) *Perth and the Surrounding Areas in West Australia: Swimming with Wild Dolphins* and (3) *Uniquely Satisfying Singapore Retail Heaven*.

3. Research Method

This research is a descriptive-qualitative research that aims to evaluate products of translation. The science analyzed is tourism that belongs to social and cultural sciences.

I collected linguistic-unit data (words, phrases, clauses and sentences) of SL and TL, then describe, analyze and classify them based on transposition and modulation strategies. This method is well known as descriptive method.

Data sources were obtained from documents and inter-raters. The documents are three tourism texts along with their translation taken from *Garuda Indonesia* magazines that contain 174 sentences. The inter-raters are three translation experts who have criteria (1) having broad knowledge of tourism field, (2) understanding SL and TL and (3) understanding translation theories. To analyze the data, the SL sentences are compared with the TL sentences. Then, I analyze transposition and modulation forms. After that the three raters assess their accuracy (accurate, less accurate, and inaccurate) of linguistic-unit translation according to the criteria of the transposition and modulation. Finally, I make a translation-improvement alternative (Alt) for sentences that use less accurate and inaccurate transposition and modulation for the sake of their quality improvement.

4. Results

Based on data analysis, research findings can be described and discussed as follows.

4.1 Analysis of Transposition Types

4.1.1 Type 1: Plural Noun in English is translated into Singular Noun in Indonesian or vv.

SL: Holland Village is known as expatriate hangout with relaxed street-side cafes and restaurants.

TL: *Holland Village dikenal sebagai tempat bersantai para ekspatriat di kafe dan restoran pinggir jalan yang bersuasana rileks.*

In the above data, plural nouns 'cafes' and 'restaurants' are translated into 'kafe' and 'restoran', not 'kafe-kafe' and 'restoran-restoran'.

Alt: *Holland Village dikenal sebagai tempat bersantai para ekspatriat di kafe-kafe dan restoran-restoran pinggir jalan yang bersuasana rileks.*

4.1.2 Type 2: Modified-Modifier pattern in English is translated into Modifier-Modified pattern in Indonesian to modify noun-phrase structure.

SL: For travelers, don't forget that many of the world-class hotels that line Orchard Road are either attached to shopping malls or have their own boutique shopping arcades which are worth checking too.

TL: *Untuk para pelancong, jangan lupa bahwa banyak dari hotel kelas dunia yang berjejer sepanjang Orchard Road terhubung dengan pusat perbelanjaan atau memiliki arcade belanja butiknya sendiri yang juga perlu diamati.*

In the above data, noun phrases ‘world-class hotels’, ‘shopping malls’ and ‘their own boutique shopping arcades’ that have Modified-Modifier pattern are translated into ‘hotel kelas dunia’, ‘pusat perbelanjaan’ and ‘arcade belanja butiknya sendiri’ that have Modifier-Modified pattern. Related to grammatical structure of noun- phrase modification, i.e. relation between modified element (head) and modifier, the translation in TL follows head-modifier pattern. In the above noun phrases, ‘hotels’, ‘malls’ and ‘arcades’ are heads whereas ‘world-class’, ‘shopping’ and ‘their own boutique shopping’ are modifiers.

4.1.3 Type 3: Transposition is done if expression in SL can be translated literally into TL through grammatical structure, but the equivalence is uncommon in TL.

SL: You can stay in an elegant castle such as Kasteel Oud Wassenaar near The Hague which has housed royalty.

TL: Anda dapat menginap di kastil elegan seperti Kasteel Oud Wassenaar dekat Den Haag yang biasa dikunjungi para keluarga bangsawan.

In the above data, active verb *has housed* is translated into passive verb ‘*dikunjungi*’ because if it is translated into ‘*mengasramakan/memondokkan*’, the equivalence is uncommon although it is grammatically correct.

4.1.4 Type 4: Transposition is done to fill lexical empty in TL by changing grammatical structure of linguistic units (a word into a phrase, a phrase into a clause, and so on).

SL: Instead of hunting live fish, they become used to begging for scraps.

TL: Mereka bisa tidak mau lagi berburu ikan segar sendiri dan lebih suka mengemis.

In the above data, phrase ‘*Instead of hunting live fish*’ is translated into sentence ‘*Mereka bisa tidak mau lagi berburu ikan segar sendiri*’ that aims to clarify meaning.

4.2 Analysis of Transposition Accuracy

Frequency of transposition accuracy in the three tourism texts (text 1, text 2 and text 3) can be explained by the following table.

Table 1. Percentage of transposition accuracy in text 1, text 2 and text 3

Transposition	Text 1 (%)	Text 2 (%)	Text 3 (%)	Total
Accurate	38 (86.4%)	67 (97.1%)	53 (86.9%)	158 (90.8%)
Less accurate	4 (9.1%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.6%)	5 (2.8%)
Inaccurate	2 (4.5%)	2 (2.9%)	7 (11.5%)	11 (6.4%)
Total	44 (100%)	69 (100%)	61 (100%)	174 (100%)

4.2.1 Accurate Transposition

SL: After many bankruptcies, the crisis was ended by government regulation of the tulip trade.

TL: Setelah beberapa kali kebangkrutan, krisis tersebut diakhiri oleh peraturan pemerintah mengenai perdagangan tulip.

In the above data, noun phrases ‘government regulation’ and ‘tulip trade’ that have modified-modifier pattern are translated into ‘peraturan pemerintah’ and ‘perdagangan tulip’ that have modifier-modified pattern in TL. In modification structure of noun phrase, relation between modified element (*head*) and modifier element (*modifier*) in TL should follow *head-modifier* pattern. In both noun phrases, ‘regulation’ and ‘trade’ are heads whereas ‘government’ and ‘tulip’ are modifiers.

4.2.2 Less Accurate Transposition

- SL: With its astounding variety of shopping options to suit all budgets and tastes spanning the centuries from age-old traditional Chinese medicine to the latest cutting edge technological gadgets a retail-oriented sojourn in Singapore truly does offer a unique shopping experience.
- TL: Dengan ragam pilihan yang begitu banyak yang cocok untuk semua anggaran dan selera, mulai dari obat tradisional Cina yang berumur ratusan tahun sampai peralatan teknologi mutakhir, untuk orang yang suka membeli barang kecil-kecilan, persinggahan di Singapura bisa memberikan sesuatu untuk semua orang.

In the above data – to follow accurate transposition – noun phrase ‘*traditional Chinese medicine*’ is more appropriate to be translated into ‘*obat China tradisional*’ than ‘*obat tradisional Cina*’. The less accuracy of the noun phrase causes a meaning change. In ‘*obat China tradisional*’, the concept stressed is kindness, i.e. traditional, not modern whereas in ‘*obat tradisional Cina*’, the concept stressed is a country where the medicine is made, i.e. China, not other countries. If we compare it with noun phrase ‘*Single European Market*’ that is supposed to be translated into ‘*Pasar Eropa Tunggal*’ to follow accurate transposition, our mass media usually translate it into ‘*Pasar Tunggal Eropa*’ that does not follow accurate transposition. In ‘*Pasar Tunggal Eropa*’, the concept stressed is an area, i.e. Europe, not other continents whereas in ‘*Pasar Eropa Tunggal*’, the concept stressed is single, i.e. a single market for European countries.

To translate the above sentence with accurate transposition, I make improvement alternative as follows.

- Alt: Dengan ragam pilihan yang begitu banyak yang cocok untuk semua anggaran dan selera, mulai dari obat Cina tradisional yang berumur ratusan tahun sampai peralatan teknologi mutakhir, untuk orang yang suka membeli barang kecil-kecilan, persinggahan di Singapura bisa memberikan sesuatu untuk semua orang.

4.2.3 Inaccurate Transposition

- SL: Keukenhof also has a roofed-in garden with an adjacent show glasshouse which is reason enough to visit; every inch of the 53,000 square feet space seems to be in bloom.
- TL: Keukenhof juga memiliki taman di bawah atap berdampingan dengan rumah kaca untuk pameran yang layak untuk dikunjungi, setiap inci dari 53.000 kaki persegi ruangan kelihatan seperti bersemi.

In the above data, noun phrase ‘*53,000 square feet space*’ that has modified-modifier pattern should be translated into modifier-modified pattern, i.e. ‘*petak yang berukuran 53.000 kaki persegi*’, not ‘*53.000 kaki persegi ruangan*’. Moreover, word translation ‘*feet*’ into ‘*kaki*’ is uncommon in TL. The common size in Indonesian is ‘*meter*’ and the size ‘*53.000 kaki*’ should be converted into 68.600 meter (1 *feet* = 130 cm).

To translate the above sentence with accurate transposition, I make improvement alternative as follows.

- Alt: Keukenhof juga memiliki taman beratap yang berdampingan dengan rumah kaca sebagai pameran yang layak untuk dikunjungi; setiap inci dari petak yang berukuran 68.600 meter persegi tampak bersemi.

The above research findings support the findings of Akbari (2012) who found that structural shifts which result from re-arrangement, addition, omission, change of sentence tense can be defined as problem solving-strategies to translate children’s literature from English into

Persian. On the other hand, the research findings do not support the findings of Khanmohammad & Mousavinasab (2014) who found that using Catford's structural analysis is not sufficient for evaluating the medical translations from English into Farsi in Iran. Finally, it can be inferred that transposition as a structural shift strategy can also be applied to translate tourism texts from English into Indonesian.

4.3 Analysis of Modulation Types

4.3.1 Type 1: Modulation is done if a word, phrase or other linguistic units have no equivalence in TL, so it should be added/created.

SL: Unique is the word that best captures Singapore – a dynamic, cosmopolitan city-state where different cultures, ethnic groups and religions blend harmoniously.

TL: *Unik adalah kata yang tepat untuk mendeskripsikan Singapura – negara berukuran kota kosmopolitan yang dinamis, yang memiliki banyak kebudayaan yang berbeda, kelompok-kelompok etnik dan keharmonisan dari beragam agama.*

In the above data, there is no equivalence of noun phrase 'city-state' in TL, so it is created a phrase '*negara berukuran kota*'.

4.3.2 Type 2: Modulation is done for a word translation in which only a part of its meaning aspects in SL can be expressed in TL, i.e. from specific meaning to general meaning.

SL: The visitors put on their suits and snorkels before easing into the water – splashing loudly is regarded as a display of hostility by dolphins – in groups of five.

TL: *Para wisatawan mengenakan pakaian selam dan snorkelnya, sebelum perlahan-lahan turun ke dalam air dalam kelompok berisi lima orang – menceburkan diri keras-keras dianggap sebagai tanda bermusuhan oleh lumba-lumba.*

In the above data, word 'visitors' that lexically means '*pengunjung*' in TL is translated into '*wisatawan*' in order to obtain general meaning. Moreover, the word '*wisatawan*' is broadly known and accepted as an appropriate term in tourism industry.

4.3.3 Type 3: Modulation is done that aims to clarify meaning and find natural equivalence in TL.

SL: There are also the usual hotels, quaint inns, boarding houses and campsites, not far from the blaze of tulips.

TL: *Terdapat juga hotel-hotel biasa, penginapan kecil dan pondok wisata serta lapangan perkemahan tidak jauh dari gemerlapnya tulip.*

In the above data, noun phrase '*boarding house*' that literally means '*rumah indekos*' is translated into '*pondok wisata*' in order to clarify meaning, more natural in TL and has been broadly used in tourism terminology.

4.4 Analysis of Modulation Accuracy

Frequency of modulation accuracy in the three tourism texts (text 1, text 2 and text 3) can be explained by the following table.

Table 2. Percentage of modulation accuracy in text 1, text 2 and text 3

Modulation	Text 1 (%)	Text 2 (%)	Text 3 (%)	Total
Accurate	5 (31.8%)	21 (22.1%)	4 (5%)	30 (17.4%)
Less accurate	19 (20.5%)	36 (55.8%)	32 (55%)	87 (50.6%)

Inaccurate	20 (47.7%)	11 (22.1%)	26 (40%)	57 (32%)
Total	44 (100%)	68 (100%)	62 (100%)	174 (100%)

4.4.1 Accurate Modulation

SL: After many bankruptcies, the crisis was ended by government regulation of the tulip trade.

TL: Setelah beberapa kali kebangkrutan, krisis tersebut diakhiri oleh peraturan pemerintah mengenai perdagangan tulip.

In the above data, translation of plural marker 'many' does not use 'banyak' that has wide meaning, but uses 'beberapa kali' that has narrower meaning and acceptable in TL as modulation strategy. This modulation is accurate because it relates to trading efforts in which the risk is profit and loss, even bankrupt. The word 'banyak' is more appropriate if it collocates with word 'keuntungan' and 'kerugian' becomes 'banyak keuntungan' and 'banyak kerugian'. Related to 'kebangkrutan', collocation 'banyak kebangkrutan' is uncommon in Indonesian speakers. The common collocation is 'beberapa kali kebangkrutan'. So, it can be concluded that in meaning aspect, the linguistic units-translation of the above data is accurate. In other words, it can be stated that the above sentence translation has used words or expressions which have equivalent meaning with SL and the equivalence is natural and commonly used by TL speakers.

4.4.2 Less Accurate Modulation

SL: Touring through such tulips has become a rite of spring in Holland, although you can drive through most of the country and see no more tulips than at home.

TL: Menikmati kumpulan bunga tulip telah menjadi semacam upacara Musim Semi di Negeri Belanda walau Anda dapat berkendaraan ke sebagian besar negeri tetapi tidak akan melihat tidak lebih banyak tulip daripada di rumah.

To translate word 'Touring' into 'Berwisata menikmati' is more accurate than into 'Menikmati' and word 'drive' into 'mengunjungi' is more accurate than into 'berkendaraan'. To naturalize translation, it is more accurate to change phrase 'tetapi tidak akan melihat tidak lebih banyak tulip daripada' into 'dan tidak dapat melihat lebih banyak tulip sebagaimana di negeri Anda sendiri'. It can be concluded that the above translation does not use words or expressions that have equivalent meaning with SL but the message has been transferred and the meaning is less natural and less common in TL.

To translate the above sentence with accurate modulation, I make improvement alternative as follows.

Alt: Berwisata menikmati kumpulan bunga tulip telah menjadi semacam upacara Musim Semi di Negeri Belanda. Walaupun Anda dapat mengunjungi ke banyak negara tetapi Anda tidak akan melihat lebih banyak tulip sebagaimana yang ada di negara Anda sendiri.

4.4.3 Inaccurate Modulation

SL: It's a good idea to have your travel agent make reservations a year in advance.

TL: Ada baiknya Anda mengatur perjalanan Anda setahun di muka.

If meaning of the above sentence translation is analyzed, there is an inaccurate meaning shift (modulation). Clause 'to have your travel agent make reservations' is inaccurately translated into 'Anda mengatur perjalanan Anda'. The accurate one is 'agen perjalanan wisata Anda melakukan pemesanan'. In this context, there is a meaning shift in which the subject is 'your travel agent', but it changes into 'you' (tourist). Besides that the equivalence of 'make reservations' that is translated into 'mengatur perjalanan' is not equivalent. The accurate

equivalence is '*melakukan pemesanan*'. Moreover, the translation is unnatural and uncommonly for TL speakers. It can be concluded that there is no equivalent meaning between the SL and the TL. In other words, it can be stated that the above sentence translation does not use words or expressions that have equivalent meaning and the message is not well transferred.

To translate the above sentence with accurate modulation, I make an improvement alternative as follows.

Alt: *Ada baiknya agen perjalanan wisata Anda melakukan pemesanan setahun di muka.*

The above research findings support the findings of Kashgari (2011) who found that translating using equivalence is not necessarily the best strategy, i.e., it does not produce a meaningful rendering of the source term [ST] in Arabic into the target term [TT] in English. To solve it, using non-equivalence strategy results in a "better" translation. In other words, modulation as a semantic strategy can also be applied to translate texts from English into Indonesian.

5. Conclusion

Based on the analysis results of transposition and modulation of linguistic-unit translation in the above data, I draw conclusions as follows.

1. Most of the sentence translation analyzed (90.8%) uses accurate transposition. This means the usage of TL grammatical structure follows the rules and the translation is natural. Then 43.8% of sentence translation uses less accurate modulation. This means that the translators do not use words or expressions which have equivalent meaning in TL, but the message has been transferred and the equivalence is less natural and less commonly used by TL speakers.
2. Through the above research findings, it can be proved that transposition and modulation are fundamental strategies in translation to obtain translation products that have equivalent with their source language, easy to understand and meet the readers' desires.
3. This research is very significant for translation studies because it could enrich translators' knowledge, especially the application of transposition as a structural strategy and modulation as a semantic strategy in translation activities.

About the Author:

Dr. Budi Purnomo holds MA in Translation Studies from Sebelas Maret University and PhD in Linguistics from Gadjah Mada University. His studies have covered the areas of translation, language teaching, tourism and intercultural communication. He is currently faculty member and President at Sahid Tourism Institute of Surakarta, Indonesia.

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Adding More Fuel to the Fire: A Study of Attrition in Formulaic Sequences by Adult Learners

Thamer Alharthi

Department of European Languages and Literature
Faculty of Arts and Humanities
King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

Because lexis constitutes the basis of pedagogic materials, foreign language (FL) learners are faced with the challenging task of acquiring a large vocabulary. One yardstick of fluent, accurate and idiomatic control of the language which has gained considerable popularity as a subject of research into second language (L2) is formulaic sequences, i.e. multiword items. Interestingly, there has been no research exploring the long-term attrition of formulaic language by L2 learners. This study has sought to begin addressing this gap. It aimed to find out whether adult non-native learners of English forget formulaic sequences knowledge that they have learned during their course of study. The participants were 81 male EFL learners. All participants were tested before and after the summer recess on their formulaic sequence knowledge using multiple-choice and close test formats. Quantitative findings show that different types of formulaic sequences are affected to different degrees by attrition. The results revealed greater attrition in recall (mean -22.90) than in recognition (mean -16.67) of formulaic sequences. More frequent or transparent formulaic sequences were retained more easily than infrequently used or less transparent ones. The pedagogical implications of these findings and suggestions for further research are discussed.

Keywords: Attrition, EFL, formulaic sequence, recall knowledge, recognition knowledge

Introduction

Second language (L2) vocabulary learning has been frequently researched topic in the last three decades (Alharthi, 2014a; Bogaards & Laufer, 2004; Coady & Huckin, 1997; Laufer & Rozovaski-Roitblat, 2014; Meara, 1980; Milton, 2009; Nation, 1990, 2001; Nation & Webb, 2011; Peters, 2013; Schmitt, 2008, 2010; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Webb & Chang, 2015). It has been received wisdom that fully knowing a word entails a variety of aspects of vocabulary knowledge including collocations, associations, grammatical functions and others (see listing in Nation, 2001). Likewise, the importance of knowledge of formulaic language, i.e. multi-word items, is now widely recognized by researchers, teachers, and material writers as a subject of investigation in research on L2 learning (Bardovi-Harlig, 2002; Biber *et al.*, 2004; Durrant & Schmitt, 2010; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Lewis, 2001; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Peters, 2015; Schmitt, 2004, 2010; Tsai, 2014; Webb & Kagimoto, 2009; Webb *et al.*, 2013; Wood, 2010; Wray, 2000). As Schmitt (2010, p. 146) succinctly notes, “Formulaic language is an important element of language overall, perhaps *the* essential element”. Being such a big part of language, it is not surprising that recent years have seen much interest by language teachers and researchers in the role played by formulaic language in providing a platform for greater control of the language. The enduring popularity of formulaic language for a whole range of uses is due to its different expressive purposes such as referential, textual and communicative functions (Schmitt, 2010).

As formulaic language is used very frequently, there is a widespread belief that L2 learners must be finding this aspect of language learning challenging (Wray, 2000). One of the reasons for giving formulaic language a prominent place in lexical research is that having suitable formulaic language stored as wholes contributes to learners’ levels of accuracy and fluency (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012; Pawley & Syder, 1983). Arguments about the acquisition of L2 formulaic language are often related to the question whether highly advanced learners acquire the knowledge of formulaic language that imitate near native-like aspects of the language in terms of word selection and fluency (Forsberg, 2010; Nekrasova, 2009). It is argued that without the knowledge of formulaic language, a learner would not be able to have the near native-like performance that is often seen as a strong predictor of a high level of proficiency.

The fact that language is largely formulaic can in some way be considered particularly problematic for adult L2 learners and for many non-native L2 teachers alike (Durrant & Schmitt, 2010; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; J. Li & Schmitt, 2010; Qi & Ding, 2011). Given the dynamic and incremental nature of acquiring vocabulary knowledge on the way to a mastery of words occurs via repeated exposure, there is no doubt that the acquisition of formulaic language resembles the same incremental process that typically mandates multiple encounters with the same items (Li & Schmitt, 2010; Schmitt, 2010; Webb & Chang, 2015). What this means is that formulaic language takes a long time to acquire and much partial knowledge of formulaic language will drift out of memory and become susceptible to attrition. It appears that not only does individual lexical knowledge seem to be prone to attrition, but it is also the case that various types of vocabulary knowledge, such as formulaic language, are subject to attrition, albeit it to different degrees. With the exposure of language input, Wray (2002) argues that successful adult L2 learners are likely to retain more individual items than stretches of formulaic language. A similar line of thought was developed by Nation and Webb (2011, p. 315) who point out that longer words (in this case multi-word units) are more challenging since there is “more to remember in long words than in short words”. These remarks may possibly reflect that the strong

tendency of formulaic language to occur in multi-word units is perceived to be a cause of the likely deterioration in learners' vocabulary knowledge.

Vocabulary is made up of individual lexical items and multi-word units that convey unitary meaning or function. Moreover, the literature has suggested diverse categories of formulaic language as there are many types of sequences including but not limited to collocations, idioms, phrasal verbs, lexical bundles, lexical phrases and sayings, which in turn makes it very challenging to come up with a conclusive definition. Since a consensus definition of formulaic language has yet to be subject to critical scrutiny and a detailed discussion of the ambiguities are beyond the scope of the present study, for the purpose of this study Wray's (2000, p. 465) working definition of a formulaic sequence is adopted: "a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar". This definition has been widely accepted by researchers of formulaic language by L2 learners (Conklin & Schmitt, 2008; Schmitt, 2010; Wray, 2000).

Despite widespread published research on formulaic language in L2 and their critical role in fluency improvement (Conklin & Schmitt, 2008; Ellis, 2006a; Kuiper *et al.*, 2009; Li & Schmitt, 2010; Underwood *et al.*, 2004), one question that remains to be explored is how can L2 learners forget or retain what formulaic language they still know. Research on the nature and rate of attrition of formulaic language is evidently lacking. Emphasizing the lack of empirical research on the attrition of formulaic language, Schmitt (2010, p. 259) noted "to my knowledge, there has yet been no research on the long-term attrition and retention of formulaic language". Studies that have contributed to the literature on FL vocabulary attrition have tended to focus on individual words (Alharthi, 2012, 2014b, 2014c, in press; Bahrack, 1984; Cohen, 1989; de Bot & Weltens, 1995; Weltens, 1989). To some degree this may be due to it being easier to work with single words than multi-word units. The literature on single word attrition suggests that productive vocabulary knowledge declined much more quickly than receptive vocabulary knowledge (Alharthi, 2012, 2014b; Bahrack, 1984). However, it is not clear whether this is also the case for formulaic language attrition. The study reported here therefore took a first step to address this gap, aiming to find out whether adult learners of English forget the meaning of formulaic language that they have learned during their course of study.

The experimental work reported in Schmitt (2004) tended to focus on the acquisition, processing and use of formulaic language. However, issues such as the rate of attrition of formulaic language and to what extent it can be retained or forgotten seemed to attract very little attention.

One study will be described in more detail, as it is somewhat related to the investigation presented in the current paper. In a study that pinpoints the ways in which instructional input may affect the acquisition of L2 formulaic language, Schmitt *et al.* (2004) examined the development of receptive and productive formulaic sequences during a two-month EAP pre-university course. The learners were pretested and posttested on their knowledge of the meaning of formulaic sequences in their L2 by means of 20-item supply-definition and multiple-choice measurements. The participants had some practice in doing this since they had been exposed to each formulaic item in their course materials and had been told the meaning of each formulaic item by their teachers. The results revealed that the learners had impressive pre-knowledge of formulaic sequences and that they maintained this knowledge during their course of study. However, their study raised an important issue related to the present paper since there were

apparent traces of the attrition of formulaic sequences, both receptively and productively. This was not really surprising; as Schmitt *et al.* (2004, p. 68) acknowledged, “it would be surprising if no cases of attrition occurred in a study focusing on formulaic sequences”. It is worth mentioning that the non-native speakers in Schmitt *et al.*’s (2004) study were advanced learners in an immersion context where they were constantly exposed to the target language, either orally or in written forms. The context of the current study is a normal FL learning environment where the most frequent contact with the language is at school, with peers and teachers. Again, this limited contact with English, with virtually none during the summer recess, is an environment where the fact that language learners may have invested less time in learning and using the language may lead to the attrition of formulaic sequences.

As became clear in my literature survey, previous studies merely focused on the development of learners’ formulaic language repertoire over the course of their L2 language program. Aside from a handful of studies that tackled the issue of attrition of single word knowledge, there is no research to my best of knowledge that has directly addressed the issue of attrition beyond individual words in the FL classroom. The study takes a first step in filling a gap in research into L2 formulaic language by exploring attrition in receptive and productive formulaic language longitudinally in a group of non-native EFL learners over their summer vacation. The following research questions were addressed in the present study:

Is there any sign of attrition in the EFL learners’ knowledge of formulaic sequences after their English instruction ceases?

- To what extent does any attrition influence receptive and productive knowledge of formulaic sequences?

Materials and Methods

Participants

The participants were 81 third and fourth-year university EFL students, recruited from three parallel BA English classes. The reason for enlisting these participants is that it is assumed that they had the opportunity to acquire formulaic sequences in several years of studying English. Further, the participants were selected on account of their performance in a vocabulary proficiency test, called a Vocabulary Size Test (VST) (Nation & Beglar, 2007), in which they had demonstrated a receptive vocabulary of 3,000 word families, indicating that they were coping with English studies in a university language program. Prior to their three to four years of formal English language instruction at university, they had been studying English in intermediate and secondary school for six years. Their instruction was basically focused on vocabulary and grammar. In total, they had been studying English for nine to ten years, comprising intermediate and secondary level high school and university. The study followed them longitudinally over the three months of the summer recess. Although they followed the same syllabus, they may have been exposed to slightly different course materials and teaching styles. Participation in this study was voluntary and the selection of participants was based on the following two main criteria:

- They showed up for the follow-up test battery.
- They had not been exposed to English language input during the inactive period.

Hence, while 85 participants took part in the baseline study, data from only 81 participants, i.e. from those who made themselves available in all stages of data collection, were used in the analysis.

Instruments

The first task in designing the present study was to decide which formulaic sequences to be selected. As there is no principled approach to identifying formulaic sequences and standardized measurement instruments (Schmitt, 2010), I decided to base the present study on the formulaic sequence selection criteria similar to those used by Schmitt *et al.* (2004). To make the compilation of the initial formulaic sequences list manageable, the first step was to make sure that the items were arranged by how commonly they occur in the input. The lists used in the acquisition study by Schmitt *et al.* (2004) were consulted and 45 candidate formulaic sequences were identified in academic English. In order to get clear instances of any formulaic sequences occurring in academic English types, a random sample of English vocabulary practice of *Focus on Vocabulary 1: Bridging Vocabulary* (Schmitt *et al.*, 2011) was inspected and an additional 20 collocations identified. The author of the study or the researcher included items that either occurred in bold or linked to examples that illustrated their meanings. The next step was to decide on a corpus that could provide a representative repertoire of the study data. The 65 candidate formulaic sequences were then analyzed, drawing on the British National Corpus (BNC) to determine their lexical frequency in general English. By doing so, He was able to eliminate the candidates with relatively low frequencies from the initial list of formulaic sequences.

Having identified and compiled the formulaic sequences that were likely to be known, it was considered crucial for to check their “ecological validity” in the instructional materials. I selected two EFL textbooks which are taught to the study participants in their BA course, namely *Great Writing 3: From Great Paragraphs to Great Essays* (Folse *et al.*, 2014) and *Great Writing 4: Great Essays* (Folse *et al.*, 2014). These textbooks are geared towards upper-intermediate EFL learners who have reached the Common European Framework (CEF) B2 level. I particularly examined the formulaic sequences presented in units 4 and 5, vocabulary activities and exercises, in each textbook. It was considered to be extremely useful and more ecologically valid if the formats used in the elicitation instruments for recall and recognition knowledge of meaning of the target formulaic sequences at least to some extent reflected classroom reality. The review of the instructional materials confirmed that the study participants were likely to be familiar with the formats of the formulaic sequence activities. Additionally, the two instructors who had been teaching English at the time of the present study confirmed that the formulaic sequences selected had been previously taught. On the basis of the analysis of the course books, 66 formulaic sequences were identified and verified by checking them against the list of formulaic sequences found in the literature, the lists derived from consulting the BNC and a list resulting from consultation with the instructors. The final list of 40 candidate formulaic sequences was arrived at by selecting high-frequency items from the above lists.

The recall test comprised 20 target formulaic sequences which were embedded in short contexts. The test presented the test-takers with a sentence where the target formulaic sequence had been replaced with blanks. A short definition of each formulaic sequence was provided between brackets as its denotative meaning. To limit the answer to the target formulaic sequence, the first letters of each missing item were provided. The missing letters in each blank space were represented by dots, and the size of the incomplete target formulaic sequence was such so as not to give a clue to the correct answer. The test-taker needed to pay attention to the initial letters of the gapped formulaic sequence highlighted in bold, as in the example below:

Dinner was always chicken and **ma**.....**po**.....with soup to start and sweet to finish. (Special dish that is boiled, cooked with milk and butter.)

[Answer: mashed potatoes]

The recognition test consisted of 20 target formulaic sequences and had a contextualized multiple-choice format. Each target formulaic sequence was replaced with dots and the test-taker needed to choose from four options. The four options included three plausible distracters and an “I don’t know” option to minimize the chances of successful guessing. All of the distracters were taken from items found in the instructional materials. An example of the recognition test is given below:

You have.....about something which means you are unwilling to change it.

- a. heavy opinions
- b. pessimistic opinions
- c. strong opinions
- d. light opinions
- e. I DON'T KNOW

[Answer: c]

It should be noted that all sentence contexts in which the target formulaic sequences were encountered in the recall and recognition tasks were at the 1,000 and 2,000 word levels and based on range and frequency figures from the written discourse of the BNC. This was to ensure that running words are likely to be known by all the participants. To reduce the effect of deliberate and intentional learning during the retention interval, the order in which the formulaic sequences were examined varied in each test session.

Procedure

Pretests in paper-and-pencil format measuring the attrition of recall and recognition knowledge of meaning were used to examine the participants’ knowledge of target formulaic sequences. The recall test was administered two weeks prior to course completion, and within 50 minutes during participants’ regular English classes. Following the recall pretest, participants were given the VST (Nation & Beglar, 2007), which allowed for a brief time gap between the recall and recognition pretests. Having finished the VST, the participants were assigned to the recognition pretest which was conducted within 30 minutes. The same measures (with the target items presented in a different order) served as posttests, which were administered three months later. The procedure was identical with regard to the administration of the pretests and posttests.

Scoring and analyses

The maximum score for recall and recognition of the knowledge of formulaic sequences was 20 points. Since the aim of the recall test was to assess knowledge of the meaning of formulaic sequences rather than knowledge of form, responses were marked as correct if they demonstrated partial knowledge of form, i.e. were misspelled for example but recognizable. In the example above, for the target formulaic sequence *mashed potatoes*, responses of wrong affixes such as *mashd potatos* and *mash potato* were scored correct. Missing or wrong responses were scored zero. In the recognition test, which measured knowledge of the meaning of formulaic sequences, no partial score was allowed since it had a multiple-choice format. Instead, the test was marked dichotomously, i.e., each item chosen correctly scored one point, and incorrect, missing or “I don’t know” answers scored zero. All participants’ scores on pretests were expressed as a percentage and analyzed using SPSS (version 21). Participants’ attrition scores on posttests were calculated using the following formula: $[(\text{correct posttest score} - \text{pretest score}) / (\text{total items tested})] * 100$. One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests were conducted to decide on the type of

statistical analysis to be used. The non-significant result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic indicates that the data was normally distributed; hence parametric tests were used for the analysis of pre-post scores. To answer the first research question, paired-samples *t*-tests were carried out to compare the relative attrition between pre- and posttests over the interval of three months. Repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with time and task types as independent variables to examine their effects on the attrition pre-post scores. This analysis elicits results that answer the second research question. For all statistical analyses, the alpha level was set at .05.

Results

The descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores, and number of participants) of formulaic sequence knowledge on recall pretest, recognition pretest, recall posttest and recognition posttest are reported in Table 1. In Term 1, participants performed better in the recognition test ($M=71.10$) than in the recall test ($M=48.14$). Figure 1 illustrates the differences between the recognition and recall pre-post scores. This indicates that participants did not possess full knowledge of the meaning of as many formulaic sequences productively as they did receptively. Paired-samples *t*-tests revealed that the acquisition scores for the recall and recognition levels in Term 1 were relatively significant ($df=80$, $t=-21.523$, $p<.001$). Mean scores on the 3-month posttests were $M=54.32$ and $M=25.24$ for recognition and recall tests respectively. The standard deviations were large, particularly between Term 1 and Term 2, in relation to the average pre-post recall scores ($SD=16.47$), ($SD=14.35$), indicating that the participants did not remember any or only a very few formulaic sequences. In effect, the profile displayed in Figure 2 shows that the slopes decreased more steeply for recall than for recognition knowledge of formulaic sequences.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of knowledge of formulaic sequences

Task type	Participant (n)	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Recall -Term1	81	10.00	80.00	48.1481	16.47810
Recog -Term1	81	35.00	100.00	71.1077	15.31788
Recall -Term2	81	.00	60.00	25.2469	14.35926
Recog -Term2	81	20.00	85.00	54.3210	14.13668

Note: Term = Length of Attrition Time *Recreco* = Recall & Recognition. * = $p<.001$

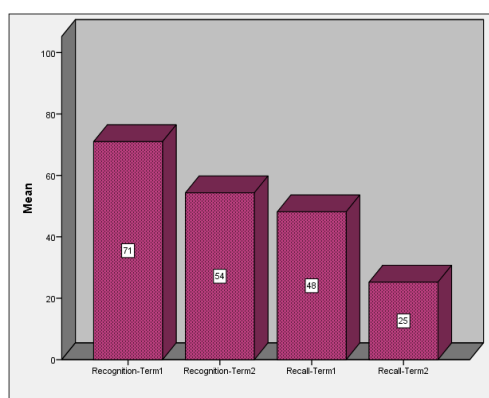


Figure 1. Recognition and recall pre-post scores

More specifically, a paired sample *t*-test revealed that the attrition scores for both recall ($df=80$, $t=21.29$, $p<.001$) and recognition ($df=80$, $t=18.34$, $p<.001$) tasks were significant. These results could be taken to suggest that the gap between recall and recognition knowledge, all other factors being equal, might also have different effects on the pattern of attrition. This means that the formulaic sequences learned in Term 1 were mostly forgotten three months after the instructional treatment ended and this difference was larger in the recall test. However, one could only make such a prediction on the basis of one's intuition about how the pattern of attrition would look like if the participants were measured again several months later.

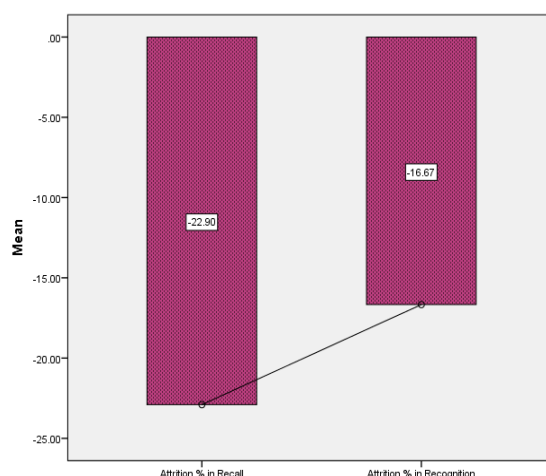


Figure 2. Relative attrition of recall and recognition between Terms 1 and Term 2

A repeated measures ANOVA, as can be seen in Table 2, indicated that the length of attrition time was indeed a significant predictor of the pre-post attrition scores ($F=639.678$). The effect was revealed by a significant interaction between the length of attrition time and the pre-post attrition scores ($p<.001$). Also, the results of the repeated measures ANOVA showed that the degree of formulaic sequence knowledge (recall and recognition) was effective for pre-post attrition scores ($F=640.204$, $p<.001$).

Table 2. ANOVA Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	Term	Recreco	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Term	Linear		31703.781	1	31703.781	639.678	.000
Error(Term)	Linear		3964.969	80	49.562		
Recreco		Linear	54574.151	1	54574.151	640.204	.000
Error(Recreco)		Linear	6819.599	80	85.245		
Term * Recreco	Linear	Linear	787.114	1	787.114	25.632	.000
Error(Term*Recreco)	Linear	Linear	2456.636	80	30.708		

The results reflect the fact that participants demonstrated different degrees of attrition in formulaic sequence knowledge, which was further qualified by a significant interaction between the length of attrition time and the degree of formulaic sequence knowledge ($F=25.632$, $p<.001$). Taken together with the findings presented above, the analyses provide a complete picture of the rate of attrition found in the present study.

Discussion

In Term 1, the results of the pre-post scores showed that the size and the amount of both recall and recognition knowledge of formulaic sequences dropped over time and that at any one time, recognition knowledge is greater than recall knowledge. The lower pre- scores on the recall tests in comparison to the recognition tests demonstrate the greater difficulty of learning recall knowledge of formulaic sequences. The results support the previous findings of studies of single word items (Alharthi, 2014b; Bahrick, 1984; Webb, 2005, 2008) as well as the common perception among researchers (Aitchison, 1994; Crow, 1986; Schmitt, 2014), which has repeatedly shown that recall knowledge of meaning is susceptible to attrition more than recognition knowledge of meaning. The findings of the present study indicate that there was a great difference between the effects of recall and recognition tasks on knowledge of the meaning of formulaic sequences. The attrition scores of the two tasks were quite different, with significant differences found between the tasks. The results give support to Webb's (2008, p. 89) observation that "The gap between receptive and productive knowledge might have been higher if other aspects of word knowledge, such as collocation or syntax, had also been measured". It might be expected that the increased learning burden of the recall task (fill in blank) may have in turn increased the amount of time the participants had to focus on the meaning of each formulaic sequence in comparison with the one in the recognition task (multiple-choice). The variance rate of the meaning of the formulaic sequence was 35% between pre- and posttest for recognition, while three months after the end of Term 1 the variance rate of 65% for the meaning of formulaic sequences were not retained by the participants for recall. These outcomes are not in line with Schmitt *et al.*'s (2004) study who found a small amount of attrition in the knowledge of the meaning of formulaic sequences. The discrepancy in results between the present study and Schmitt *et al.*'s (2004) might be due to the latter's main focus being on explicit learning, while the current study's focus on explicit learning was purely incidental, hence a larger number of formulaic sequences was expected to be forgotten in this study since the learners were not

advised to pay attention to these items. In other words, explicit instruction might lead to deeper knowledge of meaning and retention of formulaic sequences than might typically occur with incidental learning. Moreover, Schmitt *et al.*'s (2004) participants were advanced postgraduate students studying at a British university, while the participants in the current study were undergraduate students, enrolled in a BA course at a university, with a mean vocabulary size at or below 3,000 word families.

The results may offer a reasonably pleasant surprise for language teachers beginning a new term since the participants retained transparent and frequently used formulaic sequences, such as *handle this situation*, *happy to be here*, *with regard to* and *it is clear that*, despite a lack of FL input or use over time. In contrast, less transparent and infrequently used formulaic sequences, such as *unforeseen effects*, *a pivotal role*, *on the whole* and *I see what you mean*, presented a real challenge and were susceptible to attrition. These formulaic sequences might not be salient enough for the learners to establish a cognitive hold and consequently to remember their meanings. This is an interesting finding that unfortunately cannot be compared with other studies due to the lack of research in the area of formulaic sequence attrition.

Conclusion

The ultimate goal of learning vocabulary is to be able to understand and use the target language. Formulaic sequences are an integral component of lexical knowledge and particularly important in the productive use of words, therefore knowing a number of typical formulaic sequences is as important as knowing single word lexical items. As long as there is attrition of single words learnt, it is reasonable to expect that a greater decline or forgetting of formulaic sequences learnt will occur. The paper sought to investigate the extent to which knowledge of meaning of formulaic sequences may be forgotten at recall and recognition. The results showed that knowledge of many formulaic sequences declined quite soon after instruction had ended and that recall knowledge was much more prone to attrition than recognition knowledge. The data highlighted and confirmed similar patterns of forgetting for formulaic sequences as for individual words.

Given the limited time available in university courses for explicitly teaching vocabulary, the unstated assumption is likely to be that incidental lexical learning should be integrated into any L2 vocabulary learning program. Although this assumption is related to individual word learning, one might argue that it is also important for the learning of formulaic sequences. The pedagogical implications of the current study are clear. For the FL classroom, explicit teaching of the vast number of formulaic sequences would be both unwieldy and too time consuming. Teachers should provide a rich environment to make exposure to and use of the L2 possible in classrooms to minimize subsequent attrition. It is my belief that if classroom activities offer learners the use of memory strategies for consolidating the meaning of any formulaic sequences when they are encountered, their level of retention will rise. That is, it is of paramount importance to train learners in the use of retention strategies, particularly strategies related to note taking, repetition and mental associations in the short and in the long term. As the learning situation in the present study was purely an EFL one, there may not be sufficient FL input to facilitate the incidental learning of formulaic sequences and consequently the retaining of such knowledge. Hence, it is hoped that raising learners' awareness of formulaic language would strengthen independent learning via continued L2 input outside the classroom during the summer vacation. Learners' attention could be drawn to formulaic sequences through extensive reading. Due to its vulnerability to loss, productive mastery of formulaic sequences is likely to be

enhanced by asking students to become part of a peer group, which can result in increased language input. It is hoped that the findings of this study inspire future research in instruction of L2 formulaic sequences and help material writers with item presentation and selection in course materials. Therefore, teachers and curriculum designers should increase the saliency of target formulaic sequences by making them appear in different forms such as bold, underlined and italics. This involves having formulaic sequences with high-frequency component items as well as with low-frequency component items. Such a design feature in course materials is likely to influence the rate of comprehension and retention of formulaic sequences.

It is important to note that the current study measured attrition over a short retention interval (three months) and that future research should investigate the rate of attrition over longer retention intervals. Moreover, future investigations could be designed to measure learners' rate of attrition in a series of posttests in the hope of understanding more completely the phenomenon of attrition of the knowledge of formulaic sequences. In brief, the inevitable challenge for the FL teaching profession today is not only to understand how best students could adequately acquire the target language, but also how best they could retain it.

Bout the Author:

Thamer Alharthi is an Assistant Professor of English at King Abdulaziz University where he teaches Applied Linguistics modules at undergraduate level. His principal research interests include L2/FL vocabulary and its applications to research and teaching. He is also interested in the fields of L2/ FL language leaning strategies and learning styles.

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An Exploration of Freshman Students' Attitude towards English Literature

Raghad Dwaik

English Department, Hebron University, Palestine

Salah Shrouf

English Department, Hebron University, Palestine

Bassem Sahib

English Department, Hebron University, Palestine

Abstract

Attitude has been considered by most researchers as an important variable that influences success in a learning task. Hence, analysing students' attitude is an important step that should precede making any changes in the course plan or content. This gains more importance when dealing with college students who have already finished school and look up to college to provide them with more interesting and varied content that addresses their needs. This study explores the attitude of Freshman students who plan to specialize in English towards English literature in general, its value in language learning and the utility of different literary genres. Analysis of these students attitude is essential for making decisions with regard to the kind of preparation they should get prior to embarking on the study of literary courses in their sophomore year. A five Likert scale questionnaire was used to analyze the different aspects of the students' attitude. Results showed that students have a positive attitude towards literature in general and fiction in particular. They believe that literary texts enhance their reading and writing skills and that they are a great source of learning about the target culture. Their attitude, however, is less favorable towards poetry and drama and towards the role of literature in enhancing their listening or speaking skills. Overall, they thought that certain literary genres are enjoyable and beneficial for language learning, yet they are not a core component of the language learning process.

Keywords: attitude towards literature, college students' attitude, language and literature, *literature in the classroom*, Palestinian students' attitude

Introduction and Background

Language learners' attitude has been considered one of the important variables which influence second and foreign language acquisition. Ellis (1994) identifies language learners' attitude as one of the personal variables which could have a positive or negative influence on the process of language acquisition. Krashen (1982), further argues that negative attitude could contribute to raising the learners' affective filter, hence slowing down the language acquisition process.

Attitude, hence, is a multidimensional factor that has affective, cognitive and conative constructs (Ghazali, 2008). It incorporates humans' beliefs and feelings about an issue in addition to the way they deal with it (McGroarty, 1996). It has been argued that students who have positive attitudes invest more effort in language learning and implement several learning strategies such as providing information as well as asking and answering questions (Baker, 1993). Fortunately, attitudes are not static in nature, i.e, they could undergo change if sources of negative attitude are analyzed and amended (Ghazali, 2008).

Many studies in the literature of language pedagogy have looked at the correlation among attitude and a number of variables related to the learners' level of proficiency as well as other academic and social variables (Candlin & Mercer, 2001). Other studies investigated the effect that negative or positive attitude has on the language learning task at hand (Ghazali, 2008). Few studies, however, have investigated language learners' attitude towards English literature and literary materials especially when those materials and texts are used alongside regular communicative texts and tasks in the EFL classroom (Ghazali, 2008).

It has been further argued that since language is a form of "social practice" (Kramsch, 1993), it cannot be separated from culture learning. Thus, inclusion of literary texts becomes indispensable because they include various dimensions of culture representation, i.e, the aesthetic, the sociological, the semantic and the pragmatic. These dimensions are all important aspects of language comprehension and production according to the parameters of the communicative approach (Adaskon, Britten & Fahsi, 1989). Cultural awareness is a tool that enhances language proficiency and that is enhanced by it according to Kramsch (1993). Kramsch also believes that learning about culture does not mean adopting the target cultural norms, rather it leads to a deeper understanding of the native culture in relation to the target one as well as to better sociolinguistic competence in dealing with target culture speakers and contexts.

Despite the multiple arguments that are in favor of literature inclusion, the topic is still subject of huge controversy. The debate continues to have several dimensions such as the quantity of literature that may be included in the language curriculum, the most useful genres, the criteria for selection as well as when, where, and how the literary materials may be incorporated (Katib & Rezaei, 2011).

Obeidat (1997), for instance, made a flagrant accusation against the predominance of literature courses at English Departments in the Arab World. He claimed that such predominance is responsible for reducing the number of language courses, which has led to the students' lack of competence in language skills. His argument was supported by viewpoints from different scholars who advanced several justifications for excluding literary materials from the language classroom (Buckledee, 2002; McKay, 1982; Scholss, 1981; Zughoul, 1986). These justifications are of theoretical and practical nature. Some scholars argue that literature is too complex in terms of the concepts it tackles as well as the language it uses both in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Such language and concepts are beyond the analytical skills of the average student (McKay, 1982). Buckledee (2002), on the other hand, argues that difficulty of literary texts is due to the criteria used in their selection. In most cases, texts that have major

literary status are preferred over those that are within the reach of the students. Hence, a literary curriculum that focuses on text or content rather than on students' level or preference would be beyond the reach of students structurally and conceptually. Besides these theoretical concerns, scholars also focused on the lack of practical utility of literary texts for everyday life and future jobs (Scholss, 1981; Zughoul, 1986). However, practical utility of different literary genres will be discussed in the literature review section of this paper.

Statement of the Problem

English major students at Palestinian universities are required to take a number of language courses before they embark on their specialization. Teachers of these language courses usually try to develop the students' proficiency in the four language skills, i.e., reading, writing, speaking and listening. Rarely do these students, however, study specific literary courses or content prior to formally entering the English department. This problem is aggravated by the fact that Palestinian students study very few literary texts at schools because the Palestinian syllabus in its various stages contains a limited number of such texts, some of which are even abridged to suit the learners' proficiency level (Shrouf & Dwaik, 2013). School teachers, according to students' reports, often ignore teaching the literary texts available in the syllabus either due to time constraints or to the lack of proper training and qualification.

One may hence argue that students enter the English department with minimal preparation to handle the requirements of literary texts. What is even worse is that they may embark on such a challenging endeavor with a rather negative attitude towards literary materials in general.

Significance of the Study

Most previous research which explored the attitude factor in language learning or acquisition has focused on students' attitude towards the English language or culture. Very few studies tackle attitude towards and in the context of literature. Even studies which explore attitude towards literature, investigate the issue from the teachers' rather than the learners' perspective. The present study, however, explores the issue of attitude from the learners' perspective. Further, it investigates whether exposure to literary texts would improve the students' attitude towards some literary genres.

From a communicative perspective, literary materials are believed to enrich students' linguistic competence since they build their vocabulary repertoire and enhance the lexical range available to them (Mackay, 1982; Povey, 1972). They also expose learners to complex sentences, untraditional sentence structures, as well as stretches of coherent language beyond the sentence level, hence enhancing their discourse competence (Mackay, 2014).

Another important dimension attributed to literary materials is their aesthetic value and features which make them a perfect tool to tap the students' artistic inclinations, thus, leading to the maturation of their integrative motivation. Integrative motivation, which is often defined as the learners' positive orientation towards language learning that stems from genuine love of the language, its speakers and art representations, is considered by some to be essential if the learner intends to reach high levels of proficiency in L2.

Literature Review

Since the late 1980s, many researchers have argued in favor of the inclusion of literary materials in EFL classrooms. John (1986) for instance criticized language oriented courses for being unable to develop students' linguistic competence mainly because they focus on teaching rules

about the language rather than language use itself. In contrast, students exposed to literary materials will experience actual language use as it is presented in different literary genres, i.e., narratives, plays, poetry, etc.

Besides the aforementioned linguistic value, other researchers have focused on the general value of literature in education. They believe that literature enhances different dimensions of learning and helps in developing human character and insight in terms of morality, experience, universal knowledge and wisdom (Sage, 1987; Schloss, 1981).

Mckay (1982) further stresses the two dimensional role of literature which enhances both the students' knowledge of rules in addition to providing them with actual examples of these rules in use. Povey (1972) states that literature increases all language skills because it extends linguistic knowledge by giving evidence of extensive and subtle vocabulary usage, and "complex and exact syntax" (187).

Exposure to literary texts, according to Mckay (1982), does not only train learners in what should be said in certain contexts, which is the main concern of language courses, but it also exposes them to how things are said to reflect the personality and individuality of the character or speaker. Hence, literary exposure emphasizes the idea of "voice", an essential element is literary representation of characters.

Rosenblatt (1978) believes that focus should not be on the difference between literary and regular texts, but rather on the levels and dimensions of interpretation that literary texts allow the reader to get engaged in, thus better enhancing their reading comprehension skills and strategies. Rosenblatt (1978) distinguishes aesthetic reading as being different from efferent and regular reading for information because reading aesthetically underscores the change that the readers may undergo as they engage in the text rather than just deriving bits and pieces of information from it. Such engagement requires special attention to text selection so that it may be interesting to the students and related to their personal experiences, thus leading to various interpretations that could be brought back to the text itself adding new dimensions to its meaning.

Many researchers exploring the role of literature in language learning have focused on the specific value of different literary genres. On the negative side, Simpson (1997), for example, argues that dialogues in Drama or plays do not reflect the nature of every day communication or interaction. Mckay (2001), in contrast, asserts that dramatic dialogues are perfect tools for developing students' sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence, essential dimensions of the students' emerging communicative competence. As argued earlier by Rosenblatt, dramatic dialogues provide a richer context for interpretation than normal dialogue since these dialogue can be normally read on two levels: that of the direct interaction among characters in the play as well as the indirect continuous dialogue that takes place between the writer and the readership.

Although some researchers argue that poetry does not provide a standard model for language use, others argue that the unrestricted mode of expression in poetry emancipates the students from the tough linguistic demands of grammar and vocabulary, thus enhancing their ability to imitate such texts in creative writing and to use their limited language resources to express complex ideas (Mckay, 2014; Malay & Duff, 1989; Widdowson, 1992).

Mackay (2014) underscores the value of fiction in relation to culture learning especially when making cross cultural comparisons. She provides the example of immigrant stories as a perfect tool to engage learners in deep and rich discussions of their culture in relation to that of the target language. Mackay also stresses the fact that such exposure does not alienate learners from their own culture because learning about target cultural norms does not mean adopting them.

Purpose of the Study

Taking into account the vast literature that explores the positive role that literature could play in the language classroom, the researchers, felt there was an urgent need to enrich the general language courses usually taught before entering the English Department with literary materials. Prior to taking this step, the researchers felt the need to explore the students' attitude towards literary texts and genres so as to make informed decisions. Results of the study would help illuminate several dimensions related to the possibility of incorporating literary materials at different stages in the college curriculum. Preparation for the study of these texts may be required to start from an early stage to ensure learners' readiness for the more advanced courses. The study will also throw more light on the students' attitude towards different genres, hence, incorporating students' interest as an important variable in text selection.

Research Questions

1. What is the general attitude of students towards English literature before embarking on the study of literary courses?
2. What is the attitude of students towards literary genres ?
3. What is the students' attitude towards the role of literature in language learning?
4. What is students' perception of the cultural and moral value of literature for language learners?

Methodology

Sample

Sample of the study consisted of 85 students enrolled in two sections of English 103 which is a specialization requirement at Hebron University English department. Fifty of these students were females and 36 were males.

Instrumentation

The researchers designed a Five Likert Scale questionnaire to probe both students' and general attitudes towards literary materials as well as their attitudes towards different literary genres, the role of literature in language learning and the cultural or moral value of literature. The number of questionnaire items under each of the previously mentioned dimensions ranged between 5-8 statements with the exception of the last category cultural/moral which included 11 items (see appendix one).

The different categories in the questionnaire were chosen taking into account the issues frequently discussed in the literature pertaining to attitude towards literature and its value. Choice was also based on the researchers' perspectives with regard to the intended purpose behind incorporating literary materials in the 103 course as gleaned from previous informal discussions with the course instructors.

Results and Discussion

Results of this study will be presented in terms of the information obtained from the questionnaire which was distributed to the students before the incorporation of literary materials in the language classroom. All results will be presented in the order of the research questions stated earlier.

Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Three judges were asked to review questionnaire items, the first specialized in language, the second in literature and the third in statistical analysis. Their comments included issues related to questionnaire content and format. The researchers incorporated most of their modifications in the final copy of the questionnaire.

To ensure reliability of the questionnaire, it was distributed to a small sample of students. On the basis of the feedback obtained, the researchers modified the phrasing of some items to enhance clarity.

Cronbach Alpha formula was also used to assess the reliability of the questionnaire, which turned out to be as high as .92. Furthermore, One way analysis of variance was used to investigate the influence of the independent variables, i.e, academic level, gender, and university GPA on the dependent variable of attitude.

Effect of Academic Level, Gender and GPA on Students' Attitude Towards Literature

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) showed that there was no statistically significant effect of academic level on students' attitude towards literature ($F=.98$, $p= .376$), See table one below. In other words there were no significant differences between second and third year students in terms of their general attitude towards literature. This could be explained by the fact that the third year students are a minority (9 out of 86) and they are mostly unspecialized, which means that neither those in the second nor the third year level have yet been exposed to the bulk of literature courses which are normally taken after the completion of specialization requirements including the current course, i.e., (English 103).

Table 1. Means and standard deviations of students according to Academic level or year of study.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Freshman	5	112.2000	25.23292
Sophomore	71	101.7606	21.66001
Junior	9	110.3333	28.44293
Total	85	103.2824	22.59088

T-test was used to measure differences between males and females in terms of attitude towards literature. Table Two below shows that there is a significant difference between female and male students in favor of females ($M= 108.5$ for females and 96.4 for males).

Table 2. Means and standard deviations of male versus female attitude towards literature

Intervention	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total 1.00	50	108.5400	19.80024
2.00	36	96.4722	24.44876

A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in attitude and it showed that there was a significant difference in favor of females ($t=2.5$, $\alpha = .01$), See table 3.

Table 3. T-test results for difference in attitude among males and females

		t-test for Equality of Means		
			df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Total	Equal variances assumed	2.526	84	.013
	Equal variances not assumed	2.44	65.438	.017

As for the correlation between the students' attitude towards literature and their GPA grades, Pearson correlation formula showed a very low insignificant correlation between these two variables ($R = .029$, $p = .82$), See table four below. It is worth mentioning that such GPA grades reflect students' performance in General university and college requirements that are not part of the English department plan and that have minimal literary content.

Table 4. Correlation between the students' attitude towards literature and their GPA

	Total	GPA
GPA Pearson Correlation	.029	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.820	
N	66	66

The following section presents the results of the students' responses to the different sections of the questionnaire. Results will be presented in the order of the research questions.

Question One

What is the general attitude of students towards literature prior to embarking on the study of literature courses?

Descriptive statistics of the questionnaire items were conducted to show the hierarchy among items within the section itself. As for the general attitude of students towards literature, which is the concern of the first research question, it was clearly reflected through the responses to items 1-8, which compose the first part of the students' questionnaire. The item which received the highest mean in this section is the fourth ($M = 3.31$), while the one that received the lowest agreement is the fifth ($M = 3.0$). This is rather surprising taking into account the content of these statements. The fourth statement investigates the students' interest in reading Arabic literature while the fifth statement investigates their interest in reading international literature in Arabic. This difference in means is probably an indicator that students have other types of inhibitions when it comes to literature other than the language barrier or complexity. Such inhibitions could

be related to the culture, values or other elements that are inherent in literary texts. Another factor that may have played a role in this result is that the Palestinian Arabic syllabus contains a substantial amount of literary texts. This may have contributed to enhancing students' familiarity with and their positive attitude towards such texts.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics of the students' general attitude towards literature

#	Statement	M	SD
	General attitude towards literature		
1	I enjoy reading Arabic literary texts. أستمتع عادة بقراءة النصوص الأدبية العربية.	3.31	1.425
2	I think English literature is interesting. أعتقد أن الأدب الإنجليزي ممتع.	3.25	1.129
3	I read unassigned English literary texts for pleasure. أقرأ نصوصاً أدبية إنجليزية غير مطلوبة أحياناً بهدف المتعة.	3.24	1.362
4	Literary works are a good source of information (historical, geographical, etc.). الأعمال الأدبية مصدر جيد للمعلومات العامة (جغرافية، تاريخية.. الخ)	3.19	1.225
5	I like to read English literature. أحب قراءة الأدب الإنجليزي.	3.15	1.142
6	English literature reflects a great civilization and culture. الأدب الإنجليزي يعكس ثقافة وحضارة عريقين.	3.13	1.303
7	Literature is the best embodiment of human experience. يشكل الأدب أفضل تجسيد للتجربة الإنسانية	3.06	1.155
8	I enjoy reading English and international literature in Arabic. أستمتع بقراءة الأدب الإنجليزي والعالمي باللغة العربية.	3.06	1.308

Question Two

What is the attitude of students towards the different literary genres?

Descriptive statistics showed that students had the least favorable attitude towards reading English poetry (M=2.6). In contrast, they showed a very positive attitude towards reading fiction in general, and novels in particular (M= 3.76). As for reading short stories in English the mean was also high (M=3.72). Favoring the narrative over poetry may be due to the complexity involved in the linguistic and aesthetic interpretation of poetry. This is due to the less common diction chosen by poets and to the deviation from traditional sentence word order that characterizes poetry in general. As for the narrative, relative length of texts helps in creating a certain level of redundancy that makes reading easier. Also, the variation in the representation of human nature in different personalities and characters may make the narrative text more relevant to the students' life experience.

One may argue that the reason behind favoring fiction might be inherent in the Arabic culture itself where the narrative form has traditionally gained a lot of popularity among different social groups.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics of the students' attitude towards literary genres

Attitude towards literary genres			
1	I would like to be able to read English novels. أتمنى أن يصبح بمقدوري قراءة الروايات باللغة الإنجليزية.	3.76	1.628
2	English short stories are interesting. القصص القصيرة باللغة الإنجليزية ممتعة	3.72	1.508
3	Drama dialogues may enhance my speaking skills لغة الحوار في المسرحيات يمكن ان تعزز قدراتي في المحادثة باللغة الانجليزية	3.41	1.490
4	Drama and plays are enjoyable to read in English. استمتع بقراءة المسرحيات باللغة الانجليزية	3.23	1.369
5	I enjoy reading English poetry.	2.59	1.331

Question Three**What is the students' attitude towards the role of literature in language learning?**

One may easily notice that the students' perception of the role of literature in language learning is highly favorable. The item which received the highest agreement ($M= 3.58$, $SD=1.72$) is the one which says that "literary texts are a great tool to learn the English language". Students also think that it is a great tool to learn English vocabulary ($M=3.52$, $SD=1.262$). They also think that literature is a great tool to improve the reading and writing skills ($M=3.54$, $SD=1.233$). These responses show that the students do not underestimate the value that literature has as a language learning tool despite the fact that they have not yet been exposed to any literary courses or materials. Their perceptions may be built on previous experience with literature in the first language or on the few literary texts they have been exposed to in the school curriculum. Despite this apparently positive view, the students did not think that literature is 'indispensable' or essential in the language curriculum. The point which says "I think literature is an indispensable component in language education" received lowest agreement ($M= 3.05$, $SD= 2.40$). This shows that despite their initial enthusiasm, students still think that literary materials could just be an accessory or additive to the curriculum rather than being a core component. This attitude could have been influenced by the way literary materials are presented in the school curriculum. In the English syllabus, literary materials are presented outside the main textbook in the form of readers or anthologies, which might give both students and teachers the impression that they are not essential components of the curriculum or that they have functions other than language development. Most previous literature confirms that literary texts develop linguistic competence, cultural awareness as well as integrative motivation. The students' response however contradicts such orientation. They see some value in literature for certain aspects of language and culture, yet they do not perceive it as an integral or indispensable aspect.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics of the students' attitude towards the role of literature in language learning

Attitude towards the role of literature in Language learning		
I think literary texts are a great tool to learn the English language. أعتقد أن النصوص الأدبية وسيلة ممتازة لتعلم اللغة.	3.58	1.172
Learning literature helps me improve my reading and writing skills. دراسة الأدب تساعدني على تحسين مهارتي القراءة والكتابة.	3.54	1.233
I can learn a lot of vocabulary from literary texts. أستطيع تعلم الكثير من المفردات من النصوص الأدبية.	3.52	1.262
Learning literature helps me improve my listening and speaking skills. دراسة الأدب تساعدني على تحسين مهارتي الاستماع والمحادثة.	3.50	1.195
One may learn a lot of good expressions from a literary text. يمكن أن يتعلم الشخص الكثير من التعبيرات الجيدة باللغة الانجليزية من النصوص الأدبية.	3.43	1.451
Literature develops my ability to think out of the box. يساعدني الأدب على تطوير قدرتي للتفكير خارج الصندوق (التفكير الإبداعي).	3.27	1.223
Literary texts contain good examples of English grammar in use. تحتوي النصوص الأدبية على أمثلة جيدة لقواعد اللغة الانجليزية المستخدمة.	3.20	1.247
I think literature is an indispensable component in language education. أعتقد أن الأدب مكون لا يمكن الاستغناء عنها في النظام التعليمي.	3.05	1.240

Question Four

What is the students' perception of the cultural and moral value of literature for language learners?

The students showed highest agreement with the statement which focuses on the role of literature in learning about culture: "Reading literary texts is a good tool to learn about the target culture" ($M=3.51$, $SD=1.290$). This positive attitude is congruent with the view of most educators that literature is a great tool to learn about the target culture, whether it is the capital C culture in terms of the great achievements of a certain civilization or the small c culture as represented by everyday practices (Kramsch, 1993, Mackay, 2001). The students showed lowest agreement, however, with the statement that says: "Reading literature makes me more skeptical" ($M=2.68$, $SD=1.391$). The low agreement with this statement is surprising especially that literary texts usually raise big questions pertaining to human existence and experience such as life vs death, and good vs evil as well as the meaning of human existence in the universe. The fact that all that does not raise doubt in the students' mind could be due to the way literary texts are selected or presented as a mere tool for language learning rather than a starting point for analysis and thinking.

Table 8. Descriptive statistics of the students' attitude towards the cultural and moral value of literature

Attitude towards the cultural and moral value of literature			
1	Reading literary texts is a good tool to learn about the target culture. قراءة النصوص الأدبية وسيلة جيدة لمعرفة الثقافة الأجنبية	3.51	1.290
2	Literature teaches us about the everyday practices in a foreign country.	3.39	1.181

	يطلعنا الأدب على أنماط الحياة اليومية في الدول الناطقة باللغة الإنجليزية		
3	Literature shows us the great achievements of a certain civilization. يطلعنا الأدب على الإنجازات العظيمة لحضارة معينة.	3.37	1.274
4	Literature teaches us about the values of a society. يعرفنا الأدب على القيم السائدة في مجتمع معين.	3.16	1.462
5	Reading literature leads me to a better understanding of good vs evil and right vs wrong. قراءة الأدب تقودني لفهم أفضل للخير والشر.	3.06	1.290
6	Reading literature makes me more independent in my thinking. قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر استقلالية في أفكاري.	3.05	1.331
7	Reading literature helps me approach life in a more mature way. قراءة الأدب تساعدني على التعامل مع الحياة بشكل أكثر نضجا.	3.00	1.371
8	Reading literature helps me become a better human. قراءة الأدب تجعل مني إنسانا أفضل.	2.98	1.442
9	Reading literature makes me feel more compassionate with fellow humans. قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر تعاطفا مع بني البشر.	2.97	1.301
10	Reading literature helps me understand people more. قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر تفهما للآخرين.	2.96	1.349
11	Reading literature makes me more skeptical. قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر شكاً.	2.68	1.391

Conclusion and Recommendations:

This study attempted to explore the freshman students' attitude towards literary materials hoping that results reached by the researchers may inform future decisions regarding the incorporation of additional literary texts in the courses preceding the core literary courses at the English Department.

Results of the study show that certain steps should be taken to build on the positive dimensions in the students' attitude. They also show that the negative aspects of the students' attitude should be carefully analyzed and perhaps altered through text selection. This is particularly significant because researchers agree that attitudes are changeable by nature and through exposure to the right input (Ghazali, 2008). Results, for instance, showed that students enjoy reading literary texts in their native language (Arabic) which means that their general orientation towards literature is not negative. As for literary genres, they seemed to favor fiction over poetry and drama. Finally, they thought that literature is a valuable source for both language and culture learning, yet they did not agree that such value is high enough to make the inclusion of literary texts of utmost necessity or indispensability.

Taking into account the previous results, the researchers make the following suggestions with regard to dimensions that should be considered in order to foster students' positive attitude towards literature. First, students should be helped to transfer their positive attitude towards L1 texts when dealing with L2 literary materials by stressing the universal nature of literary themes and connecting them to the students' own culture and experience. This could be achieved through the selection of translated texts for Arab writers especially texts that gained international recognition. This is particularly important since students showed positive attitude towards their

L1 literature, yet an exceptionally negative one towards texts translated from other languages into Arabic.

Students' attitude towards certain literary genres could also be targeted and developed. Poetry was negatively evaluated as a useful or enjoyable genre, yet this attitude could be changed through the selection of texts that are within the students' reach in terms of complexity and relevance to their own experiences. Moreover, students' attitude cannot be modified unless their EFL teachers undergo training that would help them see and appreciate the different dimensions of the value of literary texts and genres. From informal discussions with the teachers themselves, the researchers noticed that they perceive poetry as the literary genre most difficult to handle by students. This teacher perspective may be easily noticed by and transferred to students.

The researchers believe that students' attitude, though positive, could be developed to become more appreciative of the value of literature in developing specific language aspects. Students did not see the value of literature in developing the grammar of the target language although grammar books in their first language are loaded with examples from different literary genres to illustrate certain grammatical points. This point should be stressed since in the Arabic language, literary texts especially classical ones are considered to be the model of Arabic language standard use. In the case of English literature, there are many examples of idiomatic, proverbial and poetic quotes that are daily used by native speakers of English and that could be incorporated in the EFL curriculum to enhance the connection between language and literature or to promote literary samples as a model of language use. McKay stresses this point when she argues that literature develops both the students' knowledge of rules in addition to providing them with actual examples of these rules in use.

Furthermore, one may notice, that English textbooks used at Palestinian schools focus on the inductive teaching of grammar which reflects the philosophy of the communicative approach. However, none of the examples used in the exercises come from literary texts whether poetry or fiction despite the fact that such genres are loaded with examples of standard language use that reflect both sentence and discourse structure.

Taking into account all the previous recommendations, the researchers, who are also decision makers, have decided to offer a special literature course at the freshman level that would take into account results of this study. Choice of the materials in this course would take into account students' attitude, preferences, academic level and language proficiency, hence responding to their various needs and to the conclusions in previous literature that texts should not be beyond the analytical skills of individual students.

About the Author:

Dr. Raghad Dwaik: Chair of the English Department at Hebron University. PhD in TESOL. Published a number of articles in areas related to language acquisition and learning as well as the role of literature in the language classroom.

Dr. Salah Shrouf: Dean of the college of Arts at Hebron University. PhD in English and American literature. His research interests include literature, culture and the role of literature in the language classroom.

Mr. Bassem Saheb: Literature instructor at Hebron University English Department. MA in English Fiction. His research interests include Drama performance and evaluation.

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17.

Appendix A**Attitude towards English Literature****Students' Survey**

This survey is intended to explore students' attitude towards English literary materials and their role in language learning. Any opinions you supply in this survey will be kept confidential and used for the purpose of scientific research only.

Part One:

Academic Level: 1. Freshman 2. Sophomore 3. Junior 4. Senior

Gender: 1. Male 2. Female

University GPA: -----.

Circle the courses you have already taken and indicate the grade you obtained in each of them:

1. 101 Grade:-----, 2. 102 Grade:-----

What grade do you expect to get in this course (103)?

-----.

Part Two:

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements where 1 shows the least level of agreement and 5 shows the highest.

#	Statement	M	SD
<i>General attitude towards literature</i>			
1	<i>I like to read English literature.</i> أحب قراءة الأدب الإنجليزي.		
2	<i>I think English literature is interesting.</i> أعتقد أن الأدب الإنجليزي ممتع.		
3	<i>English literature reflects a great civilization and culture.</i> الأدب الإنجليزي يعكس ثقافة وحضارة عريقتين.		
4	<i>I enjoy reading Arabic literary texts.</i> أستمتع عادة بقراءة النصوص الأدبية العربية.		
5	<i>I enjoy reading English and international literature in Arabic.</i> أستمتع بقراءة الأدب الإنجليزي والعالمي باللغة العربية.		
6	<i>I read unassigned English literary texts for pleasure.</i> أقرأ نصوصاً أدبية إنجليزية غير مطلوبة أحياناً بهدف المتعة.		
7	<i>Literature is the best embodiment of human experience.</i> يشكل الأدب أفضل تجسيد للتجربة الإنسانية.		
8	<i>Literary works are a good source of information (historical, geographical, etc.).</i> الأعمال الأدبية مصدر جيد للمعلومات العامة (جغرافية، تاريخية، الخ).		
<i>Attitude towards literary genres</i>			
9	<i>I enjoy reading English poetry.</i> أستمتع بقراءة الشعر الإنجليزي.		
10	<i>English short stories are interesting.</i> القصص القصيرة باللغة الإنجليزية ممتعة.		
11	<i>I would like to be able to read English novels.</i>		

1	أتمنى أن يصبح بمقدوري قراءة الروايات باللغة الإنجليزية.		
1	Drama and plays are enjoyable to read in English.		
2	استمتع بقراءة المسرحيات باللغة الانجليزية		
1	Drama dialogues may enhance my speaking skills.		
3	لغة الحوار في المسرحيات يمكن أن تعزز قدراتي في المحادثة باللغة الانجليزية		
	Attitude towards the role of literature in Language learning		
1	I think literary texts are a great tool to learn the English language.		
4	أعتقد أن النصوص الأدبية وسيلة ممتازة لتعلم اللغة.		
1	I can learn a lot of vocabulary from literary texts.		
5	أستطيع تعلم الكثير من المفردات من النصوص الأدبية		
1	Literary texts contain good examples of English grammar in use.		
6	تحتوي النصوص الأدبية على أمثلة جيدة لقواعد اللغة الانجليزية المستخدمة		
1	One may learn a lot of good expressions from a literary text.		
7	يمكن أن يتعلم الشخص الكثير من التعبيرات الجيدة باللغة الانجليزية من النصوص الأدبية.		
1	Learning literature helps me improve my listening and speaking skills.		
8	دراسة الأدب تساعدني على تحسين مهارتي الاستماع والمحادثة.		
1	Learning literature helps me improve my reading and writing skills.		
9	دراسة الأدب تساعدني على تحسين مهارتي القراءة والكتابة		
2	Literature develops my ability to think out of the box.		
0	يساعدني الأدب على تطوير قدرتي للتفكير خارج الصندوق (التفكير الإبداعي)		
2	I think literature is an indispensable component in language education.		
1	أعتقد أن الأدب مكون لا يمكن الاستغناء عنها في النظام التعليمي.		
2	Reading literary texts is a good tool to learn about the target culture		
2			
	Attitude towards the cultural and moral value of literature		
2	Literature teaches us about the everyday practices in a foreign country.		
3	يطلعنا الأدب على أنماط الحياة اليومية في الدول الناطقة باللغة الإنجليزية		
2	Literature teaches us about the values of a society.		
4	يعرفنا الأدب على القيم السائدة في مجتمع معين.		
2	Literature shows us the great achievements of a certain civilization.		
5	يطلعنا الأدب على الإنجازات العظيمة لحضارة معينة.		
2	Reading literature helps me become a better human.		
6	قراءة الأدب تجعل مني انسانا أفضل		
2	Reading literature makes me feel more compassionate with fellow humans.		
7	قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر تعاطفا مع بني البشر		
2	Reading literature helps me understand people more.		
8	قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر تفهما للآخرين		
2	Reading literature leads me to a better understanding of good vs evil and right vs wrong.		
9	قراءة الأدب تفودني لفهم أفضل للخير والشر		
3	Reading literature helps me approach life in a more mature way.		

0	قراءة الأدب تساعدني على التعامل مع الحياة بشكل أكثر نضجا		
3	Reading literature makes me more independent in my thinking.		
1	قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر استقلالية في أفكاري		
3	Reading literature makes me more skeptical.		
2	قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر شكاً.		

Appendix B

Questionnaire Items in Descending Order According to Level of Agreement

#	Statement	M	SD
General attitude towards literature			
1	I would like to be able to read English novels. أتمنى أن يصبح بمقدوري قراءة الروايات باللغة الإنجليزية.	3.76	1.628
2	English short stories are interesting. القصص القصيرة باللغة الإنجليزية ممتعة	3.72	1.508
3	I think literary texts are a great tool to learn the English language. أعتقد أن النصوص الأدبية وسيلة ممتازة لتعلم اللغة.	3.58	1.172
4	Learning literature helps me improve my reading and writing skills. دراسة الأدب تساعدني على تحسين مهارتي القراءة والكتابة	3.54	1.233
5	I can learn a lot of vocabulary from literary texts. أستطيع تعلم الكثير من المفردات من النصوص الأدبية	3.52	1.262
6	Reading literary texts is a good tool to learn about the target culture. قراءة النصوص الأدبية وسيلة جيدة لمعرفة الثقافة الأجنبية	3.51	1.290
7	Learning literature helps me improve my listening and speaking skills. دراسة الأدب تساعدني على تحسين مهارتي الاستماع والمحادثة.	3.50	1.195
8	One may learn a lot of good expressions from a literary text. يمكن أن يتعلم الشخص الكثير من التعبيرات الجيدة باللغة الإنجليزية من النصوص الأدبية.	3.43	1.451
Attitude towards literary genres			
9	Drama dialogues may enhance my speaking skills. لغة الحوار في المسرحيات يمكن أن تعزز قدراتي في المحادثة باللغة الإنجليزية	3.41	1.490
10	Literature teaches us about the everyday practices in a foreign country. يطلعنا الأدب على أنماط الحياة اليومية في الدول الناطقة باللغة الإنجليزية	3.39	1.181
11	Literature shows us the great achievements of a certain civilization. يطلعنا الأدب على الإنجازات العظيمة لحضارة معينة.	3.37	1.274
12	I enjoy reading Arabic literary texts. أستمتع عادة بقراءة النصوص الأدبية العربية.	3.31	1.425
13	Literature develops my ability to think out of the box. يساعدني الأدب على تطوير قدرتي للتفكير خارج الصندوق (التفكير الإبداعي)	3.27	1.223
Attitude towards the role of literature in Language learning			
14	I think English literature is interesting. أعتقد أن الأدب الإنجليزي ممتع.	3.25	1.129
15	I read unassigned English literary texts for pleasure.	3.24	1.36

5	أقرأ نصوصاً أدبية إنجليزية غير مطلوبة أحياناً بهدف المتعة .		2
1	Drama and plays are enjoyable to read in English.	3.23	1.36
6	استمتع بقراءة المسرحيات باللغة الانجليزية		9
1	Literary texts contain good examples of English grammar in use.	3.20	1.24
7	تحتوي النصوص الأدبية على أمثلة جيدة لقواعد اللغة الانجليزية المستخدمة		7
1	Literary works are a good source of information (historical, geographical, etc.).	3.19	1.22
8	الأعمال الأدبية مصدر جيد للمعلومات العامة (جغرافية، تاريخية، إلخ)		5
1	Literature teaches us about the values of a society.	3.16	1.46
9	يعرفنا الأدب على القيم السائدة في مجتمع معين .		2
2	I like to read English literature.	3.15	1.14
0	أحب قراءة الأدب الإنجليزي .		2
2	English literature reflects a great civilization and culture.	3.13	1.30
1	الأدب الإنجليزي يعكس ثقافة وحضارة عريقتين .		3
2	Reading literature leads me to a better understanding of good vs evil and right vs wrong.	3.06	1.29
2	قراءة الأدب تقودني لفهم أفضل للخير والشر		0
	Attitude towards the cultural and moral value of literature		
2	Literature is the best embodiment of human experience.	3.06	1.15
3	يشكل الأدب أفضل تجسيد للتجربة الإنسانية		5
2	I enjoy reading English and international literature in Arabic.	3.06	1.30
4	أستمتع بقراءة الأدب الإنجليزي والعالمي باللغة العربية .		8
2	Reading literature makes me more independent in my thinking.	3.05	1.33
5	قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر استقلالية في أفكاري		1
2	I think literature is an indispensable component in language education.	3.05	1.24
6	أعتقد أن الأدب مكون لا يمكن الاستغناء عنها في النظام التعليمي .		0
2	Reading literature helps me approach life in a more mature way.	3.00	1.37
7	قراءة الأدب تساعدني على التعامل مع الحياة بشكل أكثر نضجاً		1
2	Reading literature helps me become a better human.	2.98	1.44
8	قراءة الأدب تجعل مني انساناً أفضل		2
2	Reading literature makes me feel more compassionate with fellow humans.	2.97	1.30
9	قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر تعاطفاً مع بني البشر		1
3	Reading literature helps me understand people more.	2.96	1.34
0	قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر تفهماً للآخرين		9
3	Reading literature makes me more skeptical.	2.68	1.39
1	قراءة الأدب تجعلني أكثر شكاً .		1
3	I enjoy reading English poetry.	2.59	1.33
2	أستمتع بقراءة الشعر الإنجليزي		1

The Challenges of World Wide Web in Teaching and Learning English Literature in Indonesia

Tatit Hariyanti

English Department

Faculty of Cultural Studies

Yogyakarta University of Technology

Indonesia

Abstract

This paper aims at identifying the challenges of World Wide Web to the process of teaching and learning English Literature for undergraduate students majoring in English Literature in Indonesia and promoting the solutions of how to cope it. While providing many advantages the World Wide Web serves some challenges in the process of teaching and learning English Literature, inviting serious thoughts of how deal with it and how to avoid the possibly existing negative impacts. The data were taken from her experience as a student of English Literature before the invention of World Wide Web and her experience as the lecturer after the invention. This study shows there are some challenges in the process of teaching and learning English Literature in the digitalization era concerning with such as, the provision of materials, the choice of theory, the practice of plagiarism and the maintenance of interpersonal relationship .

Key words: English Literature, identifying the challenges, teaching and learning process, undergraduate students, World Wide Web

Introduction

Digital era is characterized by the ability of individuals to transfer information freely, and to have instant access to information that would have been difficult or impossible to find previously. The Internet has emerged since 1969, but it was the invention of the World Wide Web in 1989 that made it a global network. It has triggered rapid global communications and networking to shape modern society. It exposes massive quantities of information around the world instantly. The amount of information is produced overwhelmingly and inevitably it exceeds the amount of information any one person can possibly pay attention to. It started only a few decades ago; the impacts, however, are tremendous, in almost the whole fields.

In the field of education significant changes have recently occurred. Much more students have brought with them their own digital devices that make them easy to get any information from the world through internet. Teachers and lecturers and educators themselves often make suggestion that they may look it up on the internet when their students ask questions. Consequently out- of- date classrooms begin to be left behind. Multimedia classrooms are preferable. This will be a challenge for any educational institution having limited budget. There is also a gradual reduction of interpersonal relation between lecturers and students and between one and another student. Face-to-face interaction in the class rooms is getting less and less and there is a growing tendency of interaction on line. The classical method of teaching in which teachers or lecturers are designed to be the center of attention and the only source of knowledge is transformed into student center learning in which students are encouraged to be active while lecturers act as the facilitators of learning. This is great progress, indeed; however there is a growing anxiety whether students will appreciate what they have. (Grush, 2010), for instance wonder whether students are willing or able to synthesize and apply what they can acquire on-line? And whether they have an appreciation for the process it took to get the information on to the web in the first place? In fact, the Web results in great shifts in educational attitude, too.

In line with this, the process of teaching and learning English Literature in this digital era will undoubtedly also be affected. Teaching and learning English Literature for undergraduate students in Indonesia is usually started first by introducing literary theory which covers the understanding of what literature is and some theories to understand literary works followed by the second activities which involve the application of the theory under the subjects such as Novel Analyses, Drama Analyses, Poetry Analyses, Literary Criticism and Comparative Literature. This paper takes emphasis more on the process of teaching and learning of the second part, especially Novel Analyses. The activities mostly done in the second part involve the four processes of reading, discussing, presenting, and writing, therefore its practical pedagogical value lies in its tendency to stimulate these activities and thereby improve the student's ability to perform them. There will be some challenges in the learning and teaching process due to the invention of World Wide Web. This paper aims at identifying the challenges and promoting the solutions.

Provision of Material

Before the invention of internet, particularly the invention of the World Wide Web, the provision of material was limited. Lecturers of English literature in Indonesia prepared the material from the existing ones provided in traditional libraries and some of which might belong to the lecturers themselves obtained when they were still students. For the institutions having

connection with foreign Universities, they might have much more material for they got much more possibility to have them bought for them or even there was possibility that they gained the material free of charge. The availability of copy machines and the loosen rule of government in regulating the copy right was of great help for students to get the material. Still there were limited sources. There was not much variation. They used to copy the material borrowed from the lecturers. Students would then tend to have the material in accordance to the order of the lecturers. Indeed, in the past students were mostly obliged to read and analyze the given works chosen by lecturers, depending of course on the orientation of the department. Usually there were at most three literary works in each subject in a semester for the whole students. The old-fashioned lecturers would tend to ask students to read and analyze the works to which the lecturer are familiar.

The idea of limiting themselves to the so called great literature is another factor that results in the limitation of material. Up to the present time the majority of English Department in Indonesia has been the adherent of the canonical works. They limited themselves to the canonical works denying the existence of popular literature. Popular literature was underestimated and believed not to be appropriate as the source of learning in their departments. As a result most students of English literature in Indonesia have no much experience in reading and analyzing popular literary works. We could not blame them. (Wellek & Warren, 1956, p. 21) stated that the study of isolated "great books" may be highly commendable for pedagogical purposes; and that we all must approve the idea that students — and even beginning students — should read great or at least good books rather than compilations or historical curiosities. However, they also doubt that the principle is worth preserving in its purity for the sciences, history, or any other accumulative and progressing subject. Further they mentioned that within the history of imaginative literature, limitation to the great books makes incomprehensible the continuity of literary tradition, the development of literary genres, and indeed the very nature of the literary process, besides obscuring the background of social, linguistic, ideological, and other conditioning circumstances.

The classification of being Department of English (British) Literature and American Literature also exerts limitation on the provision of material. For those having English orientation have a tendency to provide merely those of English literature. So do those having American orientation. They would provide more of American literature. Indonesian used to be more familiar with English Studies than American studies. It was not until 1970s that American Studies as a discipline came out in Indonesia. The first to found the Program of American Studies is The University of Indonesia — one of the biggest and oldest Universities in Indonesia. The establishment of American Studies Program was initiated by the foundation of the American Studies Center which was designated as a "networking agent as well as a strong information and research center to foster a good cultural understanding" between Indonesia and the United States. (<http://americanstudiescenter.org/home/history/>) Up to the present time there has been limited number of programs of American studies in Indonesia. In regard to the provision of material this was discouraging and put lecturers and students under the restricted box of discipline.

The World Wide Web breaks the limitation. It provides access to abundant online materials compromising classical and contemporary works from various genres form both

English and American literature. This is a blessing gift since it provides much more various materials which might be utilized in accordance with the purpose of the teaching and learning; and it may take less budget for buying the materials. However, it challenges the lecturers and students to read and think out of box. Otherwise they should be ready to be left behind by others. In the digital era, they need to change their mindset.

In line with this, the lecturers need to be smart in designing the purpose of the learning process, and selecting reliable content and resources to match their needs and of course even if students are freed to choose their own material it is advisable to encourage them to focus especially to the works designed to accomplish the target. Due to the development of literary theory, it is advisable to encourage students to be familiar with both canonical and popular ones. For those working for the Department with no specific orientation, it is possible for them to encourage students to be familiar with both English and American literary works from the classical and modern and popular ones ; however, of course it is advisable for the lecturer to determine the number and the works that should be read and analyzed. Furthermore in order not to waste too much existing abundant material, and not to discourage enthusiastic students it is also possible for the lecturer to split students into small groups consisting of 4-5 students having their own chosen works. But of course it should be still under the supervision of the lecturer.

Accompanying the easiest way to get access to the outline materials is the booming of Indonesian version of foreign literary works. Nowadays it is easy to get the Indonesian version of canonical and popular literary works. It is a real temptation for some students. They may prefer reading the translated works to the original ones, reasoning that it would reduce their time and make them easier to understand the story. They may claim that it is done solely to understand the story. The discussion and presentation would be done in English; and their written analyses would be in English, too. To solve the problem the lecturer needs to be strict and encourage them to read the original text , assuring them that it would be more beneficial for them to see the original and real expression in English , and would be more helpful in their presentation and writing their analyses. For example, The lecturer should remind the students that in presenting and writing their supporting data for their argument, they sometimes need to have direct quotations from the works. If they only read the Indonesian version , they will need to translate the Indonesian version into English which will absolutely be different from the original text. Above all it is a must for the lecturers to remind the students that they major in English Department that oblige them to learn literature in English not English in translation.

Choice of Suitable Theories

The second challenge has something to do with the choice of suitable theories to analyze and interpret the given works. It is not easy to choose the suitable theory due to the position of literary theories in literary studies and the complexity of literary theory itself. The challenge of the Web lies more in the fact that it exposes the whole information concerning with theories and its problem. Literary theory has been attracting the attention of the students, lecturers, and scholars in Universities and utilizing it to analyze literary works, still there are some who are questioning the necessity of literary theory in interpreting the works, and even opposed to literary theory believing it as the destruction of literary works. (Lye, 2001) , for instance wrote that for many literary theory attacks the fundamental value of literature and of literary study :

Ultimately Theory can be seen to attack the very ground of value and meaning itself, to attack those transcendent human values on which humane learning is based, and to attack the ... centre of humanism, the existence of the independent, moral, integrated individual who is capable of control over her meanings, intentions and acts...

And as attention moves to literature as the cultural expression of lived life, and to the textuality of all experience, the dividing line between 'literature' and more popular entertainment is being challenged; such things as detective fiction and romances are being treated to as serious and detailed a study as are canonical works (p. 4-5)

Due to their ignorance, some students may ask whether they need to adopt certain theory in analyzing the given works. In this case, the lecturers need to convince the students that literary theory is absolutely needed to analyze any literary works. It serves a tool to understand the works. Which tool is needed depends on what they are going to see. An activity may seem not to use theory, however it is actually a theory-based one. For example reading activity. Reading the given works is the first step that students require to do before doing analyses. Reading works of literature will involve three activities proposed by (DiYanni, 1990) as Experiencing, Interpreting and Evaluating which inevitably need certain theories in the process. In Experiencing the readers are usually asked to draw on personal experiences and to relate them to the characters, action, and theme of the literary work. In Interpreting the readers are required to do close reading and analyses, asking them to identify and examine specific features of the text, to compare and contrast, and to explore rhetorical features. In Evaluating the readers are required to make questions which are grounded in values covering the values of characters, of the author, of the reader, and of the time and place of the work. There is an assumption that experiencing is the easiest process that does not need any theories at all. While interpreting and evaluating are more difficult and need to apply certain theories to have the good result. That is, of course, a wrong perception because even experiencing involves reading activities in which the reader is actually not passive, accepting anything written in the text. There will be a kind of inner dialogue in the reader's mind and between the reader and the text, involving at least the reader's past experience and perception of literature which may refer to the application of theories belong to reader response criticism. The simplest activity such as identifying the main character or the setting undoubtedly requires a theory telling us that there are basic elements in literary works; that characters and setting for instance belong to the basic elements of Novel and Drama. The idea to find out the author of the work means that we are consciously or unconsciously applying a theory telling us that the work does not stand by itself; that there is a person behind the works who may have certain reasons in creating such works. Indeed as (Lye, 2001, p1) stated that "there have always been literary theories — about how literature works, what meaning is, what it is to be an author and so forth."

It is not easy to choose the suitable theory due to the complexity of literary theory. It develops in such a way that impresses the un-linear, backward and forward development. It experiences accommodation and resistance ranging from one designing literature as a text of its own stand out from social context to literature as socio-cultural and political phenomena. Literary theory refers to any principles derived from internal analyses of literary texts or from knowledge external to the text that can be applied in multiple interpretive situations (<http://www.iep.utm.edu/literary/>) to what (Wellek & Warren, 1956) mentioned as intrinsic and extrinsic elements, and to what (Abrams, 1969) asserted as four orientations of work analyses

covering the connection between the work and the universe, the connection between the work and the audience, the connection between the work and the artist, and the last orientation promotes the work itself. Each orientation has its own theories and it is possible to combine one orientation to others. As a result there will be abundant and complicated theories which are sometimes overlapping and confusing.

Literary theory has a close relationship with the nature of literature. It “is the systematic account of the nature of literature and of the methods for analysing it (Culler, 1977, p.1).” (Webster, 1990) shares the idea when he writes:

Literary theory should do two things. It ought to provide us with a range of criteria for identifying literature in the first place and an awareness of these criteria should inform our critical practice.... It should also make us aware of the method and procedures which we employ in the practice of literary criticism, so that we not only interrogate the text but also the way in which we read and interpret the text... literary theory is primarily concerned with what “literature” and the “literary” are... (p. 8-9).

The problem is the fact that there is no single perfect concept of the nature of literature. (Wellek & Warren, 1956) mentions three concepts of literature, the last of which is considered to be the best. First, literature is defined “as everything in print,” whose adherents believe that “literary study has thus become not merely closely related to the history of civilization but indeed identical with it. Such study is literary only in the sense that it is occupied with printed or written matter, necessarily the primary source of most history.” They, however, put forward that “the identification of literature with the history of civilization is a denial of the specific field and the specific methods of literary studies (p. 20).”

Second, literature is limited to “great books,” which, whatever their subject, are “notable for literary form or expression.... the criterion is either aesthetic worth alone or aesthetic worth in combination with general intellectual distinction.” This definition is also doubtful. They argue that “limitation to the great books makes incomprehensible of the continuity of literary tradition, the development of literary genre...nature of literary process, besides obscuring the background of social, linguistics, ideology and other conditioning circumstances (p. 21).

Third, the term “literature” seems best if it is limited to the art of literature, that is, to imaginative literature with language as the main material. They acknowledge certain difficulties in employing such term and recommend the simplest way to solve it by distinguishing the particular use made of language in literature. They further write that “the nature of literature emerges most clearly under the referential aspects ... that “the centre of literary art is obviously to be found in the traditional genres of the lyric, the epic, the drama,” the reference of which is “to a world of fiction, of imagination.” They also remind the reader that ‘Imaginative’ literature need not use images. In fact they conclude that “a literary work of art is not a simple object but rather a highly complex organization of a stratified character with multiple meanings and relationships (p. 27).”

Two decades later (Culler, 1977) exposed the complicated nature of literature. He writes:

...‘literature’ is not just a frame in which we put language: not every sentence will make it as literature if set down on a page as a poem. But, on the other hand, literature is not just a special kind of language, for many literary works don’t flaunt their difference from other sorts of language; they function in special ways because of the special attention they receive.

We have a complicated structure here. We are dealing with two different perspectives that overlap, intersect, but don’t seem to yield a synthesis. We can think of literary works as language with particular properties or features, and we can think of literature as the product of conventions and a certain kind of attention. Neither perspective successfully incorporates the other, and one must shift back and forth between them (p. 28).

Literary theory cannot be separated from the functions of literature. Literary theory is needed as long as literature continues to exist and to have importance for societies and for individuals in those societies. The function of literature develops dynamically. It does not go straight but move upwards and backwards depending on the era and the interests of the creators, the users and often those in power. The functions of literature vary and develop under the influence of the condition outside of the world of literature. Economy, religion, science and politics and culture have great influence on the development of the function of literature. The existence and development of literary theories, therefore will also be influenced by them. It is possible, for instance, to find that certain theories may be regarded to be out-of-date or even cease to be applied because of the shift of function of literature in a given society or in a given era. (Miller, 2006) however, asserts that even if literature becomes less a central social force, literary theory is still needed more for antiquarian purposes, that is, to help understand literature of past centuries. This may serve as one of the reasons why we could still find books containing “out-of-date” theories sold and now easily provided in the Web.

Literary theories have also close relationship with the history of literature. The history of English and American literature, for instance are categorized in periods or eras. Different historical periods have emphasized various characteristics of literature. For example early works often had implicit and explicit religious and didactic purposes; for that reason when we trace the history of literary theories we’ll find out that at the earlier phase there emerges moral criticism which sees literature is a traditional mode of imparting morality, philosophy, and religion (<http://www.westga.edu>). It was usually alluded to such experts as Plato who believed that if art does not teach morality and ethics, it will exert destructive impact on its audience (<https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/722/02/>), Horace who said literature should be delighted and instructive under the concept of *dulce and utile* (Wellek & Warren, 1956), and Matthew Arnold who sees literature especially poetry as a good way to teach morality and probe philosophical ideas. (Arnold, 1909) urged that

We should conceive of poetry worthily, and more highly than it has been the custom to conceive of it. We should conceive of it as capable of higher uses, and called to higher destinies, than those which in general men have assigned to it we have to turn to poetry to interpret life for us, to console us, to sustain us. Without poetry, our science will appear incomplete; and most of what now passes with us for religion and philosophy will be replaced by poetry.... the best poetry will be found to have a power of forming, sustaining, and delighting us, as nothing else (p.2)

Modern works give more emphasis on the complexity of life and psychological insight that require different approaches and theories to understand.

The awareness of the complex position of literary theories in literary studies and the existence of close relation between literary theories and the nature, function and history of literature is needed especially in the digital era. The challenge of the Web may lie in the fact that it exposes the “out-of-date,” modern and post modern literary theories including their tendency to find fault on others’ and their claim to be better and more perfect than others. On one side that is a blessing gift for students and lecturers as well, but on the other side it may make them confused and need to work harder. Lecturers need to think progressively and be ready to familiarize themselves to the emergence of new theories and perspectives; otherwise they should be ready to be left behind by their students which of course is undesirable to do. Even if given lecturers are the adherents to given perspectives, it would also be inconsiderate to ask students to be her/his followers. They need to open their mind of the possibility of having students with different perspectives. This is urgently advisable to do due to the fact that there is a shifting paradigm which poses students as the center of learning. Ignoring the fact would trigger the protest of especially critical students believing it would reduce the optimal result and at worst they would deem it as discouragement of their progress of learning.

As the center of learning students are relatively given much more chance to explore by themselves and they are required to be active. It is not easy. Indeed, those taken any subjects which require the application of theory had already taken literary theories before. However they might not fully master the theories given in class and now they are encouraged and tempted to explore the Web by themselves. The study of literary theory is challenging, especially for the undergraduate students in Indonesia. The fact shows that even though they have been learning English since they were at primary school, some found it difficult to understand the original text. It took time for them to understand because sometimes literary theorists have a tendency to use highly specialized language in their writings. Fortunately the Web provides not only the original text of the theorist, but also the reviews of the text which are sometimes deemed to be easier to understand. At best it helps them improve their understanding and helpful in accomplishing their assignments; at worst it makes them frustrated. They may find it discouraging and feel confused what to do first: mastering the chosen theory or reading the text. In this case the lecturer needs to encourage student to be selective and it is advisable to help student specifying and selecting the theories that are suitable for the given literary works. They need to remind the students that it is not necessary for them to master the whole theories.

Practice of Plagiarism

The third challenge is the high probability of committing plagiarism, which is commonly defined as using of another's intellectual work without acknowledgment. After reading the text students are encouraged to analyze and interpret the given works by applying appropriate theories; and at the end of course students are required to present their analyses and submit their written essay. The challenge is whether students will accomplish their assignment honestly. This is due to the fact that the invention of the Web opens the access to abundantly various analyses of works of literature from all over of the world ranging from those done by the beginners to the experts. There is even a saying that there is nothing new under the sun. Indeed the Web is only

one of the reasons. There are lots of reasons why students commit plagiarism but the Web has made plagiarism in written assignment easier for student (James, McInnis & Devlin, 2002).

There are unintentional and intentional reasons of committing plagiarism. (James, McInnis & Devlin, 2002) wrote that students unintentionally plagiarize due to three reasons:

Their limited or incorrect understanding of what, exactly, plagiarism encompasses, their incorrect understanding of citation and referencing conventions; and their limited skill base in: summarizing, paraphrasing, critical analysis, argumentation, managing contributions to group work, time management and workload and stress management (p.3)

(Noah & Eckstein, 2001) identified five factors that influence intentional plagiarism in higher education consisting of pressures on the individual to succeed and the penalties for failure, the expected reward to be gained, the opportunities to be dishonest, the probability of getting away with it, and the social norms governing such behavior.

Having teaching English Literature for ten years the writer observed that there were some students adopting others' analyses without acknowledging their contribution. Some students committed plagiarism unintentionally due to their carelessness and not understanding of how to quote or give credit to the owner or the original resources properly. They were not fully aware that acknowledgment for all information obtained from sources outside the classroom must be clearly stated in all written work; that all ideas, arguments, and direct phrasings taken from someone else's work must be identified and if necessary properly footnoted, depending on what style of citation they took; and that quotations from other sources must be clearly marked as distinct from their own work. The Web itself sometimes does not provide the source properly. The most common misunderstanding is the perception that it is a must for them to show the author, the year and the page for direct quotations and put them in quotation mark because they take them exactly the same as the original text; however it is not necessary for them to do the same when they summarize or paraphrase because the whole taken part is rewritten in their own words and sentences structure. They are not aware that in summarizing or paraphrasing it is crucial not only to use their own form of expression but also to represent the author's meaning without distorting it. Acknowledgment is still a must. Therefore, it is necessary for the lecturer to teach them of how to make correct quotations and remind them to be careful in for instance citing other's opinions.

There is another wrong perception among the students. Some perceived it okay to take another's idea without acknowledging it so long as it is not published for public. It is presented only amongst the classmate in the class. Even if it is written it will be kept in the lecturer's room. In this respect, the lecturers should remind the students that even if their writing is not published, the idea of cheating is wrong; that plagiarism is a wrong conduct whether it is known publicly or not.

Some students committed plagiarism deliberately. There are two types of intentional plagiarism. The worst practice is that they submitted another's work completely and precisely and acknowledged it as theirs. Another form of intentional plagiarism is changing and or adding especially the beginning and the end part of another's work. It is usually done by the lazy and bad

students and submitted at the last minutes of the due time. They thought that there was no time for lecturers to check the Web. This is, therefore the challenge for lecturers to correct the wrong perception and build the awareness of being honest. They need to make their students aware that nowadays there are many free online plagiarism services that help lecturers identify plagiarized papers quickly if they suspect plagiarism has occurred. Furthermore ; even if the lecturers do not have enough time to browse the Web, they have been familiar with the style of student's writing. It would be easy for them to find out whether their students commit plagiarism or not, as it is written by Hexham (2005, p. 13) when he writes that "the most common indication of plagiarism is when someone writes something that contains clearly different styles, such as a student essay with grammatically incorrect opening and closing paragraphs enclosing a body of text containing near perfect prose."

Plagiarism is a crime and it has been nationally great concern. The law of academic plagiarism has been enacted. The implementation, however, is still far from being perfect. Some institutions take strict measure for those who commit plagiarism for their graduation papers, but take less attention to the term papers. In this respect the lecturers needs to do something. One of the ways to avoid or at least eliminate the intention of student committing plagiarism in their essay or paper writing is that the lecturers need to emphasize more to the process than the result. The lecturers need to inform that they value the process leading up to the writing of their individual assignments; not just the product. If students are caught up of practicing plagiarism intentionally or unintentionally during the process, the lecturers, still have chance to remind them. However, if in the due time the students submit their individual assignments which are proved to be the product of intentional plagiarism , the lecturers should take hard measures for them. They would not pass the exam.

Maintaining Interpersonal Relationships

Some studies on the impact of internet on interpersonal relationships of college students show that internet influenced interpersonal relationships in good as well as bad ways. Interpersonal relationships are the foundation for learning. Interpersonal relationships have a direct influence on a student's academic performance (Martin& Dowson , 2009). The Web has certainly contributed to strengthening of inter- personal connections. However, it was the new dimension of relations. (Friedman, 2005) argued that technology has expanded the scope of relationships but has also created this faction of individuals who may be incompetent and unsuccessful in creating real relationships. Lesser face-to-face communication has led to an exhibition of poor social skills in certain individuals which may deter the development of meaningful and long-lasting real-world relationships.

When students tend to spend more on on-line instead of face to face interaction, it will reduce the quality and the quantity of interpersonal relationships. The ease to get access to the Web individually will temp students to be more individualistic. Indeed , the Web also provides more the communication tools as the alternative such as email, face book, twitter, SKYPE and WA. However, the study on students taking English Literature shows that while the alternative communicative tools help students increasing the number of friends and providing media to discuss anything happen in their personal life and express their idea, they tend to make use of such device to express their private feeling and thought even a medium for business and but they rarely use it to increase the quality of their study.

To maintain interpersonal relationships among the students, the course needs to be designed to encourage students to work individually and in groups. Working in groups encourages students to think and work critically. Team works will train students how to maintain interpersonal relationships. In a group there will be a person appointed as a leader and others as subordinates. Referring to (Toropov, 1993) there will be three types of interpersonal relationships at work: dealing with the subordinate, dealing with peer work, and dealing with superior. Their teamwork will run well if they understand their own positions and are able to manage their interrelationships. There will be individual reading, discussions, arguments and the sharing of ideas in groups. Those activities need such qualities as commitment, trust, responsibility, cooperation, sharing, leadership and transparency among group members.

As an example the leader is responsible for the management of the groups as to how to read the material. He/she could determine who will read certain part of the material or what should be read by each member. His other responsibility is how to run the good discussion so that it gives rise to the best result for the group. His leadership is challenged. Agreement and disagreement which usually color the discussion will lead to willingness to hear and accept different perceptions , to accept constructive criticism, and to acknowledge one's weakness. This, in fact, requires the cooperation from the whole members.

The members should be responsible for theirs, trustworthy, and be able to share his/her part to the other. Each has to have high commitment to support the success of the group. Those who are serious and diligent may get much more information than those who are reluctant; however, they have to trust each other. It is possible that one member finds it difficult get much information from the other not because of his peer's reluctance or laziness but because of his inability to share. The sharing of information and access to each other's part undoubtedly will led to increased trust and transparency among group members. Thus working in groups would train students lots of soft skills which help them much in developing and maintaining interpersonal relationships.

Model of the Course

As a model, the English Department at Yogyakarta University of Technology, Indonesia designates the course of Novel Analyses to be given in 2 semesters for students of the fifth and sixth semester under the title of Classical Novel Analyses and Contemporary Novel Analyses which refer particularly to British or American novels written before and after the 20th century. This subject is designed to intensive practice in analyzing given novels by focusing on the intrinsic elements and applying objective theories at the first half of semester and exploring the extrinsic elements by applying mimetic, expressive or pragmatic theories at the second half of semester. Students will be exposed to lots of novels consisting of canonical and popular ones. Students are encouraged to train their interpersonal relationship work by themselves individually and in groups. In a given time there will be small group discussion and presentation and class discussion. Students are divided into some small groups each of which consists at most 5 students. Each group is obliged to analyze one canon British novel and one canon American novel in the first semester. In order to familiarize students with popular literature, in the second semester each group is obliged to analyze one British or American canon novel and one British or American popular novel such as best seller and thriller. Thus each student will be required

and be responsible to read four novels seriously in a year by themselves in order to be able to participate actively especially in the discussion and the presentation of his/her own group. At the same time he/she will be expected to learn more novels from other group to be able to participate in the class discussion and the presentation of other groups.

There will be 14 meetings for each semester which is divided into two halves. In the first meeting of the first half of the semester students are required to determine the members of the group and appoint one as the leader, to decide the first chosen novel of the group, and to review the objective theories. In the second half of the semester students are allowed to keep the member of the group, choose the second novel, and reviewing mimetic, expressive, and pragmatic theories.

The next three meetings in the first half are designed to have group discussion for each group. They are expected to determine the most interesting topic to present before the class and they are required to submit the report progress by the end of each meeting. The next three meetings in the second half they do the same but at the same time they need to think of their own topic for their individual essay. The last three meetings in each half are allocated to hold group presentations. By the end of the first half of each semester, each group is required to submit their group analysis; and by the end of semester students are required to submit their individual analyses in the form of essay.

Conclusion

As a conclusion the World Wide Web provides some challenges in the process of teaching and learning English Literature for undergraduate students majoring in English Literature in Indonesia. It challenges lecturers and students amongst others in the provision of material, the choice of theory, the practice of plagiarism, and the maintenance of interpersonal relationships. The Web provides lots of materials which might be utilized in accordance with the purpose of the teaching and learning English literature, challenging both lecturers and students to be selective and read and think out of box.

It is not easy to choose the suitable theory due to the position of literary theories in literary studies and the complexity of literary theory itself. The challenge of the Web lies more in the fact that it exposes the whole information concerning with theories and its problem. It exposes the "out-of-date," modern and post modern literary theories including their tendency to find fault on others' and their claim to be better and more perfect than others. On one side that is a blessing gift for students and lecturers as well, but on the other side it may make them confused and need to work harder. In this case the lecturer needs to encourage student to be selective and it is advisable to help student specifying and selecting the theories that are suitable for the given literary works. They need to remind the students that it is not necessary for them to master the whole theories.

The third challenge is the high probability of committing plagiarism. This is due to the fact that the invention of the Web opens the access to abundantly various analyses of works of literature from all over of the world ranging from those done by the beginners to the experts. One of the ways to avoid or at least eliminate the intention of student committing plagiarism in their essay or paper writing is that the lecturers need to emphasize more to the process than the result.

The lecturers need to inform that they value the process leading up to the writing of their individual assignments; not just the product.

While the alternative communicative tools help students increasing the number of friends and providing media to discuss anything happen in their personal life and express their idea, they tend to make use of such device to express their private feeling and thought even a medium for business and but they rarely use it to increase the quality of their study. To maintain interpersonal relationships among the students, the course needs to be designed to encourage students to work individually and in groups.

Note:

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About the Author:

Dr. Tatit Hariyanti works at English Department, Faculty of Cultural Studies, Yogyakarta University of Technology. Her main interests include literature and culture and she has been teaching on English Literature and Cross Cultural Understanding since 2002 .

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Cultural Approximation, Alienation and the Role of English as a Second Language in Canadian Society

Haja Mohideen Mohamed Ali

Department of English Language and Literature
International Islamic University Malaysia

Tasdiq Nomaira Alam

Department of English Language and Literature
International Islamic University Malaysia

Abstract

This study examined acculturation and adaptation of the immigrants in their new intercultural setting in Toronto, Canada, as well as the role of English language in their lives. The research made use of triangulation of methods as three types of instruments were used to collect the data: structured questionnaire, open-ended questionnaire and interview. Data were collected based on the immigrants' perceptions on numerous variables for instance, acculturation attitudes, cultural identity, perceived discrimination, sociocultural adaptation, importance of English language, language proficiency and language difficulties, scope and facilities in Canada, immigrants' point of view towards the society, their attempts to integrate with natives and so on. Sixty four immigrants from different countries participated in the study. It was discovered from the research findings that Canadian immigrants initially feel alienated and face numerous difficulties to adjust their lives in a new and unfamiliar surrounding, but as soon as they acculturate with the existing environment, they feel contented and find themselves a part of the society though many impositions due to social norms, lack of English language proficiency, discrimination and stigma being an immigrant often result in hindrance. The study also exposed the importance of English language in the immigrants' lives. Results show that the immigrants who are well educated and fluent in English are more involved and accepted in the Canadian society.

Key words: Acculturation, migration, social cohesion, target language acquisition.

1.Introduction

Many countries in the industrially developed world have much attraction for those from countries suffering from political instability, persecution, famine, poverty and seemingly endless wars. So, they migrate in search of a better life where they may feel secure from the grave problems plaguing their nations. They risk their life to cross the perilous seas to reach the shores of Europe and Australia, for example. Migration, according to Bhugra (2004) “is a process of social change where an individual, alone or accompanied by others, because of one or more reasons leaves one geographical area for prolonged stay or permanent settlement in another geographical area” (Bhugra, 2004, p. 129). The successful migrants do not have a bed of roses laid out for them. Some may fairly quickly acculturate if they are able to speak the language of the host country, have similar religious identity, share common social values, etc. Migrants may experience “a sense of loss, dislocation, alienation and isolation, which will lead to processes of acculturation” (Bhugra, 2004, p. 129). Migrants go through many varied phases to accommodate themselves.

2) Literature review

There has been migration from African and Asian countries, including the Middle East to non-English speaking European countries, for example, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, Holland, and Switzerland. A host of languages are spoken in these countries. A large number of immigrants have settled in English speaking Australia, Canada and the United States. These countries have become truly multicultural in character. Thanks to the magnanimous immigration policies of these states. In some countries, immigration has become a thorny issue as the newly arrived immigrants or refugees come from different cultural, religious, ethnic and language backgrounds, The nature of the society most immigrants and asylum seekers comes from and the nature of the societies they want to settle in may cause difficulties in social adjustment. It has been hypothesized by Bhugra (2005, p. 22) that individuals who migrate from predominantly socio-centric, or collectivistic societies into a society that is predominantly egocentric, or individualistic, are likely to have problems adjusting to the new culture, especially if the individuals themselves are socio-centric in their own belief system.

It is obvious that the preferred countries in the West are primarily individualistic societies whose cultural values and ideologies may be challenging to them. Bhugra adds that allocentric individuals who hail from a collectivistic society are very likely to face various types of stress if they are to migrate to individualistic societies and have to deal with idiocentric individuals. Immigrant families to Canada and the United States, for example, will have to confront many problems which will probably make things difficult for them to adapt to the host culture.

This study is particularly interested in how migrants to Canada cope with migration, their cultural identity and English, the language of the host country, besides French. Canada has two language zones- Anglophone and Francophone. Immigrant families arrive in Canada to seek a better life for their future, very often fleeing poverty, strife, persecution and discrimination of all sorts. Those who do not experience such difficulties go in search of greener pastures. These are usually the professionals who are attracted by occupational and educational factors.

Immigrants are coming to Canada in huge numbers, partly due to its perceived policy of multiculturalism. The immigration policy is viewed as economically beneficial. The major sticking point according to Hansen (2003) is the sense of belonging to Canada among the more recent immigrants compared to those who arrived in the late 60s, 70s and early 80s. In addition

there are decreasing levels of earning and academic attainment. In an interview given by Randall Hansen, an authority on immigration issues, conducted by Loretta Ho and Harbi Natt, most immigrant children go on to attend public schools and this is helpful for integration and even assimilation into Canadian society. He believes that immigrants to Canada pursue jobs and university students acculturate very well (http://munkschool.utoronto.ca/ethnic_studies/2013/02/qa-with-randall-hansen).

In the same interview Hansen (2003) opines that multiculturalism in Canada is about retaining the identity of the new Canadians in contrast to USA which has become a melting pot or a potpourri of cultures. This may be inadvertently to give the false impression that while USA practices assimilation, Canada is multicultural.

With regard to the issue of welfare programs vis-a-vis in Canada, Hansen (2003) is of the view that immigrants to Canada succeed due to the international quality of public schools there which most of the immigrant children attend. He believes that highly skilled immigrant professionals and entrepreneurs are not in need of income support. Health care has no non-positive effects.

Hansen asserts that the country's immigration policy has brought about much benefit. The policy has attracted a skilled workforce with their families. Since most Canadians are not indigenous to Canada, there is a sense of reality that they are in general immigrants, the practical distinction being early and late immigrants. The citizens are happy and neighborhoods are not race-based.

Language plays a crucial role in migration and acculturation. Immigrants who come from language backgrounds which are different from the dominant languages in the host country are likely to face a host of problems initially. This may even lead to loss of their heritage language over time. On the other hand, those who arrive from similar language backgrounds (varieties of the dominant language, included) may be able to adapt and settle in fairly quickly. This is the case with migrants from Anglophone Africa and former British colonies in Asia, for example, India, Bangladesh and Pakistan, when they migrate to the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia and the United States.

According to Bhugra & Becker (2005), new immigrants felt a sense of cultural bereavement due to linguistic barriers, financial issues and religious beliefs. Language is a part of cultural identity, in addition to religion, dietary habits and leisure activities. Bhugra (2004) asserts that linguistic competence and economic stability are important factors in adapting to a new culture in the country they have come to resettle. To feel part of the new environment and different culture, there has to be some attempts to accommodate the leisure activities such as literature, music, movies and sports which may be dissimilar from the country of origin. Immigrants from a minority culture, will inevitably have to interact with the majority culture. The minority culture may find the majority culture less intimidating and more inviting as the members of the minority group become linguistically fluent in the target language and socially competent in the majority culture's norms. With such skills, individuals would be better able to fit in and find suitable employment, Linguistic congruity and common cultural similarities may go a long way in providing social and emotional support.

Learning a second/foreign language by newly arrived immigrants involves issues of identity and exposure to the target language culture. The cultural, religious and ethnic identity of the new and older immigrants may be retained by membership of communities of practice whose three characteristics are mutual engagement which bind the learners as a social entity; joint enterprise in which teachers and learners attempt to understand what binds them as a community and shared repertoire of commonly used resources and practices, according to Wenger (as cited in Brown, 2014). Kramsch states that foreign language learning does have effect on the identities of second language learners in an L2 culture (as cited in Brown, 2014). The development of hybrid identities, where possible, may even be negotiated by the learners themselves. A language whether it is one's primary language or a second or third is related to the construction of our identity and acculturation.

Immigrant communities have to confront different cultures and ideologies. Monocultural communities are few and multicultural ones are many. So, they have to traverse different cultures, but very often there is a dominant culture which has come to be largely recognized. For example, in the United Kingdom, although there are many different communities, it is the white English speaking culture which is the dominant one. To be considered British, the residents are expected to share or tolerate the values of the majority population. But countries which have embraced multiculturalism do face problems with non-majority communities.

Language proficiency in the national language or the official language/s is one positive way to minimize possible doubts and misgivings. The second language has to be acquired for both intrinsic and integrative purposes. Success in second language acquisition is tied up with social integration which in turn may be expected to contribute to harmonious living in the country where people have gone to live, probably until their last years, or until such time they want to return to their countries of origin when conditions are favourable. The dominant language or languages of the host country have to be successfully acquired for the mutual benefit of both new and old residents.

Canada is a country which is avowedly multicultural. English and French are the two dominant languages. Many from erstwhile British colonies seek out the Anglophone provinces, while those from former French territories seek to settle in Francophone Canada. Culture acquisition of the dominant societies is inevitable and one cannot be completely detached from it. Brown (2014) states that there are four successive stages: 1) an initial period when the settlers experience excitement and euphoria in the new environment, 2) the phenomenon of culture shock when the things the new settler finds much different from his/her way of life and such estrangement and alienation may lead to anomie, 3) gradual adjustment to the new way of life of the host country, and 4) the last stage of accommodation of a new culture and identity as a citizen of the host country. Anomie, according to Lambert, may even motivate a person to acquire the target language and the new culture synonymously (as cited in Brown, 2014).

Although culture is a sensitive issue as it deals with one's identity, the foreign culture cannot be divorced from their daily life. Attitudes towards others, especially those of the fellow citizens, and more so of the people whose language the immigrants need to survive and prosper in the new surroundings. Attitudes towards the second/foreign language, the speakers, their positive traits, their literature, culture, etc. are essential for harmonious continued living in the new country. Negative attitudes, being defensive or reluctant to learn a new language and refusal

to deal with people of different cultural beliefs or ideologies are not helpful in learning the dominant language/s of the host country. Immigrant communities cannot afford to live in linguistic and cultural ghettos.

New arrivals to an English-speaking country have to come into contact with the varieties of the dominant language. In UK and USA, there is considerable variation in the different regions. This variation involves phonetic differences, besides grammatical, lexical and morphological ones. In Australia, a country with a lot of immigration history, there are such differences too. The new immigrants need to take the initiative to know the varieties which are not only standard varieties, but also actually those used by people from various backgrounds and regions. An investigation of Australian newspaper English has revealed expressions which are peculiar to the Aussies (Mohideen, 2013). Geetha (2015), a resident of Melbourne, has identified a number of typical Australian expressions: mate- a male friend; used by both men and women; sheila- a woman; a generic term to address a woman; I'm crook- an individual feeling unwell and may throw up; I was involved in a prang- involved in an accident involving vehicles; bring a plate- bring a cooked dish for the occasion; barbie- barbecue; snags- sausages; chock-chicken; mozzies- mosquitoes; a cuppa with bickie- a cup of tea with biscuits; brekkie- breakfast; it's your shout- it's your treat at the pub; tradie- a handyman; sparkie- electrician; dinkum- a fair deal; No worries- a response to statements of problems, thankful expressions, etc.

Next, let us look at some Canadian lingo which residents and new Canadians have to be familiar with to facilitate their social interaction: eh- don't you think, as in The weather today is glorious, eh? Canuck- a nickname for Canadian; hoser- an unsophisticated person, the Australian equivalent is 'bogan.' Keener- boot licker; lineup- queue; for sure- definitely; elastic- rubber band; serviette- paper napkin; sweat pants- track pants; to be on poge- to be on welfare; to proctor an exam- to invigilate an exam Other Canadianisms, according to Okrent (2015), a linguist, include "toonie"- for a two dollar coin; "loonie"- for a one dollar coin; "a bunny hug"- for a hooded sweatshirt; "hydro"- for hydro-electric power, related to this is the hydro bill;

Besides the above, Melchers & Shaw (2003) describe Canadian English and highlight some essential features. In terms of spelling, British spelling is more commonly used compared to American spelling with reference to -our vs -or and -re vs -er. When it involves the -ise and -ize, the American forms are preferred. When it comes to phonology, there are vacillations between British and American ways of pronunciation. The younger group of Canadians seem to have an inclination towards American variants according to the Survey of Canadian English undertaken in 1972.

It is not an easy experience for immigrants and newer arrivals to integrate easily or quickly in their adopted countries. The language challenge is by no means something one may overcome in a short span of time satisfactorily. The people concerned have to cross the linguistic barriers for successful social cohesion and professional contribution in the society. Unsatisfactory proficiency in the target language may deprive the residents of a meaningful coexistence and citizenship to reap the maximum benefits of settlement in industrially and technologically advanced countries. This may help to reduce the sense of alienation and open the way to approximation of shared cultural attributes.

3) Methodology

3.1) Objective

The objective of this study is to investigate the Canadian immigrants' lives in their new intercultural setting and find out the role of English as a second language in their lives.

3.2) Research Questions

The research questions are as follows:

1. How do the Canadian immigrants live in their new intercultural setting?
2. What is the role of English as second language in the Canadian immigrants' lives?

3.3) Research Design

This study is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. A Likert-scale survey was distributed among the participants. In addition, semi-structured interviews were also conducted and open-ended questionnaires were distributed among the participants as requirements for the research design.

3.4) Participants

In total, 64 immigrants participated in this study. 50 respondents participated in the survey, 10 of them participated in the open-ended questionnaire and 4 participants were interviewed by one of the researchers. The immigrants are from different countries; they were from Syria, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Palestine and Myanmar.

3.5) Instruments and Procedure

Data were collected in Toronto by one of the researchers who conducted the field work.. This study made use of the triangulation method as three types of instruments were used to collect the data. Data collection involved completion of structured Likert-scale questionnaire, open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interview. All participants were informed that participation was voluntary, confidential and that the responses were anonymous. In most of the cases questionnaires were group-administered outside of the English language centers, people's houses, inside the mosques and in the shopping malls. In other cases, immigrants were approached individually, and the questionnaire was filled out individually.

The first instrument used was the structured Likert-scale survey questionnaires which consisted of 16 questions. The participants were asked about their perceptions on acculturation attitudes, cultural identity, perceived discrimination, sociocultural adaptation, importance of English language, language proficiency and language difficulties, and scope and facilities for personal growth (Phinney, & Vedder, 2006). The second instrument was the open-ended questionnaire where the respondents elaborately answered about their purpose of immigration to Canada, life styles, point of view towards the society as immigrants, their attempts to integrate with natives, marginalization in society, their contribution to Canada, etc. The third instrument was the semi-structured interview. In the interview, the participants discussed in detail their struggle to adjust their lives in Canada, the usage of English during a normal day, complexities using English as second language and so forth. Data were collected in Toronto. The response options of the Likert-scale questionnaire ranged from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Several issues were discussed in the questionnaire that includes cultural identity,

acculturation attitudes, perceived discrimination, sociocultural adaptation, importance of English language, language proficiency and language difficulties, scope and facilities etc.

3.6) Sociocultural Adaptation: Sociocultural adaptation was assessed using scales for social adjustment and problems. A sample item of the scale for social adjustment is: "I adjusted myself very fast with the new environment." A sample item of the scale for social problems is: "I felt cultural shock when I came to Canada for the first time."

3.7) Acculturation Attitudes: This matter assessed four acculturation attitudes such as assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization. For example, "I prefer to mingle with my community people as well as the domestic Canadians." (integration); "I have many native Canadian close friends who help me understand the lesson/activity/work." (assimilation); "I prefer to mingle with my own community people only" (separation); and "I am not involved with the social activities (neither with the native Canadians nor with my community people)" (marginalization). The terms "domestic Canadians" and "native Canadians" are used by and large to refer to those people who have made Canada their home.

3.8) Importance of English Language, Language Proficiency and Language Difficulties: This scale inquired a person's abilities to understand and the use of English language. Some examples: "To get a good job/good grades depends on my language proficiency level." (importance of English language) "Hard work does not bring desired out come when I am not fluent in English." (language proficiency) "I have difficulties understanding the lecture in the class/supervisor's instruction in the workplace in terms of vocabulary and speed." "I feel shy to participate in the class/society because of my lack of fluency in English." (language difficulties) .

3.9) Cultural Identity: Cultural identity was measured with items assessing cultural affirmation (e.g. sense of belonging, positive or negative feelings about being or not being a group member). A sample item is "I get less social support compared to the domestic Canadians."

3.10) Perceived Discrimination: This scale assessed perceived frequency of being treated unfairly or negatively because of one's ethnicity (e.g. "The lecturers/supervisors/employers favor the native Canadians.").

3.11) Scope and Facilities: Scope and facilities in Canada for the immigrants were assessed by a question such as "The support services (language courses/tutoring/supplemental courses) help to improve English proficiency."

The Likert-scale questionnaire also sought information about the immigrants' country of origin, length of residence and purpose of immigration. The collected data were divided into two categories based on the immigrants' length of residence and purpose of their living in Canada. The responses of the participants for each question are presented in percentage $[(\sum \text{ number of responses})/(\sum \text{ total number of participants}) \times 100]\%$.

The open-ended questions were eleven in all. For these questions the respondents stated their purpose of immigration to Canada, their comfort and discomfort as immigrants, point of view towards the society as immigrants, sociocultural adaptation, marginalization in society,

their contribution to Canada and so on. Two sample questions for the comfort and discomfort of the immigrants: “What is the aspect that you are comfortable with as an immigrant of Canada (Please explain with reference to the culture of majority Canadians)?” and “What are those aspects which you cannot accept or you are less comfortable with (if any)?” To investigate about their attempts to integrate with natives, a few questions related to their sociocultural adaptation were asked: “Are you making any attempts to integrate with other Canadians? How? What are the problems doing that (if any)?”, “What are the specific areas of Canadian life you adapt/acculturate to?” Their point of view towards the society as immigrants was reflected in the following questions: “Do you encourage your spouse to socialize with Canadians/ improve language proficiency?” and “Do the older immigrant women lead secluded lives in Canada (answer according to your perception)?” The immigrants were also asked some questions regarding marginalization in society and their contribution to Canada. The open-ended questionnaire also sought information about a variety of demographic variables. These included immigrants’ age, gender, country of origin, religious affiliation, educational back ground, length of residence, ethnic background, social status etc. Details will be explained in the Findings and Discussion which follow.

The semi-structured interviews were more likely a discussion among the participants and the researcher rather than a formal stereotyped interview, though the researcher had a set of questions to ask the interviewees. The participants were very keen about the disclosure of their identity even though the researcher assured them about the confidentiality about the information provided by them. The participants discussed in detail concerning the struggle of adjustment in Canada, their English language use, proficiency and difficulties during a normal day, their point of view towards Canadian society and so forth.

4. Findings and Discussion

To answer the research questions of the study, a Likert-scale survey and an open-ended questionnaire were distributed among the participants. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted to triangulate the findings.

4.1 Survey

The questionnaire on the immigrants’ perceptions consisted of 16 questions. The first three questions are about the participants’ demographic profile and rest of them represent the immigrants’ perceptions regarding acculturation attitudes, cultural identity, perceived discrimination, sociocultural accommodation, the importance of English, language proficiency and language problems, and scope and facilities available, etc. The participants were asked to choose their opinions on the scale of 1-5, where 1 is “strongly disagree” and 5 is “strongly agree.”

Table 1. The percentage distribution of the Canadian immigrants according to their length of residence

Length of residence	Total number of participants	Total responses	Percentage
Less than 2 years	50	10	38%
2 to 5 years		24	19%
More than 5 years		16	43%

Table 1 shows the percentage distribution of the Canadian immigrants according to their length of residence. 38% of the respondents have been living in Canada for less than two years. 19% of them for two to five years and 43% (the majority of the respondents) have been living for more than 5 years.

Table 2. The percentage distribution of the Canadian immigrants according to the purpose of their living in Canada

Purpose of living	Total number of participants	Total responses	Percentage
Political asylum	50	10	10%
To have a better life		24	48%
Study/work		16	32%

Table 2 shows the percentage distribution of the Canadian immigrants according to the purpose of their moving to and living in Canada. 10% of the participants migrated to Canada because of the political instability of their native countries. 48% of the immigrants are seeking a better life compared to the places where they had previously lived, and 32% of the participants came to Canada for study or work purpose and then thought of pursuing immigration.

According to the survey (Figure 1), the respondents have mixed assessments about their life in Canada. The majority of the participants (77%) said that they felt cultural shock when they came to Canada for the first time. Among these 77% participants, 40% agreed with the fact of

the occurrence of cultural shock and 37% strongly agree. It is quite natural to experience culture shock when a person arrives in any place for the first time because of the dissimilarities of the culture of their countries and new culture. According to Brown's Acculturation model, (Brown 2014) a person goes through four stages when he or she arrives in an unknown environment for the first time. And cultural shock is the second stage of acculturation model after the euphoria stage which is also called the period of excitement. 17% of the participants disagreed with the idea of cultural shock and 6% remained neutral. With regard to adaptation in their host country, most of the participants (58%) stated that they could not adjust themselves with the new environment which is also similar to the second stage of cultural shock where a person suffers loneliness, estrangement, sadness, hostility, homesickness and physical illness. This is a part of sociocultural adaptation (Phinney, & Vedder, 2006) and this is also supported by our survey findings. On the other hand, 22% of the respondents said that there was no adjustment problem in the beginning of their migration to Canada and 20% remained neutral. Further analysis shows that those people, who did not feel cultural shock or remained neutral, have been living in Canada for more than five years and there is a possibility of tolerating the cultural differences which had initially shocked them.

Research findings revealed the acculturation attitudes of the immigrants relating to integration, assimilation, separation and marginalization (Phinney and Vedder, 2006). 33% of the immigrants agree that they prefer to mingle with people from their own community, as well as the domestic Canadians (integration) whereas 50% of the participants disagree (15% strongly disagree and 35% disagree) with the statement and only 7% remain neutral. The majority of the respondents (63%) disagree that they have many native Canadians as close friends who help them to understand the lesson/activity/work (assimilation) whereas 30.5% agree that they can assimilate with the native Canadians. The people who can assimilate are mostly those who have been living in Canada for a long time. In fact, some of the immigrants have been living in Canada for more than 10 years. 55% of the respondents said that they prefer to mingle only with their own community people (separation), in contrast 35% disagree with the statement and 10% remain neutral and 37.2% of the participants agreed that they are not involved with the social activities (neither with the native Canadians nor with their own community people). This is an example of marginalization, but 52% disagree with marginalization and 10.8% stay neutral about this statement. Data analysis shows that most of the immigrants who migrated to Canada seeking political asylum are not interested in integrating and/or assimilating with the Canadian people, sometimes not even with their own community people. This group of people are more separated and marginalized from the society. The importance of the English language, language proficiency and language difficulties are also reflected in the participants' responses. The majority of the participants (54%) agree that getting a good job/good grades depends on their language proficiency level. It reveals the importance of the English language in an English speaking country like Canada. 69% of the respondents stated that hard work does not bring the desired outcome when the immigrants are not fluent in English.

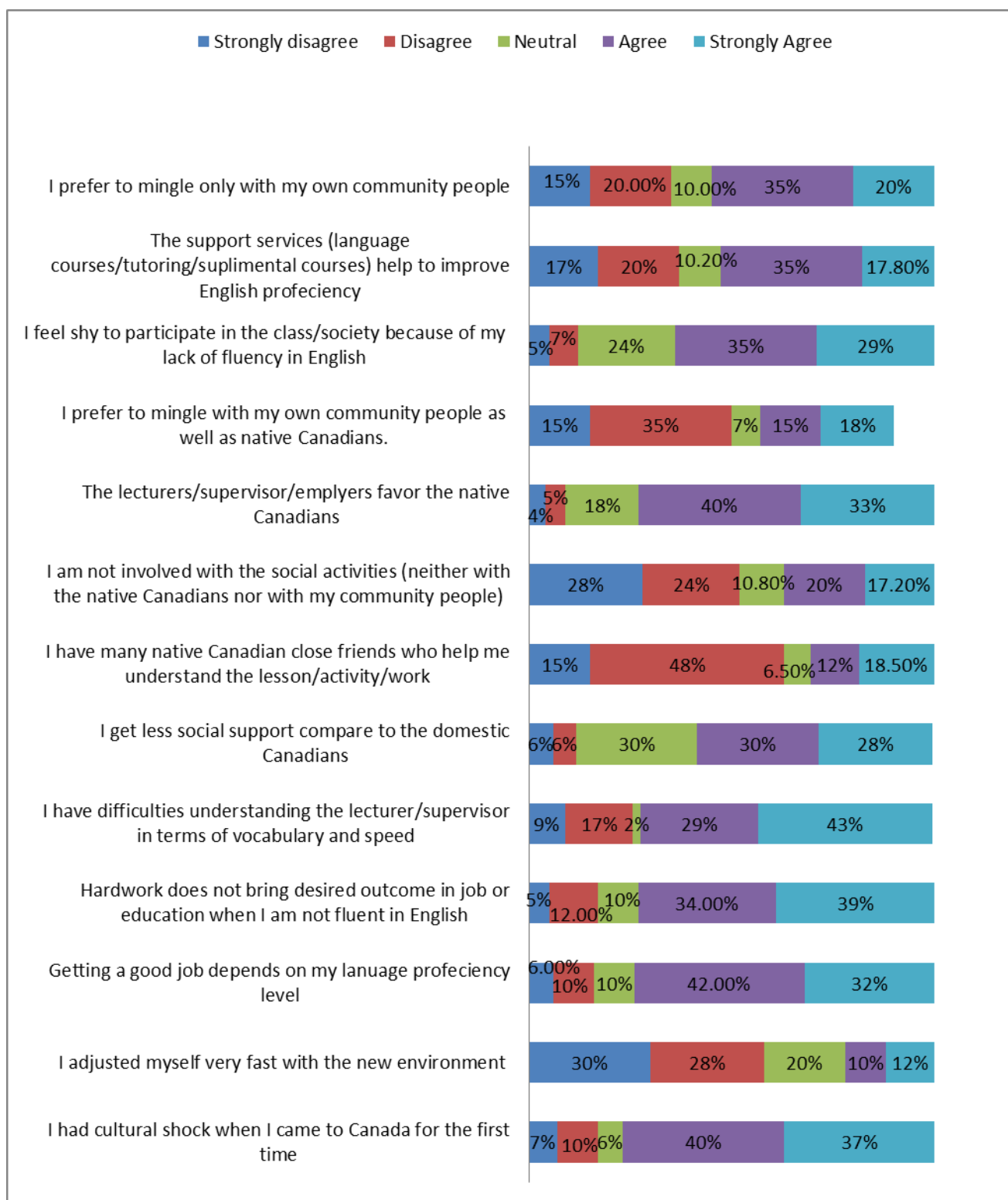


Figure 1. Survey findings of Canadian immigrants' perceptions

That means high English proficiency level is very important to succeed in Canada. In total, 72% of the immigrants agree that they have difficulties understanding the lecture in the class/supervisor's instruction in the workplace in terms of vocabulary comprehension and speed. Whereas 26% of the participants disagree with the statement and stated that they don't have any difficulties understanding the instructions in English. Further analysis proved that these 26% of the participants have been living in Canada for more than five years and most of the participants of this group are living in Canada for a better life compared to life in their native countries. 64% of the participants felt shy to participate in the class/society because of their lack of fluency in English. Most of the participants in this group have lived in Canada for less than 2 years. Only 12% disagreed with this statement as they have been living in Canada for more than 5 years. 24% participants remained neutral. It can therefore be assumed that these immigrants felt shy and did not want to disclose any of their shortcomings, if any.

The immigrants' cultural identity was also measured in the survey. 58% of the participants stated that they got less social support compared to the domestic Canadians. And a large number of people (30%) remained neutral about this statement. Only 12% of the immigrants disagreed with this statement. This means the majority of the participants felt that they were not a part of the group and they had negative feelings about not being a group member. It can be assumed that the people who remained neutral about this statement, did not want to reveal their stand in this regard as they may have also feel that they were outside of the group.

4.2 Open-ended Questionnaire

The open-ended questionnaire was divided into two parts. The first part consisted of demographic profile where the participants were asked about their age, gender, country of origin, religious affiliation, educational back ground, length of residence, ethnic background and social status. In the second part, the respondent immigrants answered eleven open-ended questions regarding their comfort and discomfort as immigrants, point of view towards the Canadian society, sociocultural adaptation, perceived marginalization in the society, their contribution to Canada etc.

The demographic profile reveals that all ten participants are Asian. Among them, four immigrants are from Bangladesh, three are from the Arab peninsula (Syria and Palestine), two immigrants from Pakistan and another immigrant is from Myanmar. Five participants are married and five of them are single. Four participants had completed their Bachelor's degree, two participants had studied until high school, one participant had completed her PhD, one participant is doing his Masters and one other participant is still doing his undergraduate degree. Four participants have been living in Canada for more than five years, and six of them for less than 2 years. The immigrants stated their thoughts and point of views briefly in the open-ended questionnaire. Interestingly, there were differences between the thoughts of highly educated immigrants and less educated immigrants though there were some exceptions. The participants who are highly educated were in favor of living in Canada, whereas the less educated participants stated their frustrations about living in Canada. In addition, those who have been living in the country for long time were quite happy with the current environment, but those who have lived for less than two years seem to be unhappy and that supports our first finding. Most of

the respondents answered that their purpose of living in Canada is to have a better standard of living such as quality of life, job opportunities, free healthcare, freedom of speech and so on. When the subjects were asked about their comfort as immigrants, one of the participants wrote thus:

I am comfortable knowing the various government services available at the disposal of all immigrants of Canada. Canada takes pride in its pluralistic values, ethics and multiculturalism – thus attesting to the helping hands that are all around.

This respondent is highly educated and quite happy about his life in Canada. On the other hand, some immigrants stated that they were immensely uncomfortable with the racism, social conflicts and resulting injustice. Interestingly, when they were asked whether they wanted their kids to grow up in Canada or not, nine participants answered positively. Only one participant was worried about the lifestyle of teenagers in western countries. Eight of them affirmed that eventually they wanted to go back to their country of origin as they could never forsake their roots of origin. Only two of them did not want to return to their native countries because of the facilities available in Canada. The respondents were also asked about their attempts to integrate with other Canadians. Most of them stated that at every possible opportunity they did try to integrate with the natives, but because of many barriers due to social norms, the stigma of being an immigrant etc. often resulted in hindrance. Out of the five married participants four said that they encourage their spouses to socialize with natives to improve their English language skills, but most of the wives were not willing to mingle with the Canadians because of shyness and language barrier. This means the English language plays a vital role in socialization and it impacts on their life in Canada. Since many of the immigrants are not fluent in English, they do not socialize with native Canadians or people of different cultures. They prefer to mingle with the people of their own country who speak the same language and eventually end up as separated or marginalized. The rest of the participants who are single stated that they would like to encourage their future spouses to interact with natives to improve their English language proficiency. The immigrants were asked about the older women's lives in Canada, whether they lived a secluded life or not. The participants answered according to their perceptions as well as their experiences. A Pakistani immigrant answered as follows,

Most of the older women prefer to live in the comfort of home, amongst family and known people. My mother is an example. She never talks to the native Canadians; sometimes she waves at the Arab people at best.

The participants wrote that the reasons could be due to language barrier, inability to deal with new people, culture and language because of old age and so on. Regarding the acculturation factor, most of the immigrants mentioned that they have acculturated or still trying to acculturate with the harsh cold weather, food habit, language, culture and identity. The respondents also discussed their contribution in Canadian society. Their answers were similar. They believe that by being active citizens; they are fulfilling their civic duties as a part of the community. All the participants stated that they feel discriminated or marginalized as immigrants. One response is quoted here:

“Yes, I feel marginalized..at times, but for the most part – I feel well accepted. At least within my community”

This statement expresses the mood of separation and marginalization of the Canadian immigrants and also indicates why the immigrants want to mingle with their people from their own respective communities. Since they can speak in their native language and follow the same culture and religion as their country of origin, they feel comfortable being what they are and doing what they do. Most of the immigrants do not want to come out of this kind of comfort zone.

4.3 Interview

Four immigrants were interviewed: two of them was from Bangladesh, one from Pakistan and another person was from Myanmar. The semi-structured interview consisted of eight questions, but many issues were exposed in the conversation with the immigrants. The participants expressed that the difficult things about adjusting their life in Canada were its culture, language and weather that confirm our second finding from the open-ended questionnaire. Among the four interviewees, three of them were nearly happy with their life in Canada, but the participant from Myanmar seemed to be very frustrated in the country. She had migrated to Canada because of the religious and political instability in Myanmar. Subsequently, the immigrants were asked whether they preferred to mingle with their own community people and the answer completely supports the findings of the survey as well as the open-ended questionnaire. Two participants replied that due to lack of language proficiency and cultural difference, they did not want to mingle with the natives. The other two participants responded that even though they wanted to integrate with the natives, sometimes they failed to do so because of what they perceived as discrimination and more advantages to the native Canadians.

The remainder of the interview was on the role of the English language in their Canadian life. All the participants admitted that English played a vital role in the Canadian immigrants' lives. Without being proficient in English it is almost impossible to get a good job or good results in exams. Moreover, it is not possible to socialize with the native Canadians as well as the people of other countries and cultures without basic ability in the English language. As a result, they felt marginalized. Furthermore, the interviewees described their English use during a normal day. One of the interviewees, who is a house wife, and graduated from her native country's high school, said that she hardly spoke English during the day. Whenever there was a parents-teacher meeting in her children's school, her husband who worked in an automobile company usually attended the parents-teacher meetings as she was not able to understand the teacher and could not convey the appropriate messages to her children's teacher. Because of the language barrier, she rarely mingled with the natives and that caused alienation from the mainstream society. The interviewees, who worked in different companies for their livelihood, said that they used English throughout the whole day. And they were comfortable speaking in English. One of the interviewees stated that he had many native Canadian friends now. But in the initial period, when he was having lessons to improve his English skills, he hardly used to talk to the natives because of the lack of proficiency in English. This statement also supports our first finding from the survey questionnaire.

These results provide a coherent picture about the Canadian immigrants' lives in their new intercultural setting and have exposed and emphasized the importance of English as a second language in their lives. It is quite obvious from the findings that the Canadian immigrants face difficulties at the very beginning, but as soon as they acculturate with the new environment, they feel comfortable and find themselves as a part of the society, though discrimination often causes disappointment.

5. Limitations of the Study

Although this study tries to offer well-supported arguments, the research has some limitations as well. The sample of the subjects for the open-ended questionnaire is not large enough; only ten immigrants were involved due to the immigrants' lack of willingness to provide answers which were longer or elaborate.. All the respondents involved in the study were Asian, so some subjective factors can be there which may influence the results of the study to a certain extent though the proper analysis of the data tries to overcome this limitation. Future studies should involve immigrants from different continents to get more reliable or generalizable results.

6. Conclusion

The study concerns Canadian immigrants who are believed to have acculturation and adaptation difficulties in a multicultural society. The research questions regarding Canadian immigrants' lives in their new intercultural setting as well as the role of English as second language in the immigrants' live were pursued using structured Likert-scale questionnaire, a set of open-ended questions and semi-structured interview. Research findings seem to support each other via these research instruments. They present an authentic scenario of the immigrants' lives in Canada. The findings reveal that most of the immigrants try to acculturate with the Canadian society. In fact, in the majority of cases, they are successful, for example, the immigrants, who have been living in Canada for a long time. They find this intercultural setting very comfortable and Canada a better place to live. On the other hand, discrimination and some undesirable social norms and practices sometimes cause unhappiness and discontent. The study also depicts the importance of the English language in the immigrants' lives in a primarily English speaking country. The immigrants who are fluent in English are more involved and well accepted in the Canadian society.

About the Authors:

Haja Mohideen Bin Mohamed Ali is an Associate Professor at the Department of English, International Islamic University Malaysia He obtained his PhD from Cardiff University, UK. He has published numerous articles and presented papers at various international conferences on applied linguistics & sociolinguistics.

Tasdiq Nomaira Alam obtained her Masters from International Islamic University Malaysia. She also earned her TESL diploma from College of Educators, Canada. She has several years of teaching experience in Middle East and East Asia.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Please fill in the blanks.

(All the information provided by the respondents will be highly confidential)

- Country of origin: _____
- How long have you been living in Canada? _____
- What is the main purpose of your immigration to Canada?

Kindly circle the suitable number in each box from the following table where 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neutral, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree.

4.	I felt cultural shock when I came to Canada for the first time.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I adjusted myself very fast with the new environment.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	To get a good job/good grades in the exams depends on my language proficiency level.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Hard work does not bring desired out come when I am	1	2	3	4	5

	not fluent in English.					
8.	I have difficulties understanding the lecture in the class/supervisor's instruction in the workplace in terms of vocabulary and speed.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I get less social support compared to the domestic Canadians.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I have many native Canadian close friends who help me understand the lesson/activity/work.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am highly involved with the class/social activities like the native Canadians.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	The lecturers/supervisors/employers favor the native Canadians.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I prefer to mingle with my own community people as well as native Canadians.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I feel shy to participate in the class/society because of my lack of fluency in English.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	The support services (language courses/tutoring/supplementary courses) help to improve English proficiency.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I prefer to mingle with my own community people.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your time.

Appendix B

Please fill in the blanks with the correct answers:

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Country of origin: _____

Religious affiliation: _____

Length of residence: _____

Ethnic background: _____

Country of origin: _____

Circle the correct answers:

Social status: Married/Single

Highest level of education completed: Primary school/ High school/ Bachelor's degree/ Master's degree/ PhD

Kindly answer the following questions.

1. What is the main purpose of your immigration in Canada?

3. What are those aspects which you cannot accept or less comfortable with (if any)?

4. Do you want your children to grow up in Canada? Why?

5. Do you eventually want to return to your country of origin? Why?

6. Are you making any attempts to integrate with other Canadians? How? What are the problems doing that (if any)?

7. Do you encourage your spouse to socialize with Canadians/ improve language proficiency?

8. Do the migrated older women lead secluded lives in Canada (according to your perception)?

9. What are the specific areas of Canadian life you adapt/acclurate to?

10. What is your contribution to Canada?

11. Do you feel discriminated/marginalized?

Thank you for your time.

Appendix C

Interview Questions

1. What has been the most difficult thing about adjusting to life in Canada?
2. Describe how you use English during a normal day.
3. What have been the most difficult things about learning English in Canada?
4. What are the easiest things about learning English?
5. Is it difficult to make small talk with the native speakers? (Why?/ Why not?)
6. Do you prefer to mingle with your own community people? Why?/Why not?

Haja Mohideen Bin Mohamed Ali is an Associate Professor at the Department of English, International Islamic University Malaysia. He obtained his PhD from Cardiff University, UK. He has published numerous articles and presented papers at various international conferences on applied linguistics & sociolinguistics.

Tasdiq Nomaira Alam obtained her Masters from International Islamic University Malaysia. She also earned her TESL diploma from College of Educators, Canada. She has several years of teaching experience in Middle East and East Asia.

We hereby attest that the article submitted is our original work. Sources of reference are duly acknowledged.

An Investigation of Idiom Comprehension and Translation by Translation Students at KSU

Dania Adel Salamah

Department of English Language and Translation
College of Languages and Translation
King Saud University

Abstract

The study attempted to investigate the problems and difficulties related to idiom comprehension and translation with female English Translation students. In general, EFL learners experience difficulties in understanding the meaning of idiomatic expressions; however, the problem is magnified when learners are required not only to understand the meanings of these expressions, but also to render their meanings in another language. The objective of this study was to investigate whether or not female English Translation students at the College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University faced any difficulties in understanding and translating English idiomatic expressions. The study also aimed to classify the translation strategies the subjects used, as well as, the types of errors they made. The researcher followed a qualitative descriptive design model. The study population was composed of female English Translation students. The sample was made up of two groups of female English Translation students in their fourth and fifth years of study. The findings of the study demonstrated that the subjects generally did not face difficulties in understanding English idiomatic expressions, but they generally did face difficulties in translating these expressions into Arabic. The findings also helped identify eleven error categories and seven translation strategy categories.

Key Words: idiomatic expressions, idiom comprehension, idioms, idiom translation, translation errors, translation strategies

Introduction

Idiom comprehension is considered difficult for many English language learners (LL). Understanding the meanings of idiomatic expressions (IE) is a natural process with native speakers of English. However, it is more intentional with LL. When English LL learn the language in non-English speaking contexts, they lack the opportunity to use it in natural settings. Thus, they are not exposed to the language as it occurs naturally, and they do not interact with native speakers (Abdul Wahhab, 2002). This makes it difficult for them to acquire the meanings of IE.

The main characteristics of idioms that contribute to their difficulty are their fixed structures in addition to their non-literal meanings (Baker, 1992; Fernando, 1996; Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2007). IE are also different from other vocabulary items because they have special semantic features and are processed as single items together with their meanings (Fromkin et al., 2007).

Objectives of the Study

This study attempted to investigate the problems and difficulties relevant to idiom comprehension and translation with female English Translation students at the College of Languages and Translation (COLT), King Saud University (KSU). The researcher attempted to classify the problems and difficulties female English Translation students encounter when dealing with IE in translation, in addition to classifying the translation strategies they used.

Research Questions

This study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. Do female Translation students face difficulties in understanding English IE?
2. Do female Translation students face difficulties in translating English IE into Arabic?
3. What difficulties do the subjects face when they come across IE?
4. How can these difficulties/errors be classified?
5. What strategies do the subjects resort to when dealing with IE in translation?

Significance of the Study

This study was motivated by the fact that LL face difficulties in understanding idioms which is more problematic when LL are required to understand these expressions and translate them into Arabic. It was anticipated that the findings of the study would be useful:

1. To raise student awareness of the problematic areas they may face and the different strategies to follow when dealing with idioms in translation;
2. To raise the awareness of novice translation teachers of the types of difficulties faced by students when translating IE. This knowledge may help teachers in developing methods to better train students on how to deal with these forms.

From a theoretical perspective, it was hoped that this study would shed some light on the reasons students face difficulties with IE in both comprehension and translation. This would be achieved by helping to point out the causes behind the errors committed by the subjects, as well as the translation strategies they followed. This information may be used to educate translation students about the translation strategies that are used when dealing with IE, as well as the types of errors that should be avoided.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to translation from English into Arabic. Thus, the subjects had two obstacles to overcome; first the recognition and comprehension of the English IE, and second, translating these expressions into Arabic.

Literature Review

This section discusses the theoretical and empirical studies related to the comprehension and translation of IE as well as the classification of learners' errors and translation strategies.

Comprehension of IE

Baker (1992) mentioned that the first obstacle facing a translator when dealing with IE is failing to recognize the expression as such. Irujo (1986b, cited in Bataineh, 1996) indicated that IE are difficult due to their non-literal meanings and the difficulty in using them appropriately. She attributed the difficulty of learning IE to the type of language LL are exposed to, since native speakers usually use simple and non-idiomatic language with them.

Abu-Afeefeh (1987) investigated whether or not English students used their native knowledge of Arabic to understand and produce English IE. His findings corresponded to those of Irujo (1986, cited in Abdul Wahhab, 2002) which can be summarized as follows:

1. Identical idioms are the easiest to comprehend and produce by LL.
2. Similar idioms are easy to understand, but there is evidence of native language interference.
3. Different idioms are the most difficult to understand and produce.

Migdadi (1994) found that when it comes to idioms, LL used a number of strategies such as literal translation, approximation, and avoidance. These strategies were caused by lack of comprehension and often resulted in lexical errors.

Abdul Wahhab's (2002) findings indicate that the main reasons LL face difficulties when dealing with IE are their non-literal meanings, fixed word-orders, in addition to the unique word groupings of some IE. He added that lack of cultural knowledge on the part of the learners, as well as learning the language in a non-native speaker environment were also factors that contributed to such difficulties.

Translation of IE

Translation is basically changing a written or spoken text from one language to another. Newmark defined translation as, "rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text" (2003, p. 5). However, differences that exist between languages make it difficult and, in some situations, almost impossible to grasp the exact intended meaning in the ST and render that meaning in the TT. With regards to translating idioms, it is difficult for non-native speakers of English to match the competence of a native speaker in using IE (Baker, 1992). Actually, Baker (1992) explained that IE are problematic in translation for two main reasons: the ability to recognize an expression as an idiom and interpret it correctly; and the difficulty of rendering the different aspects of an idiom's meaning into the TL. Thus, the difficulty lies in both processes; the comprehension of the expression, as well as the interpretation of its intended meaning.

The main difficulties associated with idiom translation can be categorized as follows (Baker, 1992):

1. Lack of an equivalent expression in the TL.
2. A TL equivalent that has a different context of use.
3. Using the SL idiom in its idiomatic and its literal meanings for the purpose of producing a play on meaning.
4. Frequency of IE use in written texts varies from language to another.

In his discussion of translation problems, Ghazala (2003) explained that direct idioms are translated directly/literally but have metaphorical meanings (e.g., stab in the back/ *يطعن في الظهر*), while indirect idioms are translated indirectly and their meanings must be inferred from the context (e.g., second hand/ *مستعمل*). Al-Hamdalla (1998), on the other hand, explained that translators should try to find an equivalent form for the idiom in the Arabic language, or else they should provide an equivalent explanation.

The problems of translating IE have also been classified into linguistic problems and cultural problems. These problems may be attributed to the large linguistic and cultural gap between Arabic and English since the two languages belong to two language families and two cultures that are completely different (Ayoub, 1994).

On a similar note, Bataineh (1996) investigated the problems resulting from the translation of English IE into Arabic by Jordanian Translation students. She also investigated the reasons behind these problems, the type(s) of IE that are problematic, and the strategies used in translating idioms. She found that any omission or misinterpretation of the idiom led to loss or distortion of the text's meaning and/or coherence. Bataineh explained that the subjects found difficulties with IE mainly because they were culturally-specific. They were also difficult because sometimes learners were unable to identify them as idiomatic, which led to literal translation. Finally, she found that her subjects basically followed the translation strategies outlined by Baker (1992).

Hussein, Khanji, & Makhzoomy (2000) also conducted a study in which they attempted to investigate the problem LL as well as translation students have with English IE. They argued that LL generally have a problem with the comprehension of IE, and thus, they face difficulties translating these expressions into Arabic. They found that the subjects' ability to use IE was weak.

On the other hand, Al-Qahtany (2004) investigated the lexical problems of senior undergraduate translation students at Imam Mohammed bin Saud Islamic University. He managed to classify the translation errors the subjects made into eight categories including omission, paraphrasing, addition, substitution, and literal translation.

Badawi (2008) conducted a study on a number of prospective EFL teachers at the University of Tabouk. He investigated their ability to translate culturally-specific expressions and their awareness of translation strategies. He found that their translation ability was poor, as was their awareness of translation strategies. He also found that they commonly resorted to literal translation.

Some of the strategies commonly used to translate IE can be summarized below (Baker, 1992):

1. Using a TL IE that conveys almost the same meaning of the SL expression, and which also has the same form.
2. Using a TL IE that conveys almost the same meaning of the SL expression, but which has a different form.
3. Paraphrasing the SL expression based on conveying its meaning without adhering to an idiomatic form.
4. Omitting the SL IE.

Error

Since this study dealt with error detection and classification, it was necessary to provide some information related to this issue including defining the notion of error, and discussing the classification of error types.

The notion of error. James (1998) initially defined a language error as "an unsuccessful bit of language" (p.1). Nevertheless, errors may be considered forms that deviate from the acceptable linguistic norm or standard. Usually, a linguistic norm is what a language community considers correct and acceptable (James, 1998). Thus, generally speaking, an error can be defined as any form that deviates from the norm.

Error classification. LL in general face difficulties when dealing with English vocabulary items, and especially when these items are IE. These difficulties are detected in understanding the meanings of IE, as well as producing and using them in speech or writing. Furthermore, many researchers conducted studies that focused on these difficulties trying to indicate their causes. These studies usually aimed to classify the types of errors learners made as well.

While reviewing the literature, the researcher found that the Target Modification Taxonomy (TMT) was the most relevant to this study because this taxonomy refers to instances where learners produce forms deviant from the intended TL form. The taxonomy includes the following categories: omission, overinclusion, misselection, misordering, and blends (James, 1998).

Additionally, the researcher found that different scholars classified lexical errors differently. For example, Zaghlool (1984) found that the errors learners made were mainly substitution, omission, overuse, and insertion. While others, such as Zughoul (1990, cited in Migdadi, 1994), classified lexical errors into 13 categories, such as literal translation, collocation, and the influence of Arabic style. Furthermore, Shudooh (1988) classified the types of errors committed by Arab translation students into: wrong choice of word, collocation, or derivation, literal translation, omission, miscomprehension of the original, and so on.

As for the reasons behind these errors, the researcher found that different researchers had different opinions and classifications based on their investigations. For instance, Zaghlool (1984) attributed lexical errors to elements such as translation from Arabic and lack of knowledge of English. While Migdadi (1994) believed that the errors were caused by the strategies learners use to learn English vocabulary.

Richards (1980) provided a general categorization of the errors LL make. He categorized learners' errors into interlanguage errors caused by interference from the learner's native language, and intralingual and developmental errors caused by elements within the structure of the English language. He further divided intralingual and developmental errors into: overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, and false concepts hypothesized.

As far as IE are concerned the main cause of their difficulty seems to be their non-literal and culturally-specific meanings, which makes them difficult for LL to understand and use. So they generally avoid using them. Furthermore, native speakers of English also tend to avoid using them when communicating with non-native speakers, which reduces exposure to these forms (Bataineh, 1996).

Therefore, it seems that James's taxonomy (1998) is inclusive of some of the errors mentioned above, such as omission, substitution, insertion or addition, and wrong choice of word or derivation. The studies reviewed above yielded a number of error categories, such as:

- a. omission and insertion (Zaghlool, 1984)
- b. wrong choice of word, collocation, or derivation, omission, redundancy, ambiguity miscomprehension of original, style/register, and literal translation (Shudooh, 1988)
- c. omission, paraphrase, addition, substitution, literal translation, and inappropriate collocation (Al-Qahtany, 2004)

Translation Strategies

As for the notion of strategy, James (1998) explained briefly that strategies are the tools learners resort to when they encounter difficulties learning the TL or using it for communication. He also explained that learner strategies are generally divided by researchers in the field into learning strategies and communication strategies.

Oxford (1990) classified the strategies used by LL into direct and indirect strategies with further sub-classifications. However, the strategies that were found to be most relevant to translation were those she subcategorized as compensation strategies within the category of direct strategies. She explained that compensation strategies are used by learners to make up for lack of grammatical and lexical knowledge. She further divided the category of compensation strategies into two sets: guessing intelligently in listening and reading, and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Since both aspects of the process of translation are under investigation in this study (i.e., comprehension and production), both sets apply.

Furthermore, Scarcella & Oxford (1992) listed certain strategies involved in achieving strategic competence. Those that are relevant to this study include paraphrase, circumlocution, transfer, and avoidance. Such strategies are used by LL to enhance communication or to compensate for any weaknesses.

Badawi (2008) attempted to investigate translation strategy awareness by creating a questionnaire which included a number of categories such as, addition, deletion, literal equivalent, paraphrase, reduction, synonymy, and guessing.

Regarding the classification of strategies, the researcher noticed that some of the categories some researchers designated as error types have been used to designate strategies as well. For example, although paraphrasing was considered an error by Al-Qahtany (2004), Baker (1992) considered it a translation strategy. However, both al-Hamdalla (1998) and McGuire (1980, cited in Al-Qahtany, 2004) agreed that paraphrase translation should be used as a last resort when no equivalents are available.

Moreover, literal translation was considered an error in some cases (Shudooh, 1988; Al-Qahtany, 2004), but a translation strategy in others (Ghazala, 2003; Badawi 2004). Similarly, omission was considered an error type by some researchers (Zaghlool, 1984; Shudooh, 1988; Al-Qahtany, 2004), while Baker (1992) considered it a strategy.

Thus, it seems that there is an area of overlap regarding the classification of error types and translation strategies. Interestingly enough, James (1998), referred to a similar area of overlap as he mentioned the similarity that exists between some learning strategies discussed by researchers in the field (i.e., Kasper & Kellerman, 1997, cited in James, 1998) and the error categories he referred to in his TMT. He explained that it was unclear how some strategies were considered strategies, and that they were better explained as causes for strategy use.

Based on the above-reviewed studies, it seems clear that the most commonly-used translation strategies include those outlined by Baker (1992):

1. Using a TL IE that has a similar form and meaning to the SL expression.
2. Using a TL IE that has a similar meaning to the SL expression, but a different form.
3. Paraphrasing the SL IE to render its meaning without adhering to its idiomatic form.
4. Omitting the TL IE.

Conclusion

Based on the studies reviewed above, it is clear that IE are difficult for a number of factors, such as their fixed and culturally-bound meanings, their structural restrictions, the inability to recognize them as IE, as well as interference from Arabic. Furthermore, the literature also demonstrated that when it comes to the translation of IE, learners apply a number of different strategies, such as, omission, literal translation, paraphrase, and using idioms with similar forms and/or meanings.

It is also clear that the study shared similarities with previous research in the field. However, some studies examined the subjects' ability to understand, produce, or learn English idioms (e.g., Abu-Afeefeh, 1987; Migdadi, 1994; Abdul Wahhab, 2002). Others investigated whether or not students faced any difficulties in translating IE and attempted to highlight these difficulties (e.g., Ayoub, 1994; Hussein et al., 2000). In some cases, the studies indicated the causes of these difficulties and/or the types of idioms that were problematic (e.g., Bataineh, 1996). Finally, some studies examined the lexical problems associated with translation (Al-Qahtany, 2004) or idiom translation and translation strategy awareness (Badawi, 2008).

This study differed from most of the studies reviewed above in that it examined two aspects simultaneously: the comprehension of English IE, and the translation of English IE into Arabic, while many of the reviewed studies examined translation from Arabic into English.

Furthermore, this study also aimed to use the subjects' responses to create a classification of the errors made and the translation strategies used.

Methodology

Research Design

As discussed above, the aim of this study was to examine whether or not the subjects faced difficulties in understanding and translating IE, as well as to classify the translation strategies they used and the errors they made. Accordingly, the research followed a qualitative descriptive design model and the collected data was analyzed quantitatively. This section provides more details on the subjects, the instruments, and data analysis.

Subjects

The study population consisted of female students from the English Language Program at COLT, KSU. The sample of the study consisted of two groups of randomly selected students in their fourth and fifth years of study. The first group was composed of 57 subjects, while the second was composed of 46 subjects.

Instruments

In order to investigate the research questions, the researcher collected data from the subjects by administering two sets of tests. The first set was administered to the first group of subjects. However, preliminary analysis of the data collected from the first group of subjects using the first set of tests presented some contradictory findings. Thus, it was necessary to create a second set of tests that were given to a second group of subjects belonging to the same study population as it was not feasible to locate the students who participated in the first group of subjects since they had already graduated at the time.

The first set of tests. This set consisted of three tests: the Translation Test (Test 1), the Sentence Comprehension Test (Test 2), and the Multiple-Choice Recognition Test (Test 3). Each test was composed of 20 items. In Test 1, the subjects were required to translate English sentences containing IE into Arabic. The test aimed to evaluate the subjects' ability to transfer the meanings of IE from English into Arabic. In Test 2, the subjects were instructed to provide a paraphrase (in English) of the underlined IE in each sentence. This test aimed to evaluate the subjects' comprehension of English IE. Finally, in Test 3, the subjects were asked to choose the word or phrase that best represented the meaning of the underlined IE. This test aimed to evaluate the subjects' comprehension of some English IE.

The second set of tests. The second set consisted of two tests: the Multiple-Choice Translation Test (Test 4) and the Multiple-Choice Sentence Comprehension Test (Test 5). It was necessary to create these two additional tests after the preliminary findings indicated the need for further investigation. Each test consisted of 20 items. In Test 4, the subjects were required to choose the most suitable translation from a number of given choices. The aim of this test was to determine whether the errors committed by the first group of subjects on Test 1 were the result of their inability to understand the IE or their inability to produce correct/acceptable translations. In Test 5, the subjects were asked to choose the most suitable paraphrase from a number of given choices. The aim of this test was to determine whether the errors committed by the first group of

subjects on Test 2 were the result of their inability to understand the IE or their inability to produce acceptable paraphrases.

Reliability and validity. The split half procedure was used to establish reliability of the instruments, which were found to be reliable. To establish validity, the tests were rated by a number of faculty members at COLT who have experience in teaching translation. Their constructive comments and remarks were taken into consideration and necessary changes were made accordingly.

Discussion of Results

This section deals with the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. The discussion will be divided according to the research questions.

Research Question One

The first research question was: Do female Translation students face difficulties in understanding English IE? To answer this question the researcher examined the results of Test 2, Test 3, and Test 5 as the main purpose of these tests was to examine the subjects' ability to understand English IE. The researcher also took into consideration the results of Test 4 since it also measures whether or not the subjects understand English IE.

The sentence comprehension test and the multiple-choice sentence comprehension test. After analyzing the subjects' results on Test 2, it was found that 39.2% of the total paraphrases provided by the subjects were excellent, which is not a relatively high percentage. However, 29.64% of the total responses were left blank.

Nevertheless, these results do not necessarily indicate that the first group of subjects had difficulties in the comprehension of IE, as the test involves the skill of paraphrase. Therefore, it was necessary to verify whether the weak or incorrect scores were the result of miscomprehension or mistakes in paraphrasing.

Thus, Test 5 was created using the same sentences in Test 2. The results on Test 5 indicated that 82.71% of the subjects' total responses were correct, which is considered a relatively high percentage.

The multiple-choice recognition test. As for the results on Test 3 taken by the first group of subjects, the analysis revealed that the percentage of correct responses was 68% of the total number of responses which is not considered a relatively high percentage. Note that the items on Test 3 and Test 5 are different which explains the difference in results.

The multiple-choice translation test. The researcher included a discussion of the results of Test 4 taken by the second group of subjects here because the subjects' choices on this test provided an indication of their comprehension of the expressions on the test. As the choices they made were based on their comprehension of the sentences among other factors.

The subjects' performance on this test indicated that the percentage of correct responses was 75.7%, which is a relatively high percentage.

Hence, in response to the first research question, and after analyzing the data collected from the four relevant instruments, it may be concluded that the subjects of the study generally do not face difficulties in understanding IE.

Research Question Two

The second research question was: Do female Translation students face difficulties in translating English IE into Arabic? To answer this question, the researcher analyzed the subjects' results on Test 1 and Test 4.

After analyzing the subjects' translations on Test 1, it was found that 43% of the subjects' total responses were excellent translations, while 27% were incorrect translations.

Having reached these results, it could be inferred that the subjects generally do face difficulties in translating English IE into Arabic. Furthermore, when taking into consideration the subjects' results on Test 4 (i.e., the percentage of correct responses was approximately 75%), it may be also concluded that the relatively low scores can be attributed to difficulties in the process of translation itself, and not the miscomprehension of the IE since the subjects were generally able to choose the most suitable translation when provided with a number of choices.

Research Questions Three and Four

The third and fourth research questions were: What difficulties do the subjects face when they come across IE? And: How can these difficulties/errors be classified?

To answer these questions, the researcher examined the subjects' responses on Test 1. After analyzing the translations, the researcher indicated the major types of errors committed by the subjects. These error categories also helped in inferring the major areas of difficulty.

The errors were found to fall under 11 categories with some categories proving to be more statistically significant than others. Most of the error categories corresponded to those found by Shudooh (1988) and Al-Qahtany (2004). Details of the percentage of the occurrence of each error type are shown in Table 1. Due to the limitations of space, the researcher will only discuss the major error categories in this article.

Table 1

Percentage of the Occurrence of Each Error Type

Error Type	N	%
Miscomprehension of original	239	41.71
Wrong choice of word	131	22.9
Literal translation	88	15.35
Register/style	42	7.32
Omission	25	4.36
Sentence structure	24	4.18
Addition	14	2.44
Ambiguity	5	0.87
Redundancy	3	0.52

Transliteration	1	0.17
Use of exact English expression	1	0.17

Miscomprehension of the original. After examining the subjects' translations, it appeared that most of the errors occurred as a result of the subjects' inability to understand the meaning of the original English sentence (i.e., 41.71%). As a consequence, the translations were incorrect because they expressed meanings other than those intended by the ST.

Shudooh (1988) explained that errors caused by miscomprehension of the ST represent a serious problem as these errors result in sentences with distorted meanings. He also mentioned that these errors were mainly caused by the subjects' weak command of English which prevented them from grasping the intended meaning.

The following sentences are some examples of the occurrence of this error type:

1. The new speed violation laws will go into effect immediately.

أن القوانين الجديدة غير العادلة ستتغير مباشرة.

2. The ideas discussed in the conference were ahead of their time.

القضايا التي تم طرحها في المؤتمر أخذت وقتاً طويلاً.

Wrong choice of word. This error category represents the second major area of difficulty at 22.9%. The subjects made frequent mistakes in their choice of word either due to similarity in form or meaning to another word, wrong choice of derivation, or wrong collocation.

It was noticed in one particular sentence "The new speed violation laws will go into effect immediately", that many of the subjects substituted the word "violence" for the word "violation" because many of the translations contained the word "عنف", which is the Arabic equivalent of "violence".

In some cases, the wrong choice of word was the result of an attempt at yielding an idiomatic expression or collocation. For example, as a translation for "a big fish in a small pond", one of the responses was: نجماً وحيداً في مجتمعه.

Literal translation. Literal translation accounted for 15.35% of the total number of errors. It was noticed that the subjects resorted to literal translation in some sentences more than others. Some examples of the occurrence of literal translation are:

1. With his specialized degree, he was considered a big fish in a small pond.

بشهادته المتخصصة أعتبر كسمكة كبيرة في حوض صغير.

2. The rise in the value of the Euro will work to the advantage of some companies.

سيكون الأرز بقيمة اليورو لصالح بعض الشركات.

Research Question Five

The fifth and final research question was: What strategies do the subjects resort to when dealing with IE in translation? In order to answer this question, the researcher mainly used the responses on Test 1, which was given to the first group of subjects. After the subjects' translations were graded and the error types were classified, the researcher used the responses to create a classification of the strategies they used to translate the SL sentences.

Generally speaking, the strategies used by the subjects of the study corresponded to some of the compensation strategies outlined by Oxford (1990). Namely, with regards to the aspect of comprehension and especially when the meaning of the idiom was unclear, the subjects seemed to resort to guessing which could have been accomplished through linguistic clues since learners use guessing when their lack of knowledge of vocabulary or grammar prevents them from understanding the intended meaning (Oxford, 1990).

As for the translation process, the subjects generally tried to overcome limitations in writing by applying a number of strategies, some of which corresponded loosely to Oxford's (1990), such as:

1. Avoiding communication partially or totally when subjects omitted the translation of IE which was probably because they were unable to understand them.
2. Adjusting or approximating the message when subjects provided near equivalent expressions by rendering expressions that were attempts at creating IE in the TL, or when they used literal translation.
3. Using circumlocution or synonyms when the subjects provided paraphrases of the expressions.

It was found that the subjects mainly used seven strategies: paraphrase, literal translation, use of an idiom or attempting an idiomatic translation, omission, use of a colloquial expression, transliteration, and use of the exact English expression. Details of the percentage of use for each strategy type are further presented in Table 2. Due to the limitations of space, the researcher will only discuss the major strategy categories in this article.

Table 2

Percentage of the Occurrence of Each Strategy Type

Strategy Type	N	%
Paraphrase	774	72.13
Literal Translation	165	15.4
Use of an Idiom/Attempting an Idiomatic Translation	101	9.4
Omission	29	2.7
Use of a Colloquial Expression	2	0.19
Transliteration	1	0.09
Use of Exact English Expression	1	0.09

Paraphrase. As shown in Table 2, paraphrase was the translation strategy most commonly used by the subjects as it represented 72.13%. Callison-Burch clarified that paraphrases are: “alternative ways of expressing the same content” (2007, p. 11). Multiple translations of a ST are considered paraphrases because they express the same meaning (Barzilay, 2003, cited in Callison-Burch, 2007).

Paraphrase is considered a valid communication strategy (Oxford, 1990; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; James, 1998), and a common translation strategy with regards to IE especially when there is no TL equivalent (Baker, 1992; Ayoub, 1994). Nevertheless, paraphrase translation should only be used if there are no TL equivalents for the ST (McGuire, 1980, cited in Al-Qahtany, 2004; Al-Hamdallah, 1998), since it might not always be useful to use paraphrase because it is strange to replace a word or phrase with a longer rendition (Baker, 1992).

The subjects mostly resorted to paraphrase in the study because many of the expressions used in Test 1 did not have equivalents in the TL. However, not all paraphrases were correct translations since paraphrasing mainly relies on full comprehension of the SL expression and the ability to render this understanding into the TL. Even cases of incorrect or weak paraphrase could not always be definitely attributed to miscomprehension of the IE because the subjects may have understood the idioms but were unable to express their meanings correctly. Below are some examples from the subjects' responses:

1. The thief was caught red-handed.

قبض على اللص متلبساً.

2. The library has a place where you can return books after hours.

يوجد مكان في المكتبة لإعادة الكتب بعد انتهاء ساعات العمل.

Literal translation. Literal translation represented the second major translation strategy at 15.4%. Baker (1992) explained that translators usually resort to literal translation when they are unable to recognize IE as such.

Some commonly occurring instances of the use of literal translation, were: the translation of "after hours" as "بعد ساعات", the translation of "double-edged sword" into "سيف ذو حدين" instead of the common Arabic IE "سلاح ذو حدين", the translation of "window of opportunity" into "نافذة من", and the translation of "a big fish in a small pond" into "سمكة كبيرة في حوض/وعاء صغير".

Findings

It was found that the subjects of the study generally did not face difficulties in the comprehension of English IE, while they generally did face difficulties in the translation of English IE into Arabic. Some of the difficulties faced by the subjects may be attributed to the subjects' inability to recognize IE as such.

As for error types and translation strategies, the error types committed by the subjects of this study fell under the following eleven categories: miscomprehension of original, wrong choice of word, literal translation, register/style, omission, sentence structure, addition, ambiguity, redundancy, transliteration, and use of exact English expression. While the translation strategies they used fell under the following seven categories: paraphrase, literal translation, use of an idiom/attempting an idiomatic translation, omission, use of a colloquial expression, transliteration, and use of the exact English expression.

It was found that among the eleven error categories detected and classified in this study, three were the most serious: miscomprehension of the original at 41.71%, wrong choice of word at 22.9%, and literal translation at 15.35%. It may be argued that miscomprehension and literal translation errors were mainly attributed to the subjects' inability to recognize the expressions as

idiomatic. Errors in wrong word choice were probably caused by the substitution of the correct words with other words either similar in form or meaning, wrong choice of collocation, or wrong derivation.

It was found that among the seven translation strategies used by the subjects in this study, two may be considered the most common: paraphrase at 72.13% and literal translation at 15.4%. The reason behind the high percentage of paraphrase use was probably the fact that many of the idioms in the study did not have clear Arabic idiomatic equivalents. As for literal translation, although it was the second most used translation strategy, in many cases it yielded incorrect or weak translations.

Conclusion

To conclude, it was noticed that the findings of this study contradicted with the findings of some studies, while corresponding to the findings of others as follows:

With regards to the comprehension of IE, the researcher concluded that, generally speaking, the subjects did not face difficulties in understanding IE. This could have been because the expressions used were generally high-frequency idioms that were familiar to the subjects.

However, other studies (Abu-Afeefeh, 1987; Hussein et al., 2000) revealed that learners face difficulties in the comprehension of IE especially those that are not similar or identical between Arabic and English. Furthermore, these studies examined translation from Arabic into English, while the present study examined translation from English into Arabic, and since the subjects of both their studies were non-native speakers of English in addition to the fact that English idioms are generally considered difficult, this probably influenced the subjects' performance.

As for the translation of idioms, the present study showed that the subjects generally faced difficulties in translating English IE into Arabic. This corresponds to the findings of Bataineh (1996), Hussein et al. (2000), and Badawi (2008).

Moreover, while classifying the subjects' errors, the researcher noticed that the errors detected in their translations corresponded to some categories previously outlined by others (Zaghlool, 1984; Zughoul, 1990, cited in Migdadi, 1994; Shudooh, 1988; Al-Qahtany, 2004).

With respect to the three criteria of error level: modality, medium, and level (James, 1998), the subjects' errors can generally be described as follows:

1. Modality: The errors were receptive during the process of reading the items to understand them before translation (e.g., miscomprehension of the original), and they were simultaneously productive during the process of producing the translations of the items (e.g., literal translation and errors of register/style).
2. Medium: The errors were all of written language, since the subjects were required to produce written translations of the items.
3. Level: The significant errors were found to be those in composing and understanding. The researcher also detected lexical errors, such as wrong choice of word, and grammatical errors, such as those found in sentence structure.

As for the strategies detected in this study, the researcher found that the subjects

generally used the translation strategies outlined by Baker (1992), as well as other strategies, such as literal translation and avoidance (Migdadi, 1994). These strategies corresponded to some strategies mentioned by Badawi (2008). The subjects also used some of the learning strategies outlined by Oxford (1990) and Scarcella and Oxford (1992).

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About the Author:

Dania Salamah is a lecturer at the Department of English Language and Translation, College of Languages and Translation (COLT), King Saud University. She received her BA in English Translation from COLT in 2003 and her MA in Applied Linguistics from the College of Arts, King Saud University in 2012. Dania started working at COLT in 2004 as a TA, and then as a lecturer in 2012.

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Code-switching in Daily Conversations among Iraqi Students in Malaysia

Saka Sally Sardar

School of Language Studies and Linguistics
Faculty of Social Science and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan, Malaysia

Alsamrayee Ahmad Ali Mahdi

School of Language Studies and Linguistics
Faculty of Social Science and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Yasin Mohamad Subakir Mohd

School of Language Studies and Linguistics
Faculty of Social Science and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Abstract

Code switching is the process of shifting from one language to another one in the same conversation. It is a generally observed phenomenon in bilingual or multilingual speakers' interactions. It occurs more commonly in the informal contexts where participants of the conversations are among friends, family members or acquaintances. Code-switching (CS) is common among Arabic speakers so they regularly switch codes from English to Arabic in their utterances too. Iraqi students are not an exception so they frequently use English-Arabic code switching. This paper intends to examine code switching behavior of Iraqi speakers and the types of code switching used by them. Furthermore, it seeks to explore the causes and consequences of code switching phenomenon on Iraqi students' target language proficiency. To achieve the objectives of the study, the researchers conducted a case study using a survey questionnaire and audio taping a 35-minutes conversation among six Iraqi students in a Malaysian university. The findings of the study indicate that Iraqi students use various types of CS mostly to assert the group identity and as a result of lack of vocabulary in English (L2).

Keywords: code mixing in Malaysia, conversation analysis, English-Arabic code switching, Iraqi students in Malaysia, Language use in Malaysian universities

Introduction

Code switching refers to the use of more than one language in a conversation which occurs mostly unconsciously. This phenomenon can be seen regularly among speakers in bilingual or multilingual societies or among the learners of a second language. Code switching is also known as code mixing and code shifting, mostly occurs in informal conversations when one has a conversation with a friend, neighbor, classmate or family members. Prior to defining code switching phenomenon, the term 'code' should be defined. Bernstein (1971) defines code as any system of signals, such as numbers and words that conveys concrete meaning. Wardhaugh (2000) considers code as a neutral concept which represents the system that is employed by two or more speakers in the conversation.

Over the past few decades, particularly from 1980s, several scholarly research have been conducted to investigate code switching phenomenon in order to "shed light on our understanding of bilingual speech behavior" (Jingxia, 2010). Consequently, several definitions have been offered by various scholars such as Fishman (1970), Gumperz (1982), Heller (1988), Bokamba (1989), Eastman (1992), Jacobson (1997) and Crystal (2003) to define the concept of code switching (CS). Bokamba (1989) defined code switching as "the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two distinct grammatical (sub) systems across sentence boundaries within a speech event". Later in 1995, Muysken pointed out that CS is "the alternative use by bilinguals (or multilinguals) of two or more languages in the same conversation". Numan and Carter (2001) referred to CS as "a phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse". More recently, Yao (2011) defined code switching as the phenomenon of switching two or more languages within a conversation. However, this study relies on Cook's (2013) definition that considers code-switching as the process of shifting "from one language to the other in mid-speech" when all of the speakers involved in the conversation know the same languages.

Jamshidi & Navehebrahim (2013) argue that in code switching process 'code' can be "any systems of signals which can be used for sending a message, a term which is used instead of language, speech variety, or dialect" (186). However, in the code switching phenomenon, 'code' converting can occur in various scopes such as between languages (Azuma, 2001), dialects (Alfonzetti, 1998), and styles and registers (Farris, 1992). In the current study, the scope of code is between two different languages, English as the second language (L2) and Arabic as the first language (L1). It attempts to investigate code switching from English to Arabic among Iraqi students who study at the postgraduate level at Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). To be more specific, this paper explores code switching occurrence among Iraqi students and the reasons, factors, consequences and effects on the students L2 proficiency.

Before delving deeper into the subject, it is essential to refer to the various types of code switching. There are several categorizations of code switching types such as Gumperz's (1982) classification which involves in two categories of situational CS which refers to the alteration in participants and/or strategies, and metaphorical CS that refers to the alteration in topical emphasis. Auer (2013) considers two types for CS phenomenon entitled discourse-related alternation and participant alternation. In the following year, Lin (1990) offered two types of code-switching and known as alternational and insertional code-switching. However, this study employs Poplack's (1980) categorization of CS.

Poplack (1980) categorized code switching into 3 types known as tag-switching or extra-sentential, inter-sentential switching and intra-sentential switching. Tag-switching, refers to the insertion of a tag phrase from a language into a statement from another language. Inter-sentential code switching involves in a change occurring at a clause or sentence level, where each clause or sentence is either in one language or the other. Inter-sentential CS requires high proficiency in both L1 and L2 compared to tag-switching CS as it involves in the clause or sentence change. Lastly, intra-sentential which is perceived as the most complicated type of code switching that occurs within the clause or sentence boundary. Although intra-sentential CS is the most frequent type of CS in conversations, however, most of the proficient bilingual or multilingual speakers avoid using intra-sentential CS as it contains the highest syntactic risk.

Relying on Poplack's categorization of the CS phenomenon, this paper intends to investigate the speech behavior and particularly the code switching phenomenon among Iraqi students who use English as their second language. The main objective of the study is to identify the types of CS which is frequently used by postgraduate Iraqi linguistics students and the factors leading to CS in their utterances. Furthermore, this paper examines the consequences and effects of CS on the students' L2 (English language) proficiency.

Statement of the problem

According to Al-Hourani & Afizah (2013), the majority of the postgraduate students who use English as the second language (L2) for the medium of the instruction at a university level encounter the phenomenon of CS in their daily conversations with other speakers of the same first language (L1). However, most of them are not aware of the negative consequences of the frequent use of CS on their L2 proficiency as well as their future career. According to Kalong & Zakaria (2010), code switching which happens regularly among less proficient L2 speakers might be due to the speakers' limited knowledge of the target language or their difficulties in recalling "the suitable structure or lexicon" of L2 which is English in this study. Sert (2005) argues that the frequent use of CS will have a long term undesirable influence on the speakers' L2 acquisition since it may cause loss of fluency in L2. Therefore, the more frequently L2 learners use code switching, the higher chance for them to encounter fluency loss in learning the target language, English in this case. As a result, learners might encounter demotivation and lack of confidence in learning the target language. Sert (2005) highlights that recurrent use of code switching leads the students to lose their interest in acquiring the target language since they know that there is always a chance to code switch when they have difficulties in the target language so they will not try to master the target language proficiently.

On the other hand, Sert (2005) states that code switching might be a useful system for the speakers to fully express themselves so it can be perceived as "a way of modifying language for the sake of personal intentions" (2). Trudgill (2000) also claims that "speakers switch to manipulate or influence or define the situation as they wish and to convey nuances of meaning and personal intention (105)". Thus, code switching can help the speakers in their self-expression among a group of speakers who have common L1 and L2. In addition, CS will assist the speakers to create intimate interpersonal relationships with other members of a bilingual community. Hence, CS can be considered as a method for "creating linguistic solidarity especially between individuals who share the same ethno-cultural identity" (Sert, 2005).

Based on the aforementioned functions of CS, it can have both positive and negative effects on the speakers. Iraqi students, who constantly switch code from English as L2 and Arabic as L1 in their daily conversations, will encounter the effects and consequences of code switching in their speech. Such effects can be either positive or negative. This paper examines the code switching behavior of Iraqi students to identify the causes and factors that lead to CS phenomenon as well as influences of CS on their L2 learning process and their future career.

Research questions

According to the above mentioned introduction, this paper seeks to find the answers to the following research questions.

1. What are the most common types of code switching among Iraqi students?
2. What are the common factors that lead to code switching from English as the target language (L2) to Arabic as the first language (L1) in Iraqi students' utterances?
3. What are the impacts of code switching phenomenon on L2 proficiency of the Iraqi students?

Research objectives

This paper intends to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify the types of CS which are frequently used by Iraqi students.
2. To explore the factors leading to code switching from English to Arabic in conversations among Iraqi students.
3. To examine the consequences and effects of English-Arabic code switching on the Iraqi students' L2 (English) proficiency.

In order to obtain a better insight about CS phenomenon among Arabic speakers, it is significantly crucial to have a review of the previous researches conducted on the subject matter. The following section will provide a brief literature review on the previous studies about CS among Arabic speakers.

Literature review

English-Arabic code-switching is considered as a commonly observed phenomenon among Arab speakers. Several studies have proved the frequent use of English-Arabic CS among Arabic speakers. Abalhassan & Alshalawi (2000) highlighted the recurrence of CS among Arab speakers in the United States by declaring that "without exception, all respondents switched into Arabic to some degree" (183).

Al-Hourani & Afizah (2013) investigated the English-Arabic CS behavior and its occurrence among Jordanian speakers in Malaysia. They found that the major causes of CS among Jordanian speakers are "familiarity among respondents, the setting, change of topics in discussion and their ages". The findings of their research showed that Jordanian speakers tend to code switch when they are familiar with their co-respondents particularly when the co-respondents are from friends or family members. According to Al-Hourani & Afizah (2013) there is another factor that leads to CS is the setting as the majority of their research respondents expressed their tendency to switch code when they are at home rather than an educational setting. They also considered change of topics as another factor that result in CS. Finally, they referred to the minor role of age in the occurrence of CS phenomenon.

Although various researches have been conducted on code switching phenomenon among Arab speakers, but there are limited studies on this phenomenon among Iraqi students and their speech behavior. Therefore, this paper intends to shed lights on the Iraqi speakers' use of code switching in order to provide a vivid picture of their CS behavior in their daily interactions. It is hoped that by exploring the types, causes and consequences of CS phenomenon among Iraqi students, this research will assist the Iraqi English as a foreign language speakers to improve their proficiency of the English language.

Methodology

Participants

This research is a study of six Iraqi students who study in the MA in Linguistics at Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). The age range of the participants varies from 25 to 35 years old and all of them have the same first language which is Arabic and almost similar level of proficiency in the target language (L2: English language) according to their IELTS score (6.0). All of the selected participants of the study are classmates and friends. The rationale behind choosing 6 participants is that if the number of participants increases, the context will be more formal so students will be more cautious and reserved about their speech and consequently their natural code switching behavior cannot be analyzed. According to Waris (2012), "bilingual people come to be very self-conscious about their language change and try to avoid it in talking to strangers or on formal occasions" (127). Therefore, the researchers selected 6 participants who are friends and in their third semester of MA program in order to create an informal and friendly environment to prepare a ground for the participants to have natural speech behavior. Moreover, the setting (discussion) takes place in university library's discussion room where participants regularly gather to discuss about their projects. Three of the selected participants are male and three of them are female and their L2 proficiency level varies between pre-intermediate to intermediate level. The justification for choosing participants equally from both male (n=3) and female (n=3) genders is to provide a context in which participants do not feel marginalized. Furthermore, the researchers intend to analyze the role of gender in code switching behavior of Iraqi students in another study but it is not elaborately discussed in the current research as it is beyond the scope and objectives of the study.

Research instruments

In order to obtain a general and reliable representation of Iraqi students' code-switching behavior, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used, involving of a conversation among the participants and a survey questionnaires. In qualitative level, this study was conducted by recording a 35-minutes conversation among the participants. The topic of conversation was mostly involved in the participants' personal and education life in Malaysia. The recorded conversation was later transcribed and the transcription was used by the researchers to analyze code switching behavior of the participants. More precisely, the researchers examined the occurrence and the types of code switching that were used by the participants in their utterance.

In addition, for quantitative analysis, the participants were given a questionnaire which required them to choose the factors that lead them to use code switching in their conversation. The questionnaire provided a list of the common factors that lead speakers to switch codes in their speech. The participants were asked to tick the factor or factors that cause code switching in

their conversations. The obtained data were statistically processed by statistical package for the social science (SPSS) software and then interpreted by the researchers, which is presented in the result and discussion sections.

Results

The transcription analysis has shown that all three types of earlier explained Poplack's (1980) categories of code switching namely tag-switching, inter-sentential switching and intra-sentential switching were used by the participants in the recorded conversation. However, the frequencies of using these types of code switching were different. As illustrated in Table 1, the total number of code switching in the (35-minutes) recorded conversation by all of the participants was n=49 cases. Nevertheless, as shown in Table 1, the use of intra-sentential switching was most frequent as n=21 cases of switches (42.85%) from English to Arabic was intra-sentential. The second common type of CS was inter-sentential code switching (n=16) as 32.65% of the switches fall under this category. Finally, the least common type of CS among Iraqi students in the recorded conversation was tag code switching with 24.48% (n=12).

Table 1. Participants' feedback on types of code switching

	Tag code switching	Inter-sentential code switching	Intra-sentential code switching	Total
Frequency (n)	12	16	21	49
Percent (%)	24.48	32.65	42.85	100.0

By analyzing the transcript of the conversation, the researchers of the study found out that CS phenomenon among the research participants occurs due to several factors and reasons. For instance, in a part of the conversation, students were talking about the reasons that they have chosen Malaysia for further studies. One of the participants mentions that he has selected Malaysia "because it's a very peaceful country and there is no حرب or اصوات طلقات here unless the sound of ناربه العاب which makes everyone happy by its light and sound". In this sentence, the speaker intends to say that his reason of choosing Malaysia is that it's a peaceful country with no war and sound of gunshots. He continues by stating that the only explosion sound that can be heard in Malaysia is the sound of fireworks which makes people happy. According to the audio recorded from the conversation, the speaker pauses in his utterance to recall the words in English but due to his lack of vocabulary he cannot complete his sentence in English language so unwillingly he switches to Arabic. Instead of saying war, sound of shotguns and fireworks, he uses corresponding Arabic terms حرب, اصوات طلقات and ناربه العاب. Other instances of CS in the conversation prove that there are several underlying factors that lead to CS.

In order to identify the influential factors in CS occurrence, the researchers provided a list of the probable factors that lead the speakers to switch code from L2 to L1. Consequently, they provided a questionnaire to identify the causes of CS in the participants' speech. The questionnaires were distributed among the participants and they were inquired about their personal reasons of CS. A list of factors including; 'to signify the group identity', 'age', 'to emphasize and elaborate details to the other speakers', 'to fill a gap', 'lack of proficiency in L2', 'lack of L2 vocabulary' and 'privacy' were provided in the questionnaire and students were asked to tick the factor/s that leads them to switch code from English into Arabic. The feedback from the survey questionnaire proved that from the presented factors in the questionnaire 'to signify group identity' and 'lack of vocabulary in L2' were the major causes of CS occurrence.

Table 2 presents the data collected from the survey questionnaire (Appendix A) which are then analyzed by SPSS version 16 for statistical description. Six participants of the survey are presented by letters A-F and their responses are illustrated in Table 2. Respondent A considers 'signifying group identity', 'emphasizing and elaborating the details', 'filling the gap', 'lack of vocabulary in the target language' and 'privacy' as the factors that lead him/her to switch from English (L2) to Arabic (L1). Respondent B mentions 'signifying group identity' and 'privacy' as the two causes of code switching occurrence. On the other hand, respondent C highlights 'signifying group identity', 'highlighting and elaborating the details', 'filling the gap', 'insufficient proficiency in the target language (English)', 'lack of vocabulary' and 'privacy' as the influential factors leading to CS. Respondent D refers to 'signify group identity', 'emphasize and elaborate the details', 'fill the gap', 'lack of proficiency in L2', and 'lack of L2 vocabulary' as the features that lead the speaker to switch from English to Arabic. Respondent E points out 'to signify group identity', and 'lack of L2 vocabulary' as the underlying causes that result in code switching occurrence. Lastly, respondent F identifies 'to emphasize and elaborate the details', 'to fill the gap', lack of proficiency in L2, and 'lack of L2 vocabulary' as the influential factors that cause CS in the speaker's utterance.

Table 2. Factors leading to code switching

Factors Participants	Age	Signify group identity	Emphasize and elaborate the details	Feeling worried	Fill the gap	Lack of proficiency in L2	Lack of vocabulary	Privacy
A	×	√	√	×	√	×	√	√
B	×	√	√	×	×	×	×	√
C	×	√	√	×	√	√	√	√
D	×	√	√	×	√	√	√	×
E	×	√	×	√	×	√	√	×
F	×	×	√	×	√	√	√	×

The presented feedback and data from the participants were analyzed by SPSS software and the obtained data is presented in Table 3. The data shows, that the lack of vocabulary (n=5) and signifying the group identity (n=5) are the major factors that result in CS phenomenon among Iraqi students by 19.23%. The second important criteria that lead to the occurrence of CS phenomenon are 'emphasize and elaborate the details' (n=4), 'fill the gap' (n=4), and 'lack of proficiency in L2' (n=4) by 15.38%. Privacy (n=3) and feeling worried (n=1) are the other factors that lead to CS in the Iraqi students utterances with 11.53% and 3.84% respectively. In contrast, none of the participants consider age as an influential factor on the occurrence of CS phenomenon.

Table 3. Frequency and percentage of the factors that cause code switching

Factors	Age	Signify group identity	Emphasize and elaborate the details	Feeling worried	Fill the gap	Lack of proficiency in L2	Lack of vocabulary	Privacy	Total
Frequency (n)	0	5	4	1	4	4	5	3	26
Percent (%)	0	19.23	15.38	3.84	15.38	15.38	19.23	11.53	100.0

Discussion

The data from the three tables show that Iraqi students use all three categories of code switching known as tag-switching, inter-sentential switching and intra-sentential switching in their daily conversations. However, the majority of switches fall under the category of intra-sentential code switching (42.85%). Regardless of the type of CS Iraqi students use in their interactions, there are some common factors that lead to CS occurrences. For Iraqi students, the major causes of CS occurrences indicate that group identity as the main reason of CS as the speakers share the same culture and background identity, while the lack of vocabulary knowledge in target language is also a very important reason for code switching. Other factors such as ‘particularizing and elaborating details to the co-speakers’, ‘filling a gap in the conversation’, ‘lack of proficiency in target language’, ‘keeping the group privacy’ and to a lesser extent ‘feeling worried about their English (L2) proficiency’ also play important roles in Iraqi students’ code switching from English to Arabic.

After analyzing the types and causes of CS occurrence among Iraqi students, it is crucial to examine the impacts and consequences of this phenomenon on the students L2 proficiency and ultimately on their future career life. Although, CS helps Iraqi students signify their group and national identity and express solidarity with the co-speakers in the group, it happens mostly due to the speakers’ limited command of English. Accordingly, if the occurrence of CS in the interaction is limited and for the sake of keeping the group privacy and solidarity, it can be perceived as a positive phenomenon that has positive impacts on the speakers. Otherwise, frequent use of CS in the conversation will lead the students to lose their confidence in the use of L2. Consequently, students should be aware of the negatives impacts of frequent use of CS in their interactions which becomes a barrier for their L2 improvement.

Conclusion

In linguistics Code-switching refers to the use of more than one language in conversation among the speakers who share the same first and second language. English-Arabic code switching is a common phenomenon in Iraqi students’ daily interactions. English-Arabic tag code switching, inter-sentential code switching and intra-sentential code switching are the kinds of CS that occurs due to several reasons and has various impacts on the Iraqi speakers. Limited use of CS in daily interactions, leads Iraqi students to indicate the solidarity with co-speakers in the conversation. However, frequent use of CS will have negative effects on the students’ confidence and proficiency in the use of target language (English).

About the authors:

Mohamad Subakir Mohd Yasin, PhD is a researcher and lecturer at the School of Language Studies and Linguistics, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, where he researches and teaches in English syntax, gender studies and language use. He has an extensive research background in the Middle East region where he and his team of researchers have been awarded a research grant by the Qatar Foundation in the recent years.

Sally Sardar Saka is a master student at Faculty Social Sciences & Humanities, School of Language Studies and Linguistics, University Kebangsaan Malaysia. She has a bachelor degree at English Department, Faculty of languages, University of Salahaddin, Erbil, Kurdistan Region, Iraq.

Ahmad Ali Mahdi is a master student at Faculty Social Sciences & Humanities, School of Language Studies and Linguistics, University Kebangsaan Malaysia. He has a bachelor degree in English language at Faculty of Human science, Diyala University, Iraq.

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Appendix A: survey questionnaire

Name:

Age:

Gender:

What are the factors that lead to code-switching in your speech? Tick the factors from following table that you find powerful and if there are any other factor/s specify, please.

Factors	Age	Signify group identity	Emphasize and elaborate the details	Feeling worried	Fill the gap	Lack of proficiency in L2	Lack of vocabulary	Privacy
Participants								

Tick the correct factor/s								

Please, specify other factor/s (if there)

Thanks for your cooperation

Difficulties and Strategies in Translating Collocations in BBC Political Texts

Khetam W. Shraideh

Dept. of English, University of Jordan,
Amman, Jordan

Radwan S. Mahadin

Dept. of English, University of Jordan,
Amman, Jordan

Abstract

This paper investigates the most common difficulties, the different types of strategies used by the BA and MA students when translating collocations in political texts into Arabic. A questionnaire of 20 collocations taken from BBC political texts was designed and distributed to a sample of 80 students from two Jordanian universities: the University of Jordan and Yarmouk University. The participants were asked to translate English collocations into Arabic. The findings reveal that many participants used *synonymy* and *literal translation* as primary strategies to render collocations followed by *paraphrasing* and *transposition* respectively. However, *approximation*, *elaboration and explication*, and *omission* occupied the lowest rank in terms of frequency of use. The findings also indicate that many MA students have a good knowledge of collocations, whereas most BA students show a lack of knowledge of collocations in both universities. More importantly, the findings show that there is a significant difference among the means of all the students' responses in the strategies they used in translating the collocations. The study concludes with some recommendations that can help students develop their competence of collocations.

Keywords: BBC political texts, collocations, difficulties, strategies, translating

Introduction

The paper attempts to investigate the difficulties that BA and MA students in English and Translation Departments encounter in translating collocations in BBC political texts. More specifically, it aims at exploring the difficulties and strategies that BA and MA students encounter and employ when translating collocations. Besides, the used strategies and the differences in the types of strategies used by the students.

For this purpose, a questionnaire that included 20 sentences and their collocations related to BBC political texts were designed. It was distributed to a sample of 80 students from two Jordanian universities, the University of Jordan (UJ) and Yarmouk University (YU). The participants were asked to translate English collocations into Arabic.

More specifically, the study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. What are the difficulties that BA and MA students in English and Translation Departments encounter when translating collocations?
2. What strategies do BA and MA students use while translating collocations? What are the most used ones? Are there any differences in the types of strategies used by the participants?
3. Are there any significant differences due to the program (BA and MA) as well as the university (UJ or YU)?

Finally, this study will shed light on the issue of political translation and it will raise the awareness of the translator regarding this issue, as well as it will suggest some solutions. The study provides the domain with a variety of translations to selected collocations in BBC political texts from English into Arabic. Besides, it can be beneficial to students in translation departments and avail them the opportunity to come across such collocations and know how to deal with them while translating similar collocations in political texts from English into Arabic. Furthermore, the study shows the pitfalls of translation strategies used and common difficulties faced in rendering such collocations, and provide suggested translations.

Study Background

Translation has become one of the basic means for cross-cultural communication for human beings. It influences the way people communicate to understand other languages, cultures, and beliefs in conscious and unconscious ways.

According to Toury (1980:200), translation is considered as a type of activity which definitely involves at least two languages and two cultural traditions. Accordingly, scholars who question the possibility of translation (Nida, 1964:156; Toury, 1980:200; Baker, 1992:10; and Shunnaq, 1997:16) argue that language and culture are intrinsically connected; thus, cultural diversity makes translation a hard task. More specifically, Nida (1964:156) states that since no two languages are identical either in meanings given or in phrases and sentences, there can be no absolute correspondence between languages.

In addition, Shunnaq (1997:18) adds that variations between languages in terms of linguistic forms and cultural patterns may vary in scope depending on the cultural and linguistic gap between the two languages. This, in turn, leads to lack of synonymy of culture-bound expressions.

As for Translation Problems, translators should be aware of the problems that can be encountered during the translation process. Most of these problems are related to reading and comprehension ability in the source language. Therefore, Tricás (1995:19) characterizes the most frequent translation difficulties of a semantic and cultural nature of a text as linguistic untranslatability. This includes: **cognates** like *cotton* and the Arabic word *quTun*; **calque** e.g., the English phrase 'to lose face', taken from Chinese, institutional and standardized terms; **neologisms** e.g., 'quark' (the cry of the gull); and **aphorisms** e.g. 'there is more than one way to skin a cat', etc.

In addition, another source of difficulty is the cultural expressions that can be found in **proverbs**, e.g. *a bad tree does not yield good apples* which means if the source is bad, the results will also be bad; **collocations** e.g., *His work absorbed him completely*; **phrasal verbs** e.g. *look after*; and **figures of speech** such as metaphors. Besides, cultural untranslatability can be found in **idioms**, e.g. *it rains cats and dogs*; *sayings*; **jokes**; and **puns** e.g. 'You can *tune* a guitar, but you can't *tuna* fish'.

Moreover, it is sometimes difficult to find the exact lexical equivalents in the target language (TL), and to deal with the cultural aspects implicit in the source language (SL). In addition, conveying the intended semantic message from the SL into TL can be another difficulty that the translator needs to resolve.

As for Translating Political Texts, The theorists Hatim & Mason (1990, 1997) describe translation as "a communicative process that takes place in a social context". They claim that the translator is doing the work within a large social system that incorporates several dimensions. Social purposes, context and the relationship between the sender and the receiver play an important role in translation. More importantly, because each culture or country has its own political system, political language can be difficult to translate.

According to Newmark (1991:147-148), the political language contains many abstract concepts which may cause difficulties that, at first sight, seem to be easy to translate. Take, for examples, the words *democracy* and *communism* which exist in many languages. A direct translation of these words could turn out to be hard because conveying the intended meaning may not be straightforward. Such concepts often have different meanings in different countries since they are strongly influenced by the political tradition of their countries (Newmark, 1991: 142).

As mentioned earlier, translation is essential to understand global relations in terms of arts, science, law, economics, literature, technology and politics. Thus, politics is considered to be one of the problematic areas in translation since it is an important part of human daily life. It plays a key role in forming people's social, economic, philosophical and ideological thinking. Therefore, translating political texts from one language into another is not an easy task due to cultural differences between languages. As a result, in order to carry out the translation process successfully, translators should be familiar with SL and TL as well as with the subject itself.

On the other hand, the effective role of politics in humans' lives gives importance to the translation of political books and works. Consequently, the importance of translating political

texts and terms is drastically increasing due to the continuous emergence of new terms and expressions which require accurate translation without missing the senses of the expressions.

Collocations

The term collocation was originally introduced by Firth (1951:196): Collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly related to the conceptual approach of the meaning of words. He believes that *night* collocates with *dark*. Furthermore, he differentiates between collocation, on one hand, and the contextual meaning on the other hand. Halliday (1966:45) and Sinclair (1966:5) support this idea and introduce the idea that patterns of collocation can form the basis for a lexical analysis of language instead of the predominating grammatical analysis.

A collocation manifests the relationship between the requirements of terms on account of different words in the surroundings. Collocational behavior is very important to understand language learning concepts. While speaking and writing, native speakers of English use a set of grammatical rules, discrete words, as well as ready-made chunks (Robins, 1967: 21). These chunks are fixed, identifiable, non-idiomatic phrases, recurrent word combinations, or collocations (Benson & Ilson, 1997:54). In addition, native speakers generally use collocations instinctively and without restoring to vocabulary memory of conscious choice. Thus, they can combine words together in a great number of ready-made chunks and in various ways in different contexts.

On the other hand, inappropriate collocations are often produced by most non-native speakers due to the fact that English words are not linked in collocations in the non-native speakers' memory. Thus, words that are associated to each other and co-occur repeatedly in a prefabricated chunk are referred to as collocations. Thus a collocation is a combination of two or more words that always occur together in different contexts in a language. For example, *curdled* milk and *sour* milk are well-established collocations that are remembered and are used by native speakers as chunks. By contrast, *rotten* milk is not stored as a unit in a native speakers' memory and therefore, is not a collocation.

A collocation can also be seen as a multi-word expression that acts in the text as a unit or as a sequence of words which, as a group, has a meaning that is different from the meaning of its individual words. Most collocations consist of two words; generally a certain noun with a certain adjective, e.g. *blind confidence* 'ثقة عمياء' 'Θεα ἄμυνα'; a verb with a noun, e.g. *draw a sword* 'يَسْتَلُّ سيفا' 'jastallu sajfan'; a noun with a noun, e.g. *brain drain* 'هجرة العقل' 'Hedʒratu l-ʕuqu:l'; etc. (Benson, 1985: 107).

In translation, the process of transferring the meaning of a collocation is not an easy task. It requires the translator to have a good knowledge of both texts and cultures under question. In addition, in the process of finding an efficient equivalent for the inter-lingual idiomatic pairs, a translator should be aware of the metaphorical meanings that a collocation may contain. Besides, collocations can include many cultural aspects such as religious beliefs, specific cultural items, superstitions, and different ideologies of people from diverse societies and nations. Because of the vital role of collocations, which reflects the culture of any nation in a language, translating them from the SL into the TL is an indispensable task that aims to understand the mutual contact among cultures, religions, and languages.

Therefore, many linguists and scholars have paid great attention to translating collocations. Many linguists have studied collocations intensively and thus have taken a collocational and conventional perspective on language rather than an analytical perspective (e.g. Firth, 1957:93; Sinclair, 1966: 32; Halliday, 1966:148; among others). Some scholars have studied collocations in non-native speakers' written performance (e.g. Zhang, 1993:11; Al-Zahrani, 1998:43), etc.

In case of importance of collocations, unlike grammar and vocabulary, collocations have not received widespread linguistic attention. According to Gitsaki (1999:23), studies on collocation to date have been insufficient. However, there have been few studies that tackled the necessity for Arab learners to study English collocations (e.g. Farghal & Obeidat, 1995: 318; Hussain, 1998; Liu, 2000: 165; and Mahmoud, 2005: 66). This emphasizes the need for more research on collocations since they are one of the challenges that adult language learners have to face as they learn English as a second or foreign language (Al-Zahrani, 1998:32). If learners acquire adequate collocational knowledge, they can reduce the collocational errors in their spoken language (Gitsaki, 1999:23).

Regarding collocational problems and difficulties, translating English collocations into Arabic constitutes major linguistic and cultural difficulties due to several reasons. First, the wide linguistic and cultural gap between English and Arabic led to lack of synonymy of specific-culture and bound collocational patterns. Since language is culture-oriented, a translator faces several problems in translating a text from one language into another because he/she does not translate only language but also culture, which carries different expressions, collocations, idioms, proverbs, etc.

More specifically, Al-Rawi (1994:3) argues that some difficulties could arise from the socio-cultural differences between the two languages. For him, both languages Arabic and English have collocations that may be used to make the cultural, social, political or economic life peculiar to a speech community. As an example, Arabic has *Sala:t al-dʒumuʿah* صلاة الجمعة 'Friday prayer' as a collocation, while English has *Sunday Mass*.

Hatim & Mason (1990:204) and Newmark (1981:114) maintain that naturalness should be the goal of the translator; otherwise, the translation would be odd and just unacceptable. They mention that finding the exact equivalent in the TL has been one of the major problems faced by a translator. SL interference is a danger that may escape as unnoticed even for the experienced translators, and result in unnatural collocation. In addition, what is a natural collocation for one language user may be less acceptable for another. In this sense, collocations perceived in texts can be pointers to an intended meaning which is not made explicit by other means (Hatim & Mason 1990:204).

Translators resort to using different strategies to overcome the problems encountered through the process of translating collocations when they cannot find a corresponding TL equivalent for the SL lexical item. Strategies can be emerged as soon as the translation cannot be carried out automatically. Garcia (1996:64) states that different procedures for the translation are

implemented to achieve a partially successful transfer when difficulties in translation become unavoidable.

There are three main problems that appear upon translating English collocations: The first one is the difficulty of generalization; some English words collocate with one and the same word, but they do not necessarily do so in Arabic (Faris & Sahu, 2013: 64). For example, *seize the opportunity* has an equivalent collocation in Arabic, '*jantahiz al-furSah* ينتهز الفرصة'. However, Arabic speakers say *jastawli ʕala s-sulTah* يستولي على السلطة for *seize power*, i.e. *seize* is not always *jantahiz* ينتهز. Therefore, students cannot generalize the meaning of a word which collocates with different words since it can be different from one collocation to another. The second problem lies in the variability of collocations (Faris & Sahu, 2013:64). In English, we can have different collocations for the same meaning, but in Arabic each collocation has one single meaning, e.g. *well and good/ hale and hearty/ right and proper* all equate to *biSiḥḥah wa ʕafjih* بصحة وعافية. Students, in general, do not realize such a concept and they tend to translate them literally. Finally, cultural idiomatic collocations pose another problem (Faris & Sahu, 2013:64). Such collocations are specific to the English culture and people. However, most of them have similar similes in Arabic but in a comparative grammatical form of exaggeration. Thus, the collocation *as pretty as a picture* is not to be translated as *dʒami:l ka-S-Su:rah* جميل كالصورة as most of the students do, but as *aḥla min S-Su:rah* أحلى من الصورة.

Literature Review

Theoretical Studies

Collocations are characterized by habitual placement of words. This indicates that if one word in a collocation is present in the text, the existence of the other word in that collocation can be assumed. Since, collocation represents an association between words; it has become a significant aspect in learning process. Halliday (1966:56) explains that collocations can feed in both lexis and grammar.

Many scholars have formulated lexical, semantic and structural approaches for examining collocations. The lexical approach is the oldest (Firth, 1951:195). It hypothesizes that a collocation is indirectly associated to the conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words (Firth, 1951:195; Halliday, 1966: 56; and Sinclair, 1991: 170). On the other hand, the semantic approach seeks to answer those questions that are pertinent to collocation categories. The collocation of a lexical item is identified with the assistance of semantic possessions (Katz & Fodor, 1963:175). The structural approach, by contrast, focuses on grammar and lexis. The essence of this approach is that the two elements of a collocation are different from each other but they have some common aspects. Hence, they cannot be alienated from one another.

Benson (1985: 61-68) has classified the collocations based on grammatical categories of words. In addition, he examined that the dominant words are used in grammatical collocations e.g. verb- adverb: *argue heatedly* and *walk fast*. These words are usually nouns, verbs or adjectives.

Different scholars have been studied the collocations from different points of their views such as: Faruqi (1994: 117), Malkawi (1995: 28), Gitsaki (1996: 17), Nofal (2012), etc.

Empirical Studies on Collocations

Various empirical studies investigate the phenomenon of collocations by examining the difficulties faced by the translators in interpreting them from the SL into the TL. For example, Dechert & Lennon (1989:103) argued that acquiring collocation is not an easy task for non-native speakers of English. After examining the non-native speakers who are studying English for the last ten years and have widespread contact with native speakers, the researchers found that advanced English major participants did not have the capability to produce linguistic expressions that met the native language criteria.

Shokouhi & Misalari (2010: 3) also conducted a test on 35 Iranians. They gave two tests to the participants, an expertise test and multiple choice tests. Grammatical and lexical collocations were given in tests. The researchers found that there was no connection between the collocation information and the linguistic knowledge. Their results support Biskup's (1992).

Farghal & Obeidat (1995:152) examined the problems faced by the learners and the strategies used in translating collocations. They inspected the model of junior and senior students of English at Yarmouk University and some teachers of English at the Ministry of Education. Two questionnaires about twenty-two general collocations related to core topics such as food, colors and weather were designed. The first questionnaire was an English 'fill-in-the-blank' task and the other was an Arabic transformation version of the English one.

Fakhouri (1995: 47-48) conducted a research to measure the difficulty of translating collocations. He conducted a test and included nine MA students of translation, five males and four females from English and Literature Department at Yarmouk University. The findings were as follows: First, complexity relates to the interpretation process itself and its complications as it incessantly presents the source text without enough time to process the target message. Second, intricacy relates to the interpreter himself/ herself and how he/she utilizes the linguistic and extra-linguistic elements to render the natural message in the target message. She concluded that the major strategy was message desertion and the least strategy was the claue strategy, while the other strategies such as *approximation*, *compensation*, *filtering*, *paraphrasing*, *deletion*, and *synonymy* were also adopted according to the frequency of usage.

There are many researchers studied collocations empirically from different points of views such as: Biskup (1992: 87), Lennon (1996, 23–36), Vrbinc's study (2005: 10), Bahns & Eldaw (1993: 102), Abdul-Fattah (2011:12), Khanji & Hussein (1999:11), Abdul-Fattah & Zughoul (2003: 14), Brashi (2005: 13), Abu Naba'h & Al-Shara'h (2011), Mustafa (2010), etc.

Methodology

Population and Sample of the Study

This section determines the population as the BA and MA students from English and Translation Departments at (UJ) and (YU) during the academic year 2014/2015. The study reveals the difficulties that translators face as well as the strategies they follow in translation. Whereas, the sample of the study consisted of 40 BA and 40 MA students from English and Translation Departments at (UJ) and (YU) during the academic year 2014/2015. The sample consisted of

equal number of BA and MA students from each university. The students were asked to translate 20 collocations in full sentences taken from Online BBC articles about the Arab Spring Revolution.

Instrument of the Study

From a descriptive point of view, this study focuses on exploring the most appropriate translation strategies by examining the translation process and the translator's tendencies for translating collocations. Qualitative and quantitative methods were used to measure the achievement of the study objectives. The designed questionnaire aimed to elicit the most frequently used strategies for translating collocations found in a number of BBC articles. The questionnaire consisted of two parts: a demographic part (participants' gender and the program), and the translation test that consisted of 20 collocations. In addition, the questionnaire has five groups; each group consists of a core word that can collocate with other four words. For example, the verb *deepen* can collocate with *rifts*, *crisis*, *turmoil* and *misery*.

Reliability and Validity of the Study

In order to ensure the validity of the study tool, the questionnaire was initially distributed to three faculty members from English and Translation Departments at (UJ) and (YU). They generously provided feedback on the suitability of the tool for the study sample and the reliability of the language used in the questionnaire. Based on their remarks and notes, the questionnaire was subsequently modified by changing some sentences to be clearer and easier to read. In addition, the study questions were arranged in a way that makes the participants' task easier.

For the purpose of ascertaining the external validity of the tool, 15 students tried the questionnaire as a pilot study. Having made some remarks on lack of clarity of some questions, the tool was adjusted again. In order to ensure the stability of the tool, the reliability coefficient *Cronbach's Alpha* was measured using the statistical analysis SPSS. It was close to 0.823, which indicates that the tool enjoys high stability and a very good degree of consistency. Then, the questionnaire was distributed to the study sample through choosing some BA and MA classes randomly in the academic year 2014/2015 from both universities. In addition, the participants were given a short introduction about the questionnaire in order to facilitate the process of answering it.

Data Collection

The study was conducted under the supervision of two professors from English Department at (UJ) and two professors from Translation Department at (YU). Notably, the professors are used to teaching translation courses in their institutions. In order to achieve the objectives of the research study, the questionnaire was administered to those professors' students. The students were given a brief introduction to acquaint them with task. They were asked to translate the English collocations and to identify the strategies they used.

Data Analysis

There are two independent variables that the study intended to measure. These are: the students' *responses* of collocation translation and the students' level (*MA* vs *BA*). The dependent variables are: the *strategy* used in translating the given collocations (the strategies selected by the researchers), the responses were collected on an excel worksheet for analysis. To analyze and

interpret the collected data, the researchers used the statistical analysis SPSS software. In particular, the following were computed:

Percentages and ratios: *percentages* were used to describe the total number of students as well as the MA and BA in relation to answering each item of the questionnaire. The *frequencies* of the strategies used in the questionnaire for the given collocations were represented as ratios.

The t-test is used to test if there are significant differences between the UJ and YU in the mean responses of the total students, the BA students and the MA students in choosing the strategies they used in translating the given collocations in the questionnaire.

The Two-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique is used to test the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the UJ and YU students' means of responses in terms of the strategies they used in translating the collocations. Moreover, ANOVA is used to test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the BA and MA students' means of responses at both universities in terms of the strategies they used in translating the collocations.

Results and Discussion

This section focuses on the findings of the analysis using the SPSS Software. The data is obtained from a field study on the students from English Department at the University of Jordan (UJ) and Translation Department at Yarmouk University (YU) in Jordan. More specifically, this study will highlight the translation strategies that the students used in the translation process. In addition, it examines the main difficulties that the students encounter when translating collocations, the strategies used, the differences in the type of strategies used by the participants from both universities and the best translation strategies used for translating collocations from English into Arabic.

Twenty collocations were used in the study and the participants were asked to translate them into Arabic. Table A1 (See Appendix) represents two samples of Translations Offered by the Survey Participants with their transliterations: one from the (U J) and the other from (YU):

The Translation of Collocations

The findings of the SPSS analysis are discussed based on the study questions by highlighting the translation strategies utilized by the BA and the MA students from both universities.

First, table 1 below displays the frequencies of the responses of all participants, BA and MA, from both universities for their translation of the collocation. It shows that the most strategy used by the participants is the strategy of *synonymy* with a percentage of 31.5 %, followed by *literal translation* and *paraphrasing* strategies with percentages of 23.9 % and 18.2 % respectively. However, *approximation* came fourth with 11.2 %. *Omission* and *transposition* strategies were close to 7%, and *elaboration and explication* shows the lowest percentage 1.1 %.

Col l. No.	The Frequency of the Utilization of Translation Strategies							
	Appro x	Liter. Tran.	Syno ..	Parap h.	Elabor. & Explic.	Trans p	Omiss.	No Tran. (out of 80)
1	13	12	31	12	1	0	2	9
2	6	25	7	16	1	17	2	6
3	8	28	11	7	0	0	7	19
4	9	3	18	8	2	35	2	3
5	10	15	11	20	0	13	5	6
6	7	24	26	11	1	1	4	6
7	8	25	16	12	0	2	4	13
8	6	15	27	20	3	2	1	6
9	3	14	44	7	1	1	2	8
10	2	32	0	22	1	1	1	21
11	9	32	12	13	0	0	7	7
12	10	9	40	3	0	0	14	4
13	5	16	31	13	1	8	1	5
14	3	10	20	19	1	2	14	11
15	6	8	33	18	0	4	2	9
16	10	20	9	10	2	0	16	13
17	12	12	9	25	1	2	3	16
18	5	20	12	5	0	5	8	25
19	16	11	35	6	0	0	1	10

20	8	2	46	6	0	3	3	12
Tot.	156	332	438	253	15	96	99	--
%	11.2	23.9	31.5	18.2	1.1	6.9	7.1	--

Table 1***The Frequency of the Utilization of Translation Strategies***

In addition, through looking at the table below and calculating the number of collocations translated by each strategy, we abstract Table 2 which represents the ranks of the strategies that all students used in translating the collocations given in the test study.

Therefore, table 2 shows that the *synonymy* strategy formed the first rank in translating the given collocations. It was used in translating 50 % of the collocations. *Literal translation* came second and used in translating 35 % of the collocations. *Paraphrasing* was in the third rank with 10%, followed by *transposition* with only 5%. On the other hand, the other strategies have no ranks because they were rarely used in translating the given collocations.

Table 2***Ranking of the Strategies Used in Translating the Collocations by All Participants***

Strategy	Collocations										Total	Percentage	Rank
Approximation											0	0 %	0
Literal Translation	2	3	7	10	11	16	18				7	35 %	2
Synonymy	1	6	8	9	12	13	14	15	19	20	10	50 %	1
Paraphrasing	5	17									2	10 %	3
Elaboration and Explication											0	0 %	0
Transposition	4										1	5 %	4
Omission											0	0 %	0
Total											20	100 %	

In addition, a t-test was conducted to test the difference in the mean responses of the strategies used between the two universities and between the two programs. The findings show that there was no significant difference in the mean responses between the two universities and between the two programs ($\alpha \leq 0.05$), since the p-values were 0.646 and 0.843, respectively. Also, a t-test (at $p \leq .05$) was used to find out if there are significant differences between the UJ and YU in the mean responses of all participants in choosing the strategies they used in translating the given collocations. The findings are summarized in table 3.

Table 3

The p-Value of the t-Test for Testing the Significant Differences between UJ and YU in the Mean Responses in All Strategies Used

Subject			
	All trainees	All BA trainees	All MA trainees
Approximation	0.655	0.027*	0.000*
Literal Translation	0.000*	0.396	0.000*
Synonymy	0.043*	0.000*	0.000*
Paraphrasing	0.012*	0.014*	0.885
Elabor and Explication	0.024*	0.541	0.175
Transposition	0.012*	0.269	0.001*
Omission	0.081	0.186	0.341

*Significant at 0.05.

The tests verify that there was a significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all participants in the strategies: *literal translation*, *synonymy*, *paraphrasing*, *elaboration and explication*, and *transposition* since the p-value was less than 0.05 for each one of them. However, there was no significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all participants in the strategies: *approximation* and *omission* since the p-value was more than 0.05 for each. Likewise, there was a significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all BA participants in the following strategies: *approximation*, *synonymy*, and *paraphrasing* since the p-value was less than 0.05 for each one of them. By contrast, there was no significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all BA participants in the following strategies: *literal translation*, *elaboration and explication*, *transposition*, and *omission* since the p-value was more than 0.05 for each one of them.

Finally, there was a significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all MA participants in the strategies: *approximation*, *literal translation*, *synonymy* and *transposition* since the p-value was less than 0.05 for each one of them. On the other hand, there was no significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all MA participants in the strategies: *paraphrasing*, *elaboration and explication*, and *omission* since the p-value was more than 0.05 for each one of them.

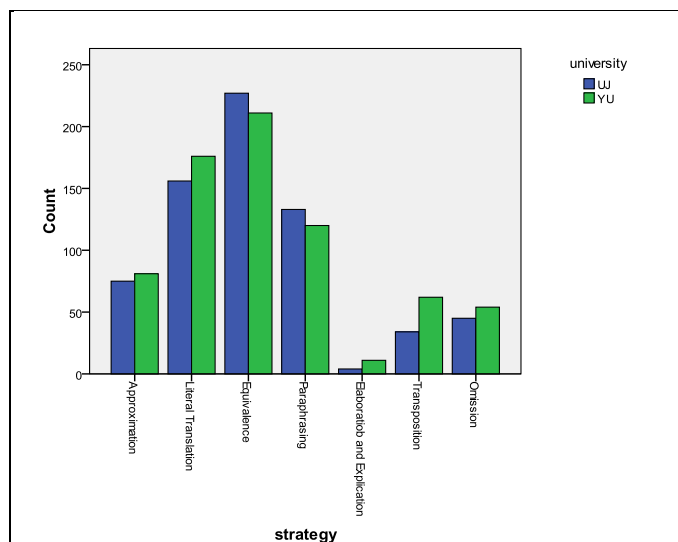
In the following subsections, the dependent variables of the study will be discussed in details.

Strategies Used by Participants

The frequencies of the total responses, the BA and MA students from the UJ and YU, in using different strategies for translating the collocations are shown in Table A2 (see Appendix) and Figure 1 below:

Figure 1

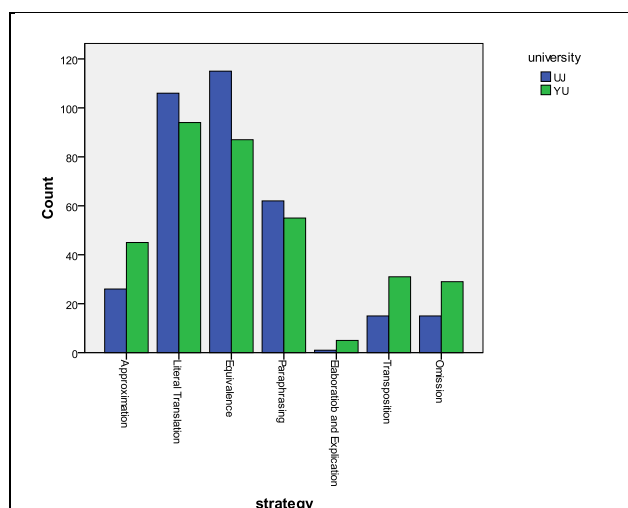
The frequencies of the translation strategies utilization by the students from the UJ and YU.



The above figure 1 shows that the students from both universities opt for using *synonymy*, *literal translation* and *paraphrasing* more often than the other four strategies. More importantly, this figure also shows that *synonymy* and *paraphrasing* strategies are used more frequently by UJ students compared to YU counterparts. However, YU students used the other strategies more often than UJ students.

Let's now illustrate the findings of each program separately to see if there is any difference between the graduate and undergraduate programs and to see if there is any difference within each program depending on the institution they study in. The frequencies of the responses of the total BA students, from UJ and YU, in choosing the appropriate strategies used in translating collocations are presented in Table A3 (see Appendix) and Figure 2 below.

Figure 2 show that the BA students from the University of Jordan used the strategies in the following order: *synonymy*, *literal translation* and *paraphrasing*. By contrast, the BA students from Yarmouk *approximation*, *transposition*, *omission*, and *elaboration and explication* more often than their UJ counterparts

Figure 2***The Frequencies of the Translation Strategies Utilization by the BA students at UJ and YU***

Let's, now have a look at the MA students' responses, from the UJ and YU, to see the different strategies used in translating the given collocations. Table A4 (see Appendix) and Figure 3 below show the percentages of each strategy used by MA students from both universities.

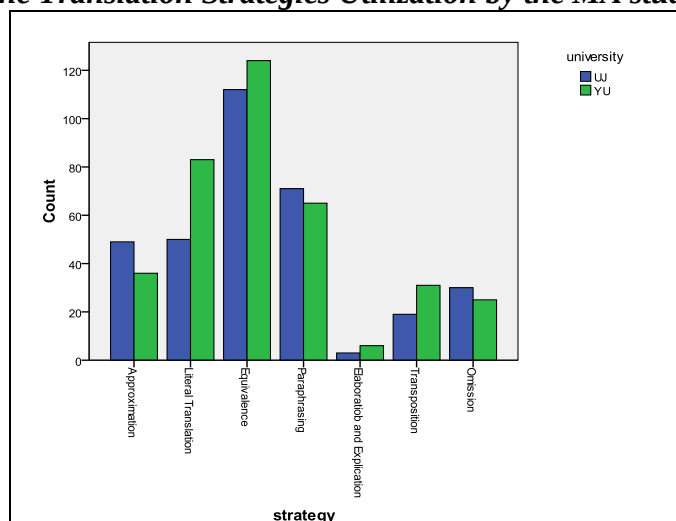
Figure 3***The Frequencies of the Translation Strategies Utilization by the MA students at UJ and YU***

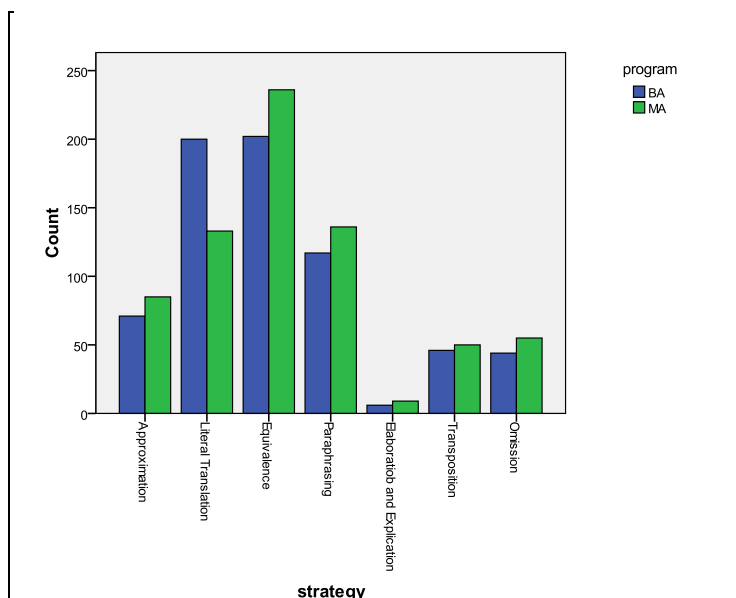
Figure 3 shows that MA YU students used *synonymy*, *literal translation* and *transposition* strategies more often than their UJ counterparts. On the other hand, *paraphrasing*, *approximation* and *omission* were used more frequently by the MA students at UJ than their YU

counterparts. This is due to the students experience and the resources they used through their study, as well as YU have Translation Department.

Figure 4 shows the frequencies of the total students' responses, BA and MA students, in using different strategies in translating the collocations (see also Appendix for Table A5):

Figure 4

The Frequencies of the Translation Strategies Utilization by BA & MA Students



It is evident from the above figure that MA students from both universities used all strategies more often than their BA counterparts except for *literal translation*. This could be attributed to the fact that they are more ignorant about most of these collocations, and therefore, the first thing to come to mind is to translate these collocations literally. The above results reveal several facts.

The first relates to the general weaknesses of the students from both universities in understanding, using, and translating English collocations.

The second relates to the discrepancies among the participants of the same groups. Some of them, particularly the BA students, were far less competent than expected, whereas the MA students have better competence in translating the given collocations.

The third shows that there is no consistency in the differences of the low performance of one and the same group in the twenty collocations. For instance, the number of errors made by the participants of the BA students from UJ and YU in the questionnaire is considerably higher than that of the participants of the MA students from UJ and YU. Translating collocations, at least from English into Arabic, is supposed to be more difficult for native speakers of Arabic.

One explanation is that the participants of the two groups, BA and MA, could have opted for a choice in the questionnaire by relying on conjecture rather than reliable knowledge. This non felicitous expectation is reinforced by the fact that, unlike the MA group, the participants of the BA group had more errors in the questionnaire.

Despite what have been said above about the differences among the BA and MA groups in understanding, using and translating English collocations, it is obvious that even the participants of the MA were not up to the level expected from MA students. Literal translation is evidently the most common strategy on which Arab students rely in collocation production in English. That is because learners often resort to translating literally when they cannot find the collocational patterns which contain the appropriate content words in the target language.

Results related to problems encountered by graduate students while translating collocations indicated that most of the students found it difficult to achieve the synonymy or the equivalent effect of the political collocations used in the test. This finding is congruent with Al-Dahesh (2008) who found that failure to achieve the synonymy is one of the most important problems translators encounter. The results also indicate that adopting and deciding the appropriate translation technique was another problem that students encountered. Many students either used literal translation or used glossing technique without giving any explanation for the reader.

It was also shown that in many cases the students depended on guessing technique which means depending on the context to figure out the meaning. Despite the importance of the context, unfortunately it might not be useful when it comes to political collocations because the words in a collocation are most of the time used totally out of context. The results also illustrate that lack of researching skills was a reason for the participants' inability to get the information needed for translating collocations. In addition, the huge gap between both languages was one of the reasons for their poor translation.

In what follows, we will discuss each of these strategies separately supported by the results of the statistical t-tests in table 3 above.

1. Synonymy

Synonymy is the mostly-used strategy. Almost 31.5 % of the responses offered by the participants used this strategy as shown in the previous tables. The strategy was used by 16.3 and 15.2 of the total students from UJ and YU, respectively. It was used more frequently by MA students (17.9 % MA vs 14.5 % BA participants) used it. Likewise, nearly 29.4 % and 33.5 % of the responses offered by the BA and the MA students respectively showed the use of this strategy. It was used by 16.8 % of UJ and 12.7 % of YU BA participants. On the other hand, it was used by 15.9 % and 17.6 % of the total MA students at UJ and YU respectively.

The fact that a good number of participants could get the proper Arabic equivalents indicates that they are familiar with such collocations. In addition, this implies that most of the students especially the MA students realize and have a good knowledge of collocations and strategies, as well, though the MA students at UJ showed more knowledge than their YU MA counterparts. For instance, *exerting pressure* was successfully translated into *muma:rasat DaKT*

إرتفعت *tension rose* by a BA student at UJ; *escalation in the tensions* was translated into *taSa:ʕud hiddat t-tawatura:t* by BA student at YU; *seized two new towns* was translated into *ʔistawla: ʕala baldatajn* by MA student at the UJ; and *seized two new towns* was translated into *ʔistawla: ʕala baldatajn* by MA student at YU.

The t-test showed that there is a significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU for all students as well as for all BA and for all MA students in using this strategy since the p-values were 0.043, 0.000 and 0.000 respectively.

Here, we focus on the synonymy in meaning from the perspective of the reader of the target text. This means that we may sacrifice the synonymy in form, or we may have to choose something which is not exactly the same in the source text, but which is the closest get-to-it in the target language.

2. Literal translation

The strategy of literal translation is the second rank strategy utilized by the participants' translations in their attempts to render the collocations in the translation task. Nearly 23.9 % of the responses offered by the participants used this strategy as shown in the previous tables. *Literal translation* was used by 11.2 % of the UJ and 12.7 % of the YU students. In terms of the program the students are enrolled in, 14.4 % of the BA students and 9.6 % of the MA students used this strategy. By the same token, the findings of the analysis in tables (2, 3 and A2) reveal that the strategy of literal translation was highly used by the participants: 29.2 % and 18.9 % of the responses of the BA and the MA students respectively. The strategy was used by 15.5 % and 13.7 % of the total BA students from UJ and YU, respectively. By contrast, 7.1 % of the UJ MA and 11.8 % of the YU MA participants used this strategy.

Since some participants faced difficulties in translating political collocations, this led them to use this strategy more than the others, since the BA participants in both universities were not familiar with such collocations and were not aware of the other strategies; they resorted to using word by word translation. For example, a BA student at UJ translated *seize crossings* as *ju:qif l-maʕa:bir* *يوقف المعابر* instead of *jusajTir ʕala- l-maʕa:bir* *يسيطر على المعابر*; *seized two new towns* was translated as *ʔistawla l-bila:d* *إستولى على البلاد* instead of *sajTara ʕala baldatajn* *سيطر* by a BA student at YU; *tension builds* was translated into *jabni: t-tawattur* *يبنى التوتر* instead of *taSa:ʕud t-tawattur* *تصاعد التوتر* by a MA student at UJ; and *Syria war exerts strain on Lebanon tinderbox* was translated into *ʔal-ħarb s-su:rijja tuma:risu DaʕTan ʕala barmi:l ba:ru:d lubna:n* *الحرب السورية تمارس ضغطا على برميل بارود لبنان* instead of *ʔal-ħarb s-su:rijja taDkaT zina:d l- ħarbfi: lubna:n* *الحرب السورية تضغط زناد الحرب في لبنان* by a MA student at YU.

In addition, the t-test showed that there is no significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU of all BA students in using this strategy since the p-value is 0.396. However, there is a significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU for all students as well as for all MA students in using this strategy since the p-values were 0.000 for both groups.

When students fail to find any stored collocation that could be used, some would choose literal translation to transfer the thought from SL into TL. This strategy was employed to produce

either acceptable or unacceptable collocations. Moreover, when students decide to rely on their intuition to create collocations of their own, they would choose approximation strategy as a second option for translation.

The participants in this study used literal translation to a great extent. However, the results of the study revealed that this strategy could be both effective and ineffective. Therefore, literal translation should be employed with great caution and a new habit of translation should be formed. Instead of doing word-for-word translation all the time, we should try translating "chunk-for-chunk" (Lewis, 1993: 62) or "collocation to collocation" (Newmark, 1988: 69) seeking parallel equivalents in SL and TL.

3. Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing is the third most utilized strategy. Almost 18.2 % (9.6 % & 8.6 % of UJ and YU) of the responses offered by the participants showed the use of this strategy as shown in tables (3-5). MA participants used this strategy a little bit more than the BA participants (9.8 % MA vs 8.4 % BA). The findings of the analysis in the tables (2, 3 and A2) prove that the strategy of *paraphrasing* was utilized by both groups: 17.1 % and 19.3 % of the responses offered by the BA and the MA participants respectively. 9 % and 8.1 % of the total BA participants in UJ and YU respectively paraphrased collocations that they did not know. By contrast, 10.1 % and 9.2 % of the total MA participants in UJ and YU respectively utilized *paraphrasing*.

Paraphrasing suggests that BA and the MA participants at UJ and YU are aware, to some extent, of the strategies used in translation. They know that if they could not get the exact equivalent in the TL, they could paraphrase the text using their own words. Generally speaking, this strategy is not highly recommended in translating collocations because it does not bring the source text effects to the reader. For example, *exert influence* was translated as *muma:rasat ta?Øi:r* ممارسة تأثير instead of *basTi nufu:ðiha* بسط نفوذها by a BA student from UJ; *rebel rifts deepen* was translated into *jataṣammaq tamarrudi l-mun/aqqi:n* يتعمق تمرد المنشقين instead of *tataṣammaq ?inqisa:ma:t l-mutamarridi:n* تتعمق إنقسامات المتمردين by BA student from YU; *tensions over Syria grow* was translated into *?iḏa sa:pat l-?awDaṣ* إذا ساءت الأوضاع by MA student from UJ; and *Israel prepares for the worst as tensions over Syria grow* was translated into *tastafiddu ?isra:ʔi:lu lil-ʔaswaʔ bisabab t-t awattura:t l-lati: taṣummu ʔanḥaʔa su:rija* تستعد إسرائيل للأسوأ بسبب التوترات التي تعم أنحاء سوريا by MA student from YU.

Furthermore, the t-test showed that there is no significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU of all MA students in using this strategy since the p-value was 0.885. By contrast, there is a significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU for all students as well as for all BA students in using this strategy since the p-values were 0.012 and 0.014 respectively.

4. Approximation

As a strategy utilized in translating collocations, approximation is considered as a moderate strategy. Nearly 11.2 % of the participants' responses used this strategy (5.1 % of the BA and 6.1 % of the MA). It was fairly used by the participants as shown in tables (3-5). It was used by 5.4 % and 5.8 % of the total participants from the UJ and YU, respectively. In addition, the findings of the analysis in tables (2, 3 and A2) illustrate that 10.3 % and 12.1 % of the responses of the

BA and MA participants respectively used this strategy. This strategy was used by 3.8 % and 6.6 % of the total BA students from the UJ and YU respectively. By contrast, 7.0 % and 5.1 % of the total MA participants from the UJ and YU used this strategy respectively.

The responses of the participants illustrate lack in their knowledge of the translation theories and strategies as well as lack of collocational patterns' awareness regarding translating collocations especially the ones used in media. This explains why this strategy is used less than the others (compared to the *literal translation*).

More specifically, the students in both universities especially the BA students have barely come across all collocations except for collocation 4 for which they used *elaboration and explication, transposition and omission*. However, some students from both programs used this strategy because they realize that if they could not get the exact Arabic synonymy, they could use the closest correspondence in the TL. For instance, a BA student from the UJ translated *escalation in the tensions* into *ʔirtifa:ʔ fi-t-tawatura:t ارتفعت التوترات* instead of *taSa:ʔud hiddat t-tawatura:t تصاعدت حدة التوترات*; a BA student from YU translated *tensions over Syria grow* as *ʔat-tawattura:at tazi:d التوترات تزيد*; An MA student from the UJ translated *deepen crisis* as *jazi:d min hiddatl-ʔazmah يزيد من حدة الأزمة*; and an MA student from YU translated *deepen crisis* as *juDaxxim l-ʔazmah يضخم الأزمة*.

Statistically speaking, there is no significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU for all students in using this strategy since the p-value was 0.655. Nevertheless, there is a significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU for all BA students and for all MA students in using this strategy since the p-values were 0.027 and 0.000, respectively.

The students in the present study evidently used approximation in English collocation learning. Put differently, they appeared to replace a word with another having almost a similar meaning. Although doing so may sometimes be successful, most studies reveal a drawback of such a strategy. As shown in the data, many participants relied on approximation as a strategy for using collocations in English. In particular, this learning strategy was employed more in lexical collocations than in grammatical ones.

For this reason, professors may find the results of this study useful. They are encouraged to highlight the notion of collocation in vocabulary classrooms. More importantly, teachers can also help to prevent students from inappropriately applying strategies with regard to collocation translation. For instance, teachers may clearly compare and contrast different usages of some sample pairs of synonyms, making it a point to them that words being semantically close are hardly interchangeable in all contexts. Therefore, an explicit explanation of the differences for certain collocations and even translating such collocations sometimes yields a more pleasant result than other teaching methods that ignore the cross-linguistic differences. In addition to that, lack of cultural awareness and lack of cultural interaction can stand behind those problems. Moreover, students' lack of knowledge of translation strategies and theories could also be one of the main reasons behind the problems they encounter.

Another reason is the lack of the students' communication with other cultures. People think that through technology our students are strongly in touch with the others cultures, but as a matter of fact, this is not enough. This makes students lag behind in understanding others' cultural contexts.

5. Omission

The findings of the study indicate that the strategy of omission occupied a poor rank in terms of use by the participants. Almost 7.1 % of the responses offered by the participants showed the use of this strategy as shown in tables (2, 3 and A2). This strategy was used by 3.2 % of UJ and 3.9 % of YU participants divided into 3.1 % BA and 4.0 % MA participants. Specifically, almost 6.4% BA and 7.8 % MA participants showed the use of this strategy: 2.2 % UJ BA and 4.2 % YU BA participants, 4.3% UJ MA and 3.6% YU MA participants.

Participants showed some difficulties in translating such collocations, because they were unaware of the best ways to translate collocation. For example, a BA student from UJ translated *rebel rifts deepen* as *Pinqisa:ma:t l-mutamarridi:n* إنقسامات المتمردين; *exerts strain* was translated into *taDkaT* تضغط instead of *taDkaT zina:da l-harb* تضغط زناد الحرب by a BA at YU; *aim to exert pressure* was translated into *yahdif liD-DaKaTi fala* يهدف للضغط على instead of *tahdif Pila muma:rasati D-DaKaTi fala* تهدف الى ممارسة الضغط على by MA student at UJ; and *aim to exert pressure* was translated into *tahdif liD-DaKaTi fala* تهدف للضغط على by MA student from YU.

Finally, the t-test showed that there is no significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU for all students as well as for all BA and for all MA students in using this strategy since the p-values were 0.081, 0.186 and 0.341, respectively.

To sum up, since the use of collocations is a matter of style, attempting to find a collocational expression in the TL will help to convey the style of the original in the SL. This important issue could be dealt with in translator training courses. The translators need to be familiar with SL collocations and learn ways to recognize the ones they do not know. Then, the different strategies for translating collocations could be introduced to them. The ultimate goal is teach those ways to find appropriate equivalents for collocational expressions.

6. Transposition

The findings reveal that the strategy of *transposition* occupied the fourth rank in terms of use by the study participants. 6.9 % of the responses offered by the participants involved using this strategy. It was, thus, moderately used as shown in tables (2, 3 and A2): 2.4 % from the UJ and 4.5 % of the YU participants divided into 3.3 % BA and 3.6 % MA. Specifically, 6.7 % BA and 7.1 % MA participants used this strategy: 2.2 % BA from the UJ and 4.5 % BA from YU; 2.7 % MA from UJ and 4.4 % MA from YU.

Participants showed some difficulties in their knowledge to determine the type of strategy they used. This implies that most of the participants had little knowledge of collocations especially in using the adjectives. They, in some cases, resorted to change the grammar from SL to TL, for instance, the change from singular to plural or the change of an SL verb to a TL word. For example, a BA student at UJ translated *seize crossings* into *Pal-Pisti:la:ʔ fala maʕbar* الإستيلاء على المعابر instead of *jusajTiru fala maʕa:bi r* يسيطر على معابر; *seize crossings* was

translated into *ʔistawla: maʕbar* إستولى معبر instead of by *jusajTiru ʕala maʕbar* يسيطر على معبر by a BA student from YU; *deepen concerns about* was translated into *taza:yud l-qalaq ʕawala* تزايد القلق حول by an MA from UJ; and *escalation in the tensions* was translated into *taSa:ʕudan mutaza:jidan fi-t-tawattur* تصاعدا متزايدا في التوتر by an MA student from YU.

In addition, the t-test showed that there is no significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU of all BA students in using this strategy since the p-value was 0.269. On the other hand, there is a significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU for all students as well as for all MA students in using this strategy since the p-values were 0.012 and 0.001 respectively.

7. Elaboration and Explication

The findings of the study demonstrate that the strategy of *elaboration and explication* was poorly used by the students as shown in tables (2, 3 and A2). 0.3 % of the UJ and 0.8 % of the YU students used it divided into 0.4 % of the BA and 0.7 % of the MA participants. Specifically, 0.9 % and 1.3 % of the responses offered by the BA and the MA participants showed the use of this strategy. This translation strategy was used by 0.1 % and 0.8 % of the total BA participants from UJ and YU respectively: 0.4 % from UJ and 0.9 % of the YU MA participants. For instance, *tensions over Syria grow* was translated into *namat l-ʔiDTira:ba:t wa-zda:dat* نمت الإضطرابات وزادت by BA student from UJ; *seized control* was translated into *ʔistawla: ʕala wa sajTara* سيطرت على وسيطر by BA from YU; *militants seize border crossings* was translated into *ʔahkamū l-qabDa ʕala maʕa:bir l-ʕudu:d* أحكموا القبض على سيطر مسلحون على instead of *jusajTir l-musallahuna ʕala l-maʕa:bir l-ʕudu:dijja* سيطر مسلحون على instead of *jusajTir l-musallahuna ʕala l-maʕa:bir l-ʕudu:dijja* by MA student from UJ; and *rifts deepen Gaza misery* was translated into *ʔal-xila:fa:t tazi:d fi: taʕmi:q l-buʔs* الخلافات تزيد في تعميق البؤس instead of *tazi:d ʔal-xila:fa:t l-buʔs fi: ʕazza* تزيد الخلافات البؤس في غزة by an MA student from YU.

Based on the statistical t-test, there is a significant difference between the mean responses of the UJ and YU for all students in using this strategy since the p-value was 0.024. However, there is no significant difference between the mean responses of UJ and YU for all BA students and for all MA students in using this strategy since the p-values were 0.541 and 0.175 respectively.

Differences among the Mean Responses of the Strategies Used in Translating Process

The Two-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference among the means of all the responses in the strategies used in translating the collocations by all participants according to the *university*, UJ and YU. Moreover, the statistical analysis was used to test the second hypothesis; there is no significant difference among the means of all the responses in the strategies used in translating the given collocations by all participants according to their *programs*, BA and MA. The p-value, the actual minimum probability to reject the hypothesis when it is less than the significant level, is 0.05.

Through looking at tables (4 and 5) below, we conclude that there is a significant difference among the means of all responses of all participants in the *strategies* they used in translating the given collocations according to university since the p-value of the test was 0.000.

Note that there is no main effect of *university* on the strategies they used in translating the given collocations since the p-value was 0.553. In addition, the results show that there is no effective interaction between the *university* and *strategies* used since the p-value was 0.894.

Table 4

ANOVA Test: the Significant Differences among the Mean Responses in All Strategies Used by All Participants according to University

Source	D.F	S.S	M.S	F	P
Corrected Model	13	3395.318	261.178	15.346	0.000
Strategy	6	3350.943	558.490	32.814	0.000
University	1	6.004	6.004	0.353	0.553
Strategy * Univ	6	38.371	6.395	0.376	0.894
Error	266	4527.250	17.020	-----	-----
Corrected Total	279	7922.568	-----	-----	-----

Table 5

ANOVA Test: the Significant Differences among the Mean Responses in All Strategies Used by All Participants according to Program

Source	D.F	S.S	M.S	F	P
Corrected Model	13	3516.343	270.488	15.436	0.000
Strategy	6	3357.357	559.607	31.934	0.000
Program	1	1.157	1.157	0.066	0.797
Strategy * Prog	6	157.543	26.257	1.498	0.179
Error	266	4661.300	17.527	-----	-----
Corrected Total	279	8177.643	-----	-----	-----

Furthermore, there is a significant difference among the means of all the responses of all participants in the strategies they used in translating the suggested collocations according to *program* since the p-value of the test is 0.000. Note that there is no main effect of *program* on the strategies they used in translating collocations since the p-value of the test was 0.797.

Moreover, the results show that there is no effective interaction between *program* and the *strategies* used since the p-value was 0.179.

Conclusions

In conclusion, this study reveals that many participants used a variety of strategies. More specifically, *synonymy* and *literal translation* emerge as the first and the second ranked strategies utilized in the students' attempt to render collocations. *Paraphrasing* occupied a third rank followed by *transposition*. However, the strategies of *approximation*, *elaboration* and *explication*, and *omission* were not used frequently.

The students using the *synonymy* strategy did not show much difficulty in their knowledge to determine the right translation. This implies that most of the participants, especially the MA students, realize and have good knowledge of collocations. BA students from both universities showed a good knowledge of using this strategy when translating collocations as well. By contrast, using *literal translation* showed that the students had some difficulty to determine the meaning of the relevant collocations. The participants were not always fortunate enough to find the Arabic equivalents for the suggested collocations. Generally speaking, the findings indicate that most MA students in both universities have good knowledge of collocations, whereas a good percentage of BA students in both universities lack knowledge of collocations.

Results related to problems encountered by the BA students indicate that most of the participants found it difficult to achieve the *synonymy* of the collocations used in the test. This result is congruent with Newmark (1988:49) who states "the more culturally remote in time and space a text is, the less conceivable equivalent effect is unless the reader is imaginative, sensitive and steeped in the SL culture". A similar finding is also deduced by Al-Dahesh (2008:334) who finds that failure to achieve the *synonymy* is one of the most prominent problems students and translators usually encounter.

In addition, the responses of the students in using *transposition* showed some difficulty in their knowledge of collocations and in their knowledge to use the right strategy for translating the suggested collocations. For example, many students had some difficulty with collocations that involve a change of a SL verb to a TL equivalent, e.g. 'to **get** this aid' was translated as *li-l-ħusu:li ġala ha:ðihi l-musa:ġada:t* للحصول على هذه المساعدات. They also had a difficulty in translating single and plural nouns in collocations, e.g. 'escalation in the **tensions**' was translated as *Pizdiġa:din fi: hiddat t-tawattur* إزدیادا في حدة التوتر.

Failure to achieve the appropriate *synonymy* and failure to use the proper techniques in translation were remarkable mistakes that the students encountered while translating collocations. *Literal translation* resulted from the poor performance of the participants in the test. The researchers referred most the students' erroneous responses to *unfamiliarity* with both cultures and to the improper translation techniques and strategies. Almost all the participants in the test had agreed that familiarizing themselves with their own culture and the foreign culture is a must. This can be done by offering extra courses that deal with cultural situations and contexts and by providing chances for a better cultural interaction between native language speakers of both languages. In addition, the frequent exposure to the English culture through listening to

English programs and watching English movies play a key role in promoting the students' culture awareness.

The findings also show that YU undergraduate students used collocations more often than their UJ counterparts. Moreover, the MA students from both universities revealed that they do not often encounter such collocations in their studies.

In case of Testing the Hypotheses, one of the studies goals is to test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference among the means of all the students' responses in the strategies they used in translating the collocations in both universities. The findings show that there is a significant difference among the means of all the students' responses in the strategies they used in translating the collocations. Neither is there an effect of the universities on the strategies they used. In addition, there is no effective interaction between the *university* and the *strategies* used.

Similarly, the study aims at testing the hypothesis that there is no significant difference among the means of all responses of the total participants in the strategies they used in translating the collocations according to both programs, BA and MA. The findings show that there is a significant difference among the means of all responses of the total participants in the strategies they used in translating the collocations according to *program*. However, there is no main effect of the *program* on the strategies they used, neither is there an effective interaction between *program* and *strategies*.

Finally, in relation to testing whether there are significant differences between the UJ and YU in the mean responses of all students, and between BA and MA students in using the strategies to translate the given collocations, the findings are as follows:

- (1) There is a significant difference in the mean responses between UJ and YU of the total participants in the following strategies: *literal translation*, *synonymy*, *paraphrasing*, *elaboration and explication*, and *transposition*. By contrast, there is no significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU students of the total participants in using *approximation* and *omission*.
- (2) There is a significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all BA participants in the following strategies: *approximation*, *synonymy* and *paraphrasing*. However, there is no significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU BA participants in the following strategies: *literal translation*, *elaboration and explication*, *transposition*, and *omission*.
- (3) There is a significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all the MA participants in the following strategies: *approximation*, *literal translation*, *synonymy* and *transposition*. On the other hand, there is no significant difference in the mean responses between the UJ and YU of all the MA participants in the following strategies: *paraphrasing*, *elaboration and explication*, and *omission*.

In general, the research gives an idea about the students' level in translating collocations, in particular, the political ones. The performance of the participants from the two universities can

be considered to be acceptable although translation is not the field of specialty to many of them. Furthermore, the research shows that *lack of lexical competence* and *literal translations* are the main problems that most of the participants confronted. The students do not give up translating the collocations simply because they believe that they are able to guess the meaning from the context.

Recommendations

Based on the previous results, discussions and conclusions, the researcher proposes the following recommendations:

Firstly, since the present study is confined to analyzing the students' translations of collocations, the researcher recommends conducting more research dealing with syntactic difficulties in translating collocations in political texts.

Secondly, students should be aware of the main features of political expressions, texts and terms. This is crucial to produce effective translation of collocations in political contexts. Therefore, study plans at Arab universities need to incorporate courses related to specific fields of translation such as '*translation of political texts*'.

Thirdly, academia should introduce more courses on translating collocations in different texts in order to encourage students to follow and use collocations which, in turn, will help them have a high level of competency in language and culture as well.

Moreover, since there is a lexical shortage in monolingual and bilingual dictionaries that address collocations, translators face a difficulty in finding the exact synonymy in the TL. Since translators are not aware of these collocations, they are likely to render them in an arbitrary way. Therefore, it is recommended to prepare specialized dictionaries for this purpose in order to overcome the difficulties that could arise in translating collocations. Students of translation should be trained to use good dictionaries specialized in collocations. In addition, they need to be trained to improve their lexical competence through extensive training on the use of collocations in English and Arabic. There is, in fact, a need to improve free reading to gain good knowledge of new collocations.

Furthermore, collocations should be given more attention in teaching second language courses in the departments of English and Translation at the Jordanian universities. Thus, providing sufficient training and practice in translating different text types could be beneficial in rendering the target message properly and in enhancing the quality of translation by building good knowledge of collocations.

To conclude, students have to develop their competence of collocations because lack of such competence leads them to construct unsuitable long utterances as they do not know the exact (short) collocations which express what they want to convey. Teaching vocabulary to university students in the departments of English, especially through comprehension and composition classes, should focus on enriching the students' repertoire, collocations and idiomatic expressions. They need to be exposed to good quality of input to increase their sense of the TL.

Research is still needed to investigate why translators choose one strategy over the others. Research could be conducted in stages; in each stage, one strategy could be tested to verify the significant effectiveness of it in comparison with the other strategies.

About the author:

Khetam W. Shraideh earned her B. A. Degree in English literature from Yarmouk University, Jordan in 2008. She worked as a teacher of English Language in Kuwait from 2008 until 2013. Since that time, she finished her M. A. Degree in Translation at English Department at University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan in 2015. She published two papers in the EJSS and one paper in EJSR.

Radwan S. Mahadin is a Professor of Linguistics at English Department at University of Jordan in Amman, Jordan.

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Appendix

Table A1
Sample of Translations Offered by the Survey Participants

No.	Collocations	Arabic translation (UJ)	Arabic translation (YU)
1	The tension in Aleppo rose steadily once the uprising started in 2011. About a year later rebels seized much of eastern Aleppo and the countryside around it.	ارتفع التوتر ʔirtafaʕa t-tawattur	ارتفع التوتر ʔirtafaʕa t-tawattur
2	Israel prepares for the worst as tensions over Syria grow .	تزايد التوتر taza:jada t-tawattur	التوترات التي تـعم t-tawattura:t l-lati: taʕum

3	Press apprehension as Syria tension builds .	تصاعد التوتر taSa:ʔada t-tawattur	توتر سوريا tawattur su:rja
4	The last two days have witnessed a dramatic escalation in the tensions between Turkey and Syria.	تصاعد حدة التوترات taSa:ʔadat hiddat t-tawattur	ازدياد حدة التوتر ʔizdija:d hiddat t-tawattur
5	Sunni militants seize Iraq's western border crossings .	سيطرت على المعابر أو الحدود sajTarat ʕala l-maʕa:bir ʔaw l-ħudu:d	يسيطرون على المعابر jusajTiru:na ʕala l-maʕa:bir
6	Islamist militants in Iraq have seized two new towns , widening their control after threatening to move on Baghdad.	استولوا على مدن أو فوضوا سيطرتهم ʔistawlaw ʕala mudinin ʔaw faraDu: sajTaratahum	قد استولى مسلحون اسلاميون على بلدين qad ʔistawla musallahuna ʕisla:mijju:na ʕala baldatajn
7	Iraq has warned the UN that Sunni militants have seized nuclear materials used for scientific research at a university in the city of Mosul.	حازوا على مواد أو استولوا على مواد ħa:zu: ʕala mawa:dda ʔaw istawlaw ʕala mawa:dd	قد استولوا على مواد نووية qad ʔistawlaw ʕala mawa:dda nawawijja

8	Kurdish Peshmerga forces are said to have seized control of production facilities at Bai Hassan and Kirkuk.	سيطرت sajTarat	قد أحكمت سيطرتها على qad ?ahkamat sajTarataha ?ala
9	"I think the only way of turning this around and getting a political solution is exerting enormous military pressure on the regime, either through a Western attack or a massive influx of weapons to the opposition," says Mr Yazigi.	ممارسة ضغوط او فرض ضغوط Muma:rasat Du?u:T ?aw farD Du?u:T	بممارسة ضغوط عسكرية bimuma:rasat Du?u:T ?askariija
10	Syria war exerts strain on Lebanon tinderbox.	ترهق turhiq	تمارس ضغطا على tuma:ris Du?u:Tan ?ala
11	The bankruptcy of U.S. and U.K. policy is proven by the desperation of their latest gambit. Asking the Syrian president to step down is meaningless because	تبسط نفوذها tabsuTu nufu?aha	حاولوا بسط نفوذهم ?a:walu: basTa nufu?ahim

	both these countries have gone out of their way to marginalize Syria at every level of international relations. When they come now to exert influence , they find they have nothing but a failed record to rely upon.		
12	"The demonstrations in squares and campaigns of intimidation, which aim to exert pressure on the HPEC (Higher Presidential Election Commission), are rejected by most Egyptians and contradict the basics of democracy. Let us calm down," he said.	ممارسة ضغوط Muma:rasat Duḡu:T	لزيادة الضغوط lizija:dat D-Duḡu:T
13	Over the past few months, the armed forces have exerted tremendous efforts , both directly and indirectly, to contain the domestic situation and conduct national	بذلت جهود Baḏalat dḡuhu:d	بذلت القوات المسلحة جهودا Baḏalat l-quwwat l-musallaḥa dḡuhu:dan

	reconciliation comprising all the political forces, including the presidential institution.		
14	Syria rebel rifts deepen as Islamist ranks swell.	تنزايد انقسامات المسلحين / المتمردين Tataza:jad ſinqisa:ma:t l-musallaħi:n / l-mutamarridi:n	انقسامات المتمردين في سوريا تتعمق ſinqisa:ma: t l- mutamarridi:n fi: su:rijja tataſammaq
15	Sending weapons to Syria deepen crisis , says Brahimi.	يعمق أو يعقد الأزمة juſammiq ʔaw juſaqqid l-ʔazmah	يعمق الأزمة juſammiq l-ʔazmah
16	Floods, blockade and political rifts deepen Gaza misery .	تزيد من مأساة Tazi:d min maʔsa:t	الخلافات السياسية تعمق البؤس ʔal-xila:fa:t s-sija:sijja tuſammiq l-buʔs
17	Egypt's political turmoil deepens .	تعمق الإضطرابات tuſammiq l-ʔiDTira:ba:t	تعميق الإضطراب السياسي في مصر tuſammiq l-ʔiDTira:b s-sija:si fi: maSr
18	The harsh sentence will deepen concerns about democracy and free speech in Egypt, the BBC's Orla Guerin in Cairo reports.	تزيد المخاوف حول Tazi:d l-maxawif hawl	يعمق المخاوف بشأن الديمقراطية juſammiq l-maxawif biʔn d-di:muqraTijja

19	Deputy PM Nick Clegg said on Tuesday torture victims, elderly and disabled people would also get priority .	يحصل على الأولوية jahSul ʕala l-ʔawlawijja	الحصول على الأولوية ʔal-ħuSul ʕala l-ʔawlawijja
20	While in Turkey I have been fortunate to meet some of the aid workers risking their lives to get this aid across the border.	نقل أو إيصال المساعدات Naql ʔaw ʔi:Sal l-musa:ʕada:t	الحصول على هذه المساعدات ʔal-ħuSul ʕala ha:ðih l- musa:ʕada:t

Table A2
The Frequency of Translation Strategies Used by All Participants

Coll. No.	The Frequency of Translation Strategies Used by All Participants																					
	Approximation			Literal Translation			Synonymy			Paraphrasing			Elaboration and explication			Transposition			Omission			No Translation (out of 80)
	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	
1	9	4	13	3	9	12	19	12	31	4	8	12	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	9
2	2	4	6	13	12	25	3	4	7	9	7	16	1	0	1	9	8	17	1	1	2	6
3	5	3	8	16	12	28	7	4	11	3	4	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	7	19
4	6	3	9	2	1	3	9	9	18	5	3	8	1	1	2	12	23	35	2	0	2	3
5	8	2	10	6	9	15	5	6	11	11	9	20	0	0	0	5	8	13	1	4	5	6
6	5	2	7	11	13	24	11	15	26	8	3	11	1	0	1	0	1	1	2	2	4	6
7	5	3	8	11	13	25	5	11	16	7	5	12	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	4	13
8	2	4	6	7	8	15	13	14	27	15	5	20	0	3	3	0	2	2	0	1	1	6
9	0	3	3	7	7	14	24	20	44	4	3	7	0	1	1	0	1	1	2	0	2	8
10	0	2	2	12	20	32	0	0	0	11	11	22	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	21
11	4	5	9	10	22	32	11	1	12	5	8	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	7	7

12	6	4	10	5	4	9	21	19	40	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	8	14	4
13	1	4	5	7	9	16	16	15	31	7	6	13	0	1	1	5	3	8	0	1	1	5
14	1	2	3	5	5	10	11	9	20	8	11	19	0	1	1	1	1	2	7	7	14	11
15	4	2	6	7	1	8	12	21	33	9	9	18	0	0	0	1	3	4	0	2	2	9
16	3	7	10	8	12	20	3	6	9	8	2	10	0	2	2	0	0	0	10	6	16	13
17	5	7	12	8	4	12	4	5	9	12	13	25	0	1	1	0	2	2	0	3	3	16
18	1	4	5	10	10	20	8	4	12	0	5	5	0	0	0	1	4	5	3	5	8	25
19	5	11	16	6	5	11	21	14	35	2	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	10
20	3	5	8	2	0	2	24	22	46	4	2	6	0	0	0	0	3	3	1	2	3	12
Total	75	81	156	156	176	332	227	211	438	133	120	253	4	11	15	34	62	96	45	54	99	--
%	5.4	5.8	11.2	11.2	12.7	23.9	16.3	15.2	31.5	9.6	8.6	18.2	0.3	0.8	1.1	2.4	4.5	6.9	3.2	3.9	7.1	--

Table A3

The frequency of the utilization of the translation strategies in relation to BA participants from UJ and YU

Coll. No.	The Frequency of the Strategies Used by BA trainees in UJ and YU																					
	Approximation			Literal Translation			Synonymy			Paraphrasing			Elaboration and explication			Transposition			Omission			No Translation (out of 40)
	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	
1	5	3	8	2	5	7	10	6	16	1	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
2	2	3	5	8	5	13	3	2	5	2	5	7	1	0	1	2	1	3	0	1	1	6
3	1	2	3	13	5	18	1	2	3	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	11
4	2	2	4	1	1	2	4	4	8	4	3	7	0	1	1	6	9	15	0	0	0	3
5	2	1	3	5	6	11	1	3	4	8	1	9	0	0	0	3	5	8	0	3	3	2
6	1	2	3	10	7	17	4	6	10	4	1	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	4
7	1	2	3	10	7	17	0	4	4	3	2	5	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	1	1	8
8	1	3	4	6	5	11	3	3	6	8	1	9	0	2	2	0	2	2	0	1	1	5
9	0	0	0	2	6	8	15	9	24	1	2	3	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
10	0	1	1	9	11	20	0	0	0	2	4	6	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	11

11	3	1	4	7	11	18	5	0	5	1	5	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	4	3
12	3	1	4	3	2	5	12	11	23	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	6	1
13	0	2	2	3	4	7	6	6	12	5	5	10	0	0	0	3	1	4	0	1	1	4
14	0	0	0	3	4	7	9	1	10	2	8	10	0	1	1	0	0	0	3	4	7	5
15	1	1	2	4	1	5	5	9	14	7	5	12	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	2	4
16	0	4	4	6	9	15	2	4	6	5	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	6	4
17	3	3	6	5	3	8	3	3	6	6	3	9	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	1	1	8
18	0	3	3	4	0	4	4	3	7	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	4	4	2	3	5	15
19	0	9	9	3	2	5	15	2	17	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
20	1	2	3	2	0	2	13	9	22	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	3	1	1	2	6
Total	26	45	71	106	94	200	115	87	202	62	55	117	1	5	6	15	31	46	15	29	44	--
%	3.8	6.6	10.3	15.5	13.7	29.2	16.8	12.7	29.4	9.0	8.1	17.1	0.1	0.8	0.9	2.2	4.5	6.7	2.2	4.2	6.4	--

Table A4

The frequency of the utilization of the translation strategies in relation to MA participants from UJ and YU

Coll. No.	The Frequency of the Strategies Used by MA trainees in UJ and YU																					
	Approximation			Literal Translation			Synonymy			Paraphrasing			Elaboration and explication			Transposition			Omission			No Translation (out of 40)
	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	UJ	YU	Total	
1	4	1	5	1	4	5	9	6	15	3	5	8	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	4
2	0	1	1	5	7	12	0	2	2	7	2	9	0	0	0	7	7	14	1	0	1	1
3	4	1	5	3	7	10	6	2	8	3	2	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	4	8
4	4	1	5	1	0	1	5	5	10	1	0	1	1	0	1	6	14	20	2	0	2	0
5	6	1	7	1	3	4	4	3	7	3	8	11	0	0	0	2	3	5	1	1	2	4
6	4	0	4	1	6	7	7	9	16	4	2	6	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	2	4	2
7	4	1	5	1	7	8	5	7	12	4	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	5
8	1	1	2	1	3	4	10	11	21	7	4	11	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
9	0	3	3	5	1	6	9	11	20	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	2	4
10	0	1	1	3	9	12	0	0	0	9	7	16	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	10

11	1	4	5	3	11	14	6	1	7	4	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	4
12	3	3	6	2	2	4	9	8	17	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	8	3
13	1	2	3	4	5	9	10	9	19	2	1	3	0	1	1	2	2	4	0	0	0	1
14	1	2	3	2	1	3	2	8	10	6	3	9	0	0	0	1	1	2	4	3	7	6
15	3	1	4	3	0	3	7	12	19	2	4	6	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	5
16	3	3	6	2	3	5	1	2	3	3	2	5	0	2	2	0	0	0	5	5	10	9
17	2	4	6	3	1	4	1	2	3	6	10	16	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	8
18	1	1	2	6	10	16	4	1	5	0	3	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2	3	10
19	5	2	7	3	3	6	6	12	18	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	5
20	2	3	5	0	0	0	11	13	24	2	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	6
Total	49	36	85	50	83	133	112	124	236	71	65	136	3	6	9	19	31	50	30	25	55	--
%	7.0	5.1	12.1	7.1	11.8	18.9	15.9	17.6	33.5	10.1	9.2	19.3	0.4	0.9	1.3	2.7	4.4	7.1	4.3	3.6	7.8	--

Table A5*The frequency of the translation strategies used by all the BA and MA participants*

Coll. No.	The Frequency of the Strategies Used by All trainees																					
	Approximation			Literal Translation			Synonymy			Paraphrasing			Elaboration and explication			Transposition			Omission			No Translation (out of 80)
	BA	MA	Total	BA	MA	Total	BA	MA	Total	BA	MA	Total	BA	MA	Total	BA	MA	Total	BA	MA	Total	
1	8	5	13	7	5	12	16	15	31	4	8	12	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	9
2	5	1	6	13	12	25	5	2	7	7	9	16	1	0	1	3	14	17	1	1	2	6
3	3	5	8	18	10	28	3	8	11	2	5	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	7	19
4	4	5	9	2	1	3	8	10	18	7	1	8	1	1	2	15	20	35	0	2	2	3
5	3	7	10	11	4	15	4	7	11	9	11	20	0	0	0	8	5	13	3	2	5	6
6	3	4	7	17	7	24	10	16	26	5	6	11	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	4	4	6
7	3	5	8	17	8	25	4	12	16	5	7	12	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	3	4	13
8	4	2	6	11	4	15	6	21	27	9	11	20	2	1	3	2	0	2	1	0	1	6
9	0	3	3	8	6	14	24	20	44	3	4	7	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	2	2	8

10	1	1	2	20	12	32	0	0	0	6	16	22	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	21
11	4	5	9	18	14	32	5	7	12	6	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	7	7
12	4	6	10	5	4	9	23	17	40	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	8	14	4
13	2	3	5	7	9	16	12	19	31	10	3	13	0	1	1	4	4	8	1	0	1	5
14	0	3	3	7	3	10	10	10	20	10	9	19	1	0	1	0	2	2	7	7	14	11
15	2	4	6	5	3	8	14	19	33	12	6	18	0	0	0	1	3	4	2	0	2	9
16	4	6	10	15	5	20	6	3	9	5	5	10	0	2	2	0	0	0	6	10	16	13
17	6	6	12	8	4	12	6	3	9	9	16	25	0	1	1	2	0	2	1	2	3	16
18	3	2	5	4	16	20	7	5	12	2	3	5	0	0	0	4	1	5	5	3	8	25
19	9	7	16	5	6	11	17	18	35	3	3	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	10
20	3	5	8	2	0	2	22	24	46	2	4	6	0	0	0	3	0	3	2	1	3	12
Total	71	85	156	200	133	333	202	236	438	117	136	253	6	9	15	46	50	96	44	55	99	--
%	5.1	6.1	11.2	14.4	9.6	24.0	14.5	17.0	31.5	8.4	9.8	18.2	0.4	0.7	1.1	3.3	3.6	6.9	3.1	4.0	7.1	--

Culturally Responsive Teaching and Bilingual Students' Literacy Skills in the Middle East

Farah Omar Habli

Saint Louis University
USA

Abstract

The Middle East is a region where educational programs are shifting from single language instruction to dual languages instructions. While working in many schools in the region, I witnessed many children at the elementary level who spoke fluent English, but when it comes to reading they are not equipped with the proper literacy skills to write or read a complete sentence correctly. Western studies (Gay, 2010; McIntyre & Hulan, 2013; Palmer & Martínez, 2013; Rueda & Stillman, 2012; Sheryl & Suleiman, 1993) offer many solutions to this problem, mostly emphasizing on equipping teachers with cultural awareness skills to help diverse students build and develop their literacy skills in their second language, that is in this case, English. Most of Arab countries, specifically in the Arabian Gulf area, recruit native English-speaking teachers to teach English. However the question raised is how much these teachers are aware of the culture of the Arab students? This question initiates school administrators and stakeholders consider hiring foreign teachers that possess an awareness of the culture of their students. This is the main purpose of this paper is to present what the literature indicates regarding teachers with culture awareness skills. It investigates the characteristics of teachers that are culturally responsive and how these characteristics have a positive impact on developing English literacy skills in Arab students. It is a platform for new researches in the Middle East regarding the students' acquisition of well-developed English literacy skills.

Keywords: bilingual students, Middle East region, culturally responsive teacher, literacy skills, English as a second language

Introduction

Bilingual education is a common educational approach that is emerging throughout the world, specifically the Middle East and the Arab Gulf area. According to Al Saghayer (2014), we are living in the globalization era and the world economy is driven by the powers of knowledge, information and technology. The ability to understand and speak a different language is an important tool for international relations and for the development of science and technology (Al Saghayer, 2014). This is one of the most important reasons that forced on the Arab countries to reform their educational programs and enhance the English Language. Hence, this approach sets many challenges to educators, policy makers, parents and students. In order to constitute a clear image of this type of bilingual education in the Arab world, we should define it, specify the students who study such programs and describe the characteristics of the instructors that engage in implementing this approach. We should also strive to have a clear recognition of the components of bilingual education to ensure the success of language, reading and academic achievement in bilingual learners.

Being an educator, I had the chance to work as a teacher and an administrator in Lebanon, UAE and KSA. The schools were national or international schools adopting national, American, British, or International baccalaureate program. In all these schools, the students are considered bilingual students because the schedule is almost equally divided between the English and the Arabic language (see table1). Thus, the language of Instruction is Arabic when teaching the following disciplines: Arabic language, Arabic grammar, religion and social studies. It is English when studying English language, math and sciences. Extracurricular activities are administered in Arabic or English. According to Baker (2007), the schools follow the bilingual educational approach, where the students are defined as bilingual students and instructed in both languages depending on the subject matter.

Table 1. Timetable of grade 3 class in a private school in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Grade 3 (Girls)				
Teachers	Total Sessions per year	Hours	Sessions	Subject
Local Teacher	160	40	4	قرآن Quraan
	40	40	1	توحيد TAwhid
	40	40	1	فقه Fikh
Local Teacher	405	45	9	لغتي Arabic Language
Local Teacher	225	45	5	رياضيات Math/ Arabic
Local Teacher	135	45	3	علوم Science – Arabic
Local Teacher	45	45	1	تربية - Social Studies
Local Teacher	40	40	1	تربية فنية Art
Native English Teacher	400	45	9	English Language
Native English Teacher	90	45	2	Science
Native English Teacher	90	45	2	math

Native English Teacher	40	40	1	Life Skills
Native English Teacher	40	40	1	Activity
			15/ 25	Amount of hours taught by a foreign versus Local teacher
			40	Total Number of Sessions

School administrators, in the Middle East, hire native English speakers to teach English. As table1 highlights, almost one third of the school teachers are foreigners. As the need for foreign teacher is increasing, School administrators and stakeholders should highlight the concern towards what characteristics they look for when hiring a foreign teacher to teach the English. They have to study the efficiency of these characteristics in helping the Arab students acquire proper linguistic skills. These issues pinpoint major concerns and many unresolved problems regarding teaching English to students whose First Language is not English, in this case the students are Arab students, whose first language is Arabic and who live in the Middle East.

This paper is intended to offer a contribution to the topic of bilingual Education in the Middle East, to show that for native English teachers to be able to teach English for bilingual students in the Middle East area, they need to be culturally responsive and aware of the specific needs of the Middle Eastern students.

This introduction sets the tone and the establishment of the different parts of this paper. The first part of this paper is the literature review: it projects a comprehensive overview of the findings of each key concept of the topic: Bilingual children, culturally responsive teacher, and acquisition of the English language skills. The second part is the discussion: it develops a detailed argument to support the notion that English native teachers should know about the cultures of their students and base their teaching experiences on the students own experiences and on the students' own culture, learning behaviors and learning styles. The last part will incorporate the conclusion and the recommendations addressed to all the education communities, parents, teachers and school administrators that are interested in hiring native English speakers and develop in bilingual students the proper English literacy skills.

Literature Review

Many researchers contribute to understanding how bilingual children acquire literacy skills and provide helpful practical theories that many teachers follow to support bilingual children. This literature review continues to explore the 3 key elements of the title and the purpose of this paper: Culturally responsive teaching: Teachers that are culturally responsive help bilingual students developing their English literacy skills. Figure 1. maps the 3 key elements: culturally responsive teachers, bilingual students, English literacy skills.

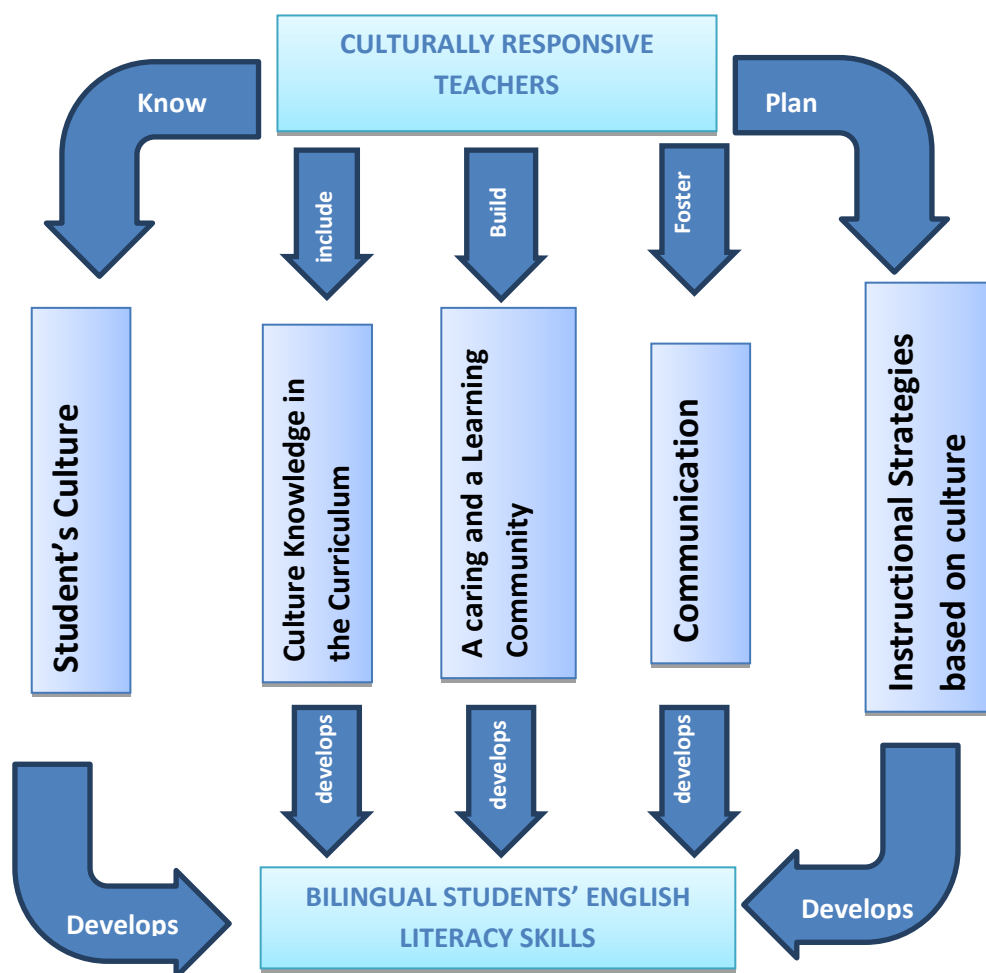


Figure 1. The concept map of the Literature review Key concept

Bilingual Children

Bilingual children are the children who are exposed to two different languages at the same time (Cortazzi, 2000). Garcia and Kleifgen (2010) present statistical data and figures in their book identify who are the bilingual children, how they are defined as bilingual, what procedures do the children undergo to be identified as bilingual students. They did many research in USA to show how new immigrants face difficulty in acquiring the language and show deficiency in their English Language once they enroll in elementary public schools. However, the major concern in this report is about Arabic children learning English. Bacha and Bahous (2011) define bilingual children in the Middle East and the Arabian Gulf region as children who speak English and Arabic at school while outside the school they only use their mother language, Arabic. Both articles came to a same conclusion that these children need to be provided with accurate support and help when it comes to developing their literacy skills (Bacha and Bahous, 2011; Garcia & Kleifgen, 2010)

English Literacy Skills Acquisition

Bialystok (2007) and Uchikoshi & Marinova-Todd, (2012) discuss bilingual students and focus on literacy acquisition as well. Their studies are concerned with the development of the literacy skills in bilingual students. They indicate that if teachers know how bilingual children develop their literacy skills, it would be easier for them to develop proper teaching and assessment strategies. Some researchers (Bialystok, 2007; Uchikoshi & Marinova-Todd, 2012) study the development of literacy skills within the mother language and provide a critical background on the foundation of how bilingual children become literate in their second language. Others focus on developing the following literacy skills: oral proficiency, representation of concepts of prints and phonological awareness Bialystok (2007), nonverbal reasoning, vocabulary, phonological awareness and naming speed (Geva & Lafrance, 2011). Geva & lafrance (2011) set a framework about how to teach bilingual children. They discuss, as well, monolinguals and how they acquire reading skills differently from bilinguals. It is very essentials to consider the skills mentioned earlier when teaching bilinguals. If one of these skills is not properly developed it may affect the acquisition of proper literacy skills.

Other researchers compare between the literacy acquisition in languages, the mother and the second language (Goodrich, Linogan, & Farver, 2013; Tahan, Messaoud-Galusi & Cline, 2011). Consequently results of these studies can be used to support that acquiring a second language does not hinder the acquisition of a second one. Sheryl and Suleiman (1993) present many considerations and cultural approaches when teaching English to Arabic students. These considerations include the writing systems, the syntactic differences, the sociolinguistics difference between both languages.

These studies contribute to the literature of bilingual education through proposing the proper sequence of the mother language that is L1 and how acquisition of the literacy skills may help bilingual children acquire the same skills in a different language. These research findings imply that educators should focus on helping bilingual children to develop their phonological awareness skills, vocabulary and print awareness in their mother language. Sheryl and Suleiman (1993) reveal that when teachers use the student's L1 linguistic tools, transformation of these skills occur in the students' second language. According to Sheryl and Suleiman (1993) bilingual teachers need to recognize linguistic, historical and cultural considerations to have a positive effect on the educational needs of the bilingual students and their families. Teachers wish to establish positive relations with bilingual students must be prepared to their culture and their histories (Sheryl and Suleiman, 1993). Sheryl and Suleiman (1993) provide important cultural and linguistic information about Arabic-speakers that set a starting point for teachers who are interested in understanding their students and their families. It is believed that providing relevant cultural information, teachers can better structure the curriculum to include this information in the students' school life (Griffer & Perlis, 2007; Sheryl and Suleiman, 1993) and it will accelerate the acquisition of the English language thus resulting in developing proper linguistic skills.

Culturally Responsive Teacher

This part discusses teacher's characteristics that promote intercultural understanding between the teachers and the students, thus resulting in a better acquisition of the English language literacy

skills. Johnson (2002) suggested that school administrators and career agents should hire teachers who bring diverse experiences to their class. Teachers should play a role model, mentors and support culturally different students. He proposes as well to provide teachers with ethnographic experiences, to immerse in the community and interact with locals and other teachers from the same community. These experiences will help the native English teachers to deepen their understanding and awareness of this new community. Jonson (2002) proposed an autobiographical narrative tool. This tool helps teachers to reflect on their experiences and to develop their teaching and learning experiences in accordance to these reflections and teach effectively. This critical reflection examines situations, initiates the teachers into more community or cultural inquiry and develops a more understanding and appreciation.

Culturally responsive teachers are related to students' success. They are trained to identify the barriers and alleviate the students' personality for better achievement (Lenski, Crumpler, Staliworth, and Crawford, 2005). Direct connection and awareness to the cultural backgrounds between the students' daily life and the content of instruction make an interactive curriculum, thus resulting in a better success in the student's school life. Teachers who communicate with bilingual students while working through their culture differences or barriers creates better educational opportunities to those children (Lenski, Crumpler, Staliworth, and Crawford, 2005).

Gay (2010) and Rueda & Stillman (2013) conducted studies in USA and Canada to evaluate what best essential elements for teachers to exhibit in order to provide better learning experiences for bilingual students. They tackle culturally responsive teachers and it affects positively student's achievement or develop student's literacy skills. Culturally responsive teachers constitute five elements:

- 1- Knowing about student's culture.
- 2- Integrate this knowledge in the student's curriculum.
- 3- Build a caring and a learning community.
- 4- Communicate effectively.
- 5- Use the culture of the students to plan for instructional strategies

Culture is related to language, religion, music, art, food, color and costumes. Many subjects have a direct cultural implications and can be included in the teaching and learning process (McIntyre & Hulan, 2013). Every culture has its figures in many areas such as science, literature, poetry, medicine, economy and can be referred to when discussing a particular discipline with bilingual students. Sheryl and Suleiman (1993) present important information about the Arab culture and its language.

Arabic is the language of one of the world's great civilizations, and one to which the West has been profoundly indebted for over a millennium in fields as diverse as mathematics, chemistry, geography, and philosophy. (p.4)

They defined the Arabic culture as a culture of poetry and literature and not bounded to skin color or cuisine or a folkdance, culture in this essence has a deeper meaning. Gay (2010), believe that a culturally responsive teachers are teacher who know how to interpret what culture

is, know their students, their culture (Rueda & Stillman, 2012) and their subjects. Once teachers incorporate these three aspects into their teaching pedagogy, they are known as culturally responsive teachers and help their students in acquiring and developing their English literacy skills.

Include this knowledge in the student's curriculum

Once teachers know about the culture of their students, they can use this knowledge as an instructional resource (McIntyre & Hulan, 2013; Rueda & Stillman, 2012). Teachers should be able to convert this content knowledge into a culturally responsive curriculum. Teachers should help the students raise critical awareness to the messages that are embedded in these curricula. These key principles are essential to second language learners. Teachers should integrate these principles in the educational program rather than presenting them as supplement to the existing curriculum.

Build a Caring and a Learning Community

Sheryl and Suleiman (1993), imply the importance of teachers appreciating the abilities of the bilingual students within the context of their cultural and ethnic differences. Teachers incorporate this knowledge to all other subject areas such as math, science, music, including language (McIntyre & Hulan, 2013). According to Rueda (2012) teachers make sophisticated connections across all disciplines. Once native English teachers show the responsibility to understand their students capabilities they build a caring and a learning community. Culturally responsive teachers help bilingual students to appreciate the academic knowledge they have gained and to use this knowledge to support and encourage everyone.

Foster communications

Communication within a culture involves many contextual factors. These factors involve body language, use of vocabulary, movements and gestures and the roles of speaker and listener. Culturally responsive teachers should be aware of these factors and accommodate them in their students' learning experiences (Gay, 2010; Rueda & Stillman, 2012). Once teachers are aware of the language style or culture of bilingual students, they can teach them how to shift these styles according to different people and different context.

Plan Instructional Strategies Based on Culture

Learning styles and culture go hand in hand; many cultures have a preferable method for learning (Rueda & Stillman, 2012). Arab culture is based on poetry and literature. Teachers can use Arabic poetry to teach reading, vocabulary and comprehension (Shyril & Suleiman, 1993). If teachers are aware to those styles in the culture they support the bilingual students in developing their literacy skills (Gay, 2010).

This discussion attempts to provide cultural and linguistic information about all bilingual students and Arabic students in particular. The purpose is to assist teachers to know where to start in order to understand Arab bilingual students and their families. Once teachers are familiar with the culture of their students, they can design and plan better learning experiences. Similarly, when they know how Arab bilingual students develop their literacy skills, they can deal with the drawbacks between both languages: first and second language. In addition teachers can pinpoint and deal with transfer pitfalls between English and Arabic to increase the

development of the English Language while maintaining the Arabic. Rueda and Stillman (2012) indicate that teachers need to be very well prepared and trained in order to teach bilingual students effectively.

Education is a major concern to the Arabic countries and students are introduced to two Languages as early as the pre-school level. International school and national schools that adopt an American or a British program tend to hire native speaker teachers to teach the English language. This concern generates many questions and the followings are just few examples of what researchers in the Middle East should be asking: How much awareness do native English teachers possess to the Arab students'? Do they own this content knowledge to be able to incorporate cultural information into the teaching and learning daily practices? The literature review states the absence of this research as to understand the relationship of a culturally responsive teacher and bilingual students. More research should address this issue, if we are looking for a lifelong learning community with a proficient acquisition of the English language.

Conclusion

The literature review pinpoints the importance of equipping the teachers with proper strategies to accurately intervene once bilingual learners experience literacy difficulties (Al Saghayer, 2014; Gay, 2010; Palmer & Martinez, 2013; Rueda & Stillman, 2012). They proposed to go beyond bilingual students and to engage all teachers, native and local teachers, to be culturally responsive. Students can be from different cultures, different economical status, varying abilities but once teachers are responsive to these differences and show the five elements that Gay (2010) discussed in his books, they can help every student. This approach minimizes the barriers that prevent collaborations across teachers, stakeholders and special teachers and it is used as a mean that best helps and supports students. It is based on culture, but culture in this essence is a variable that changes with the experience of the individual in accordance to place and time. Culture is learned and created in the individual's daily life practices (Rueda and Stillman, 2013). To be culturally responsive, all teachers need to collect data about the experiences of the students including their language (Sheryl and Suleiman, 1993; Gay, 2010). Culturally responsive teachers make use of the information collected to develop instructional goals and invest this knowledge for further academic gain (Palmer and Martinez, 2013). These studies unravel the success behind teaching bilingual children that is equipping teachers with cultural awareness. Each of the reviewed articles provides and contributes to the topic of bilingual children and their literacy skills. Each research results show that the development of the first language literacy skills is potentially different from that of the second language literacy skills. Therefore when educators, policy makers and parents are aware of this difference, they can administer many procedures to provide supportive and appropriate learning positive experiences to bilingual children

Recommendations

Recommendations suggested from many researches that studies the same subject, Palmer and Martinez (2013) indicate that training teachers to be culturally responsive will not be as effective as it is expected if the teachers themselves do not own this positive attitude and beliefs toward cultural differences. Instead of training the teachers, recruiting agencies should be more selective in their hiring process.

About the Author:

Farah Omar Habli is a Lebanese Educator; she has been in the Education field for the last 20 years. She earned her BA in Early childhood education and master degree in educational management from Lebanese American University, Beirut, Lebanon. Currently, she is a PhD candidate at Saint Louis University, MO, USA in curriculum Design and Instruction. She worked in Lebanon and in the Gulf region.

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An Assessment of EFL Learners' Ability to Identify and Interpret Rhetorical Questions: A Pragmatic Perspective Study

Khalid Sabie Khamees

Department of English, College of Arts
Al-Iraqiya University, Iraq

Abstract

The concept of rhetorical questions and their role in conveying pragmatic meanings has been of interest to many researchers in the field of language learning as these questions form one of the pillars in language communication. The main purpose of this empirical study is to find out whether learners are able to recognize rhetorical questions as well as their pragmatic functions, i.e., their illocutionary force. A total of 30 junior students majoring in English, participated in this study. The data were collected via a 25-item test followed by post-performance. They listened to 19 dialogues, and were asked to identify and interpret the pragmatic meanings of the rhetorical questions contained. Data analysis showed that while it was relatively easy for the test-takers to recognize rhetorical questions, they encountered some problems when trying to interpret their pragmatic functions. Complexity of speech acts, availability of contextual clues, background knowledge, and natural reasoning seemed to be the main variables that affected the test-takers' inferencing. Making combinations between various ideas contained in a single dialogue in addition to lack of proper courses geared towards developing this skill, seemed to be responsible for learners satisfactory or unsatisfactory achievement.

Keywords: comprehension, context, identification, implied meaning, pragmatics, rhetorical questions

Introduction

The fact that human beings have got the desire to be recognized as distinguished, powerful and effective figures in society is unquestionable. Therefore, they try, for example, to be highly educated, physically powerful, and socially effective. Playing with words has had a magic effect on the listener or reader. For this reason, people often resort to using certain styles and techniques in conversation in order to produce an effect on listeners. In order to express their purposes, they sometimes tend to use verbal means either directly or indirectly. The art of oratory or persuasive speaking is termed 'rhetorics'. According to Yankah: 1994: 3568, rhetorical questions (henceforth RQs) are one of the styles used to have an effect on interlocutors.

Scholars and rhetoricians have studied the styles speakers select to produce a highly effective discourse. They also have tackled the techniques used for getting a persuasive discourse by using different expressions, some of which are syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, poetic, etc. Linguists (e.g. Han 2002: 202, Han, 2014:1, Lee-Goldman, 2006:1) point out that while an ordinary question seeks information or answer from the hearer, an RQ producer does not expect to elicit an answer; rather, he/she has another goal in mind: to exert the utmost powerful effect on the addressee. Rohde (2006:134) states that RQs are examples of utterances whose form does not match their functions. Quirk et al (1985: 804) holds that an RQ is interrogative in structure but displays a strong assertive force and generally does not expect an answer. They maintain that for rhetorical yes/no questions, a positive question is equivalent to a negative assertion and a negative question is equivalent to a positive assertion. As for wh-questions, the positive question equals a statement in which the wh-element is replaced by a positive element (Benjamin, 1972:2). Thus, an RQ is a statement put in the form of question as a style for expressing meaning. RQs gain their force as challenges or assertions from their interactional context rather than from their linguistic form, therefore they fall within the field of pragmatics. Consider the following structures:

- a. ***I am hungry.***
- b. ***I haven't eaten anything for the last ten hours.***
- c. ***Do you expect a hungry man to be able to work?***

It can be noticed that the above three sentences have three different structures; nevertheless, they have a single function: request, i.e., the speaker asks for food. It can be deduced that the RQ structure is a strategy used by a speaker or a writer to convey message. These questions are not real questions, rather they are one of the implicit discourse devices used to carry out certain speech acts. In the example below the

A. *You can certainly lift that suitcase on your own, because it is very light.*"

B. *How light do you think this suitcase is?*

speaker wishes to refute the addresser's claim by using an RQ which can be expressed by the statement, ***"You have obviously misjudged the weight of this suitcase. It is too heavy for me to lift."***

The idea that an RQ does not need an answer is debatable. The present researcher argues that if we admit that an answer is not given to an RQ because the speaker and the addressee know the answer to it, or because it is too obvious to answer, then we have to concede that it is an ordinary question. On the other hand, since it is submitted that an RQ is an assertion in origin, an answer to the question is improper. Actually, these thought-to-be answers to questions, or reactions, or comments on speaker's assertion are indirect speech acts that carry various messages. And this is a very common phenomenon, simply because interlocutors in every day conversation often react to or comment on what they hear. Caponigo & Sprouse (2007: 8) state that "answers are optional with RQs and either the Addressee or the Speaker can give them." Rohde (2006:142) states that "The Addressee, however, may actually respond in certain cases: (i). if the rhetorical intent was misunderstood, (ii) if the question was an "exam-question", or (iii) if the response confirms or acknowledges the implication of the rhetorical question. In the example below, the addresser is not interested in an answer, however, what seems to be an answer is not an answer; instead, it is a reaction expressing the addressee's dissatisfaction with the addresser's remark. Thus, the speaker's utterance has the illocutionary force of sarcasm.

A. *Do you understand what I mean?*

B. *I'm not stupid.*

One of the major conclusions that Ilie (1994) arrives at is that English rhetorical questions constitute a special category of questions, which are neither answerable nor unanswerable. The present researcher claims that even when an answer to a RQ (a comment) is not articulated, it is there in the mind, and that opting to produce an answer orally or keeping it hidden in the mind depends on the listener's judgment. For example a speaker's utterance, *"You're my dearest friend, how did it strike you I stole your wallet?"* Pragmatically speaking, though an oral response is not needed in this situation, it is possible that an addressee would give a one like *"Yes, I'm sure you're the only one who stole my watch."* This seemingly puzzling paradox could not change the fact that the deep structure of the addresser's question is a statement. And in reality, the recipient's response is a reaction (refusal) to the statement, *"I didn't steal your wallet because you're my dearest friend"*. It goes without saying that an utterance in conversation can take various structural forms, depending on the circumstances and justifications under which it is vocalized; nevertheless, the kernel sentence which is derived from the intended meaning of the speaker is a decisive one in that it determines the original grammatical structure and its propositional (literal) meaning. But the intended meaning is a pragmatic one. For this reason, RQs are better studied from a pragmatic perspective, simply, because utterances in any language do not have fixed meanings. This is the reason why the possibility of mastering a foreign language in an area where English is not the indigenous language is utterly imperfect whatever efforts are made in this concern. In fact, language learning embodies all aspects of life a community exercises. Thus, depending on the surface structure might lead to misunderstanding and breakdown in conversation. Rohde (2006: 164) states that the answers for RQs are "predictable by both participants in the sense, rhetorical questions are

redundant interrogatives”. The purposes behind making RQs are covert ones and there are definitely reasons that stimulate a speaker to use this style.

Functions of Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions are thought to be one of the main features of any language, including the Arabic language, simply, because they are used intentionally and rationally (Thomas,1995) to realize certain goals. Some of these questions have become conventional polite speech acts strategies, and, thus, have to be properly used in certain situations. These conventional RQs make our language more beautiful and interesting, as it arouses hidden feelings of sympathy, anger, admiration, etc. To this end, an RQ producer usually uses a unique sort of tone that must accompany its structure. With the help of tone, an addressee would easily recognize the function of utterances, including RQs. People also use RQs as a mitigating device. For example in the utterance “*Dad, Don’t you want to get started on that project*”? The speaker uses an RQ to convey a request because a direct command is too impolite to get the addressee accept the speaker’s suggestion.

According to Lee-Goldman, (2006:2), and Koshik, (2005: 36) an RQ is used as a challenge statement to convey the addressers commitment to its implicit answer, in order to induce the addressees’ mental recognition of its obviousness and acceptance, verbalized or non-verbalized, of its validity. Wang (2014:43) points out that because RQs are interrogative in form, they denote statements which are used to challenge the previous utterance or action of the hearer. Therefore, they often occur in environments of disagreement (Wang, 2014: 46). According to Frank (1990), RQs are also used to enhance the force and impact of the standpoint or argument advanced in order to win over the addressees and ensure their support, or even to challenge or attacks an opponent.

RQs can be used by a speaker to induce, reinforce, or alter assumptions, beliefs, or ideas in the addressee's mind. In politics, business, social and cultural situations, the ability to manipulate the audience by playing on their emotions, usually tells who is an orator and who not (Abioye, 2011: 290) is. They encourage the listener to reflect on what the implied answer to the question must be. An RQ may serve as subtle way of insinuating an idea that might be challenged by an audience if asserted directly. Sometimes an RQ is asked only as a thought-provoking and stimulating tool in discussion. Such questions are capable of inspiring new thoughts, ideas and even further debate. It is, thus, a clever way to avoid a conversation coming to a halt. Chen (2011: 613) mentions two reasons for using RQ: first they can perform face - threatening acts as well as face-saving acts. An RQ is used for the sake of persuasive effect rather than as a genuine request for information. Zillman (1972:164) argues that in natural conversation or debate, a speaker is most likely to elicit a respondent's admission of agreement in response to a good argument. RQs would not be used with poor argument because an overt response would likely result in disagreement and thus would have undesirable consequences for

the persuader. Thus, a speaker who uses RQs would generally be more persuasive than one who does not.

In Iraq, it is noticed that people in their everyday conversations, whether young or old, employ RQs abundantly. To the present researcher's knowledge, a considerable number of RQs have become conventional enough to be instantly perceived by them. It is also noticed that RQs are commonly used by individuals who are exposed to emotional occurrences. The Example below depicts a situation in Iraq where it can be felt that the respondent is indignant, expressing her emotional denial by using a rhetorical structure and a special tone for this occasion. Socially speaking, the wife uses a specific structure of RQ that is relevant to her husband's social status and their balanced and intimate relationship.

Husband: *Where is the staples, Widad?* الزوج: وداد، وين راحت الكابسه؟

Wife: *What shall I do with it?* وداد (الزوجة): يعنى ما تكلى شسوى بيها؟

Identifying and Interpreting Rhetorical Questions

Holtgraves (2008a: 21) admits that recognition of speaker's intention is particularly problematic because people frequently mean more than what they say. Haverkate (1997:222) explains that in formulating RQs, the speaker communicates more than that which he actually states; because the literal performance of the interrogative act implies the performance of a non-literal assertive act. People usually use various ways to express their intentions for one reason or another. These intentions are called speech acts. These speech acts are divided into two groups: direct and indirect. Speech act theory suggests that illocutionary force recognition plays a critical role in the comprehension of conversation remarks. Rhetorical questions are considered indirect speech acts in that they are used to convey meaning implicitly. Here, the speaker conveys meaning beyond the surface level of the linguistic form (Grice, 1975: 3, Brown & Levinson, 1978:274). Koshik (2005:3) states that RQs are widely used by English speakers to perform different actions such as challenges, accusations, complaints, pre-disagreements, etc.

Holtgraves (2008b:362) indicates that recognition of illocutionary force of implicit performance represents an inference process; the speech act is not literally present in the sentence and must be inferred. Wang (2014: 42) holds that the hearer's understanding of the message communicated counts most in the identification of rhetorical questions. Ilie (1994) proposes a pragmatic framework for the interpretation of the discursive and argumentative functions of non-standard questions. Her investigation involves three types: argumentative non-standard questions: expository questions, rhetorical questions and echo questions. She concludes that among the three types, rhetorical questions are more argumentative, because they imply that the speaker is firmly committed to their implied answer. Benjamin (1972: 5) argues that every question has within it the kernel (deep structure) of the statement which spawns it. According to Rohde (2006:135) to measure the felicity of RQs, one has to make sure whether the participants share an answer and whether that answer is obvious. Three conditions are required to decide whether a question is a rhetorical one: 1. obvious answer 2. the un informativity of an answer. 3. similarity of speaker and addressee's answers.

In order to recognize and interpret a rhetorical question, one has to carry out the following activities:

1. A listener has to recognize the literal meaning of an utterance prior to comprehending the indirect meaning. After deciding that the literal meaning is defective, he/she starts to search for an indirect interpretation (Holtgraves, 2008a:28). In case the RQ is a conventional one, there is no need for extracting the literal meaning.
2. Examining the grammatical structure of an RQ. Mostly, a positive question is equivalent to a negative assertion and a negative question is equivalent to a positive assertion.
3. Full comprehension of linguistic context in which an utterance is emitted. The recipient has the ability to make association between utterances and finally come up with the intended meaning.
4. The mutual understanding of both the addresser and the addressee on the subject matter being talked about. There is a hidden agreement between them that the question raised has a purpose and function other than that of seeking information. Thus, it is the job of the addressee to locate and read the real meaning of what is hidden in the speaker's mind. Once this agreement is not attained, there will be misunderstanding that requires putting the stream of meanings on the right track.
5. Understanding the familiar social and cultural norms of the society as these traditions and values might signal particular meanings.
6. Recognizing the tone that accompanies the production of an RQ. Tone helps us differentiate between different voices. It gives us a clue as to why the speaker uses a certain type of tone and, thus, helps us recognize and interpret an RQ as whether it is a request, agreement and so on.
7. Making use of paralinguistic features such as facial expressions, eye movements and gestures which may help a listener to identify RQs, infer implied meaning and add support, emphasis, or particular meaning to what people say.

Background

Most of the research have investigated the types, functions and nature of RQs (e.g. Chen, 201, Lee-Goldman, 2006, Rohde, 2006), the differences between them and ordinary questions (e.g. Han, 2002), how to interpret them (e.g. Wang, 2014, Han, 2002, Egg, 2007) and their effect on the addressees. Coponigro & Sprouse (2007) studied the differences between RQs and ordinary question. They found there were no differences between RQs and ordinary questions in their structures. The distinction between them is just a pragmatic one in nature. The results of Cole's (2010) study showed that RQs were produced by a minority of students who studied English in a second language context and students had few problems resulting from RQ use. Howard (1990) conducted four experiments to examine the effect of RQs on message persuasion. The results showed that RQs elicit judgement on the topic of the request when they are received, and that the availability of relevant information is a critical factor, determining whether a or not a message persuasion occurs. Benjamin (1972) investigated listeners' ability to perceive RQs. Results indicated that listeners who heard a speaker's RQ in an argumentative context generally perceived the utterances as statements rather than RQs. The results of Petty & Cacioppo's study (1981) showed that a message with strong arguments became more persuasive; and a message with weak arguments became less persuasive with rhetorical questions. Abioye (2011:290) carried out a study to determine whether RQs contribute to the effectiveness of newspaper messages. It was found that preference for RQs was higher than other stylistic alternatives. Ilie (1994) used an integrative approach based on the pragmatic framework for the analysis of questions and

response elicitation. A pragmatic classification of questions had been developed in terms of their elicitation force. The elicitation force was ascribable to the addresser of the question according to his/her explicit and implicit intentions when performing the act of questioning. Al-Fadda (2010) investigated the possibility of achieving functional equivalence when translating RQs in Haddith from Arabic into English. The results showed that partial equivalence could be achieved and there were certain linguistic and non-linguistic signals and strategies used by translators to convey the functions of the original RQs. The present researcher thinks that familiarity with the various functions of RQs is of paramount importance for natural language learning. The reason behind conducting this study is that, to the present researchers' best knowledge, no fieldwork study has been done in this specific area. The main purpose of the study is to give answers to the following questions:

- a. To what extent can learners of English recognize rhetorical questions?
- b. To what extent can learners of English recognize and interpret the illocutionary force of rhetorical questions?

Method

Subjects

The subjects participating in this study consisted of 30 randomly-selected Arabic-speaking first-year undergraduate students at Al-Iraqiya State University, Iraq. Their ages ranged from 19 to 23. They were full-time students, majoring in English. All the students had studied English, among other subjects taught in Arabic, for 8 years before joining the department. In Iraq, pupils used to start learning English at the fifth year of their primary stage. All the students have to pass the ministerial examinations before moving to the stage that follows. Those who intend to enrol in the department of English are to pass an admission written test as well as an interview. Most of the students joined the English department because they were interested in this area of specialization. Their proficiency in English was varied considerably. They were exposed to English mainly through their classes because English was their medium of instruction. They had got no instruction or an idea about RQs, despite the fact that they understood and produced such kind of questions in their everyday oral communication in Arabic. Therefore, it was expected that the results of this study would not be influenced by their previous education variable. The staff members held Ph.D. or M.A. degrees in linguistics, literatures, or methods of teaching English. The reason behind recruiting these students to carry out this study is that the researcher has been their own instructor and a member of the department staff. It was hoped that the subjects would fully cooperate with the researcher.

Instrument

In order to give answers to the study questions, a listening task, comprising 19 items was developed by the researcher. Each item of the test was composed of a dialogue. In each dialogue, the addresser or the addressee produces one or more than one RQs. All the RQs except number 7 take place in a disagreement environment. It is noteworthy to mention that all the dialogues include both ordinary and rhetorical questions in order to make answering the first study questions feasible, i.e. the test-takers has to differentiate between the two groups of questions.

All the dialogues were created by the researcher except three ones, namely, dialogues 1, 14, and 15. The test includes 25 RQs; 6 of them were composed by the researcher. The researcher borrowed the other 19 RQs from a variety of resources and created situations and dialogues in which these RQs were included. It can be admitted that these dialogues are artificial ones, however, their occurrences in real-life situations is of high frequency. The RQs in the dialogues have various pragmatic functions (See Table 2). It is thought that this type of test is more accurate in measuring the learners' ability to identify the RQs as well as their functions. The listener could make use of non-linguistic context: speaker's facial features, gestures, tone and setting to identify and interpret the RQs. She/he would be able to make connection between the utterances and come up with an inference of the implied meaning.

Some of the questions are not followed by explicit answers that are directly related to the given questions. For example in item 8 the addresser's question is followed by another question where there is no relation between them on the propositional level. The vague relation between the two utterances may drive the addressee to skip the literal meaning and start to look for a meaning that would be in harmony with the speaker's question. Thus, on the pragmatic level, there is quite a reasonable and logical relation between the son's request and the mother's refusal that is put in the form of an RQ.

Item 8. **Son:** *Mum, please, may I watch T.V.?*

Mother: *Aren't you taking your physics exam tomorrow morning?*

Test administration

The volunteers in this study were given an account on the meaning of RQs and showed how to do the task. Two illustrative examples were given: the first was in the colloquial Arabic Iraqi language, while the second was in English. They were incentivized so as to be serious and do their best by adding two extra marks to their second term examination in the subject matter the researcher was teaching. They were advised to work hard as the task would evaluate their intellectual abilities. They were also asked to write their names on their answer sheets. In presenting the dialogues, a female student and a male student took part in the dialogues as either speakers or addressees, while the researcher took the other role. It was thought that this way of presenting the dialogues would make the heard speech more natural. Bachman,(1990:112) considers context of situation as the central construct in the study of language and that the meaning of a speech act is determined by the components of situation such as the participants, the setting, the topic and the purpose. After hearing a dialogue, they were asked to put a mark on the utterance they thought it was an RQ and then write down its function in the discourse. The participants were strongly encouraged to explain how they managed to interpret an RQ and the problems. The test was conducted at 10 o'clock in the morning, on the 21st of May, 2015, in room no.30.

As soon as the test was administered, the answers were scored by the researcher. One score was given for each correct response but no score was given when the answer was wrong, or when an item was left out. The highest mark would be 30 while the lowest would be zero. Participants' answers were tallied for each item and for the whole group in respect to the dual

objectives of the study: identification of RQs as well as their illocutionary functions. The test scores were added in totals, besides; each RQ's score

was computed. The quantitative results were used to provide qualitative analysis of the speech acts recognized by the subjects.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 below was designed to answer the first study question: "To what extent can learners of English recognize rhetorical questions? Results show that the majority of the participants were able to recognize the RQs. 527 (%77) of their answers were correct, while the number of incorrect answers was 158 (%23). This result gives concrete evidence that a considerable proportion of the participants were able to identify the RQs in the contextualized situational dialogues and make distinction between them and the ordinary questions contained in the dialogues. The reasons for this positive result could be attributed to the oral presentation of the material where all contextual clues were available at the listener's disposal. The situation created by the dialogues makes it easy for the listener to combine the meanings of the utterances and identify the RQ in question. The other important factor that plays a fundamental role in recognizing RQs is the tone used

Table 1. Number of correct and incorrect answers with their percentages

Serial no. of dialogue	Serial no. of RQ.	No. of correct answers	%	No. of incorrect answers	%
1	1	20	60	10	30
2	2	26	86	4	13
3	3	10	33	20	66
	4	26	86	4	13
4	5	23	76.6	7	23.3
5	6	27	90	3	10
6	7	28	93	2	6.6
7	8	23	76	7	23.3
8	9	20	60	10	33
9	10	21	70	9	30
	11	24	80	6	20
10	12	17	56	13	43
	13	18	60	12	30
11	14	14	46	16	53.3
12	15	26	86	4	13
13	16	23	76	7	30
14	17	27	90	3	10
15	18	21	70	9	30
	19	27	90	3	10
16	20	27	90	3	10
17	21	30	100	-	-
18	22	20	60	10	33
	23	21	70	9	30
	24	21	70	9	30

19	25	25	83	5	16.5
Total	-----	527	77	158	23.3

when producing an RQ. The present researcher stresses that most of the dialogues set were representative of the life, habits and conventions in the Iraqi society. Tone, facial expressions and the joint understanding of the topic are the main avenues that lead a listener to identify an RQ and then react in the appropriate way. Some of the RQs have become so conventional that they almost need no effort to recognize. Some students revealed that when an RQ happened to be the first question in a dialogue (e.g. RQ 15) they mistakenly took it for an informative question. In addition, when an RQ is followed by a statement on the part of the addressee (e.g. item10) some of the participants thought it was an ordinary question (%43). It can be concluded that the identification of RQs hinges on combining meanings rather than on grammatical structures. The process of RQs identification is an initial step in the process of attaining their relevant interpretations.

The second study question is concerned with the learner's ability to recognize and interpret the illocutionary force of RQs. The total number of scores is 750. Statistical analysis (Table 2) shows that the majority of the examinees (%64.8) were perplexed when asked to assign the appropriate function to the RQs mentioned in the dialogues. It shows that only %35.2 of them managed to decide the illocutionary force of the utterance. The reason for this might stem from the fact that at the undergraduate level there have been no courses geared towards developing the learners' pragmatic competence. These learners had not got instruction or practice on how to recognize or interpret RQs. Recognizing the function of RQs seems more complicated than making distinction between them and ordinary questions. The learners' good performance in recognizing RQs is due to their intuition and the contextual clues available. Khamees (2010:322) states that "learners depend on their natural reasoning and past experience to identify speech acts". The ineffective participants seem incapable of going beyond the literal meaning when interpreting utterances. Some students disclosed that they used to understand the spoken or written language literally, denying having instruction or exercises on inferring meaning expressed implicitly.

The other problem encountered by the participants is the chain of inferences needed to realize the function of an utterance. Flowerdew (1990:86) states that "One sentence can express more than one act." One has also to distinguish between simple and multiple indirect speech acts. The first performs only a primary speech act, while the second is embedded into another speech act. Naturally, one RQ may be used to realize many different illocutionary forces, and it is only because of the inferencing processes that we manage to identify the right one. Complex speech acts require the listener to go through more than one cognitive processing step to accurately recognize the pragmatic function of an utterance. Evidently, most of the poor students managed to untie the first or the second knot of an utterance, but they could not go further. They usually

mentioned that an RQ had an opposite meaning. For example, when doing the task of item 3, “*Don’t you know it cost me five dollars?*”, many participants wrote that they thought the utterance was a statement, meaning that the pizza cost the addressee 5 dollars. These learners lack the ability to make combinations between utterances to extract the real meaning. Actually, the utterances that follow or precede an RQ would help the participant decide the purpose behind producing it. Item 11 gives evidence of the complex nature of RQs.

Table. 2. Recognizing functions of rhetorical questions, number of correct and incorrect answers and their percentage.

no. of RQ	function of RQs	no. of correct answers	%	no. of incorrect answers	%
1	disagreement	14	46.7	16	53.3
2.	rebuking	12	40	18	60
3	rebuking	11	36	19	63
	sarcasm	12	40	18	60
4.	advice	8	26.6	22	73.3
5	complaining	10	33.3	20	66.6
6	. sarcasm	10	33.3	20	66.6
7.	agreement	7	23	23	76.6
8	.refusal	5	16.6	25	83.8
9.	Warning	12	40	18	60
	complaining	8	26.6	22	73.3
10	apology	9	30	21	66
	rebuking	12	40	18	60
11	refusal	9	30	21	66
12	rebuking	10	33.3	20	66.6
13	rebuking	13	43.3	17	56.6
14	Warning	14	56	17	56.6

15	request complaining	12 12	40 40	18 18	60 60
16	advice	10	33.3	20	66.6
17	protesting	15	50	15	50
18	complaining disagreement disagreement	20 3 6	66.6 10 20	10 27 24	33 9 86
19	sarcasm	10	33	20	66
Total	25	264	35.2	486	64.8

Item 11: Woman: ***Would you please turn off the heating?***

Man: ***Won't the house plants get frozen and die?***

In order to understand the man's utterance, the addresser has to identify the positive structure of the question (assertion). Second, she attempts to refuse the speaker's request in a polite way, using a warning style. It seems this is the reason why some test-takers assigned the assertion function to the RQ, while others considered it as either warning or refusal. Item 5, 8, 12, 13, 15 and 18 are examples of utterances whose meanings are illusive and, thus, difficult to grasp. These utterances have three illocutionary forces each. The dilemma here is that some participants perceived an RQ as carrying a specific illocutionary force, while the speaker means something else.

Some ineffective participants complained that they had not got the chance to review their answers because they had to catch up with the flow of the on-going oral speech. Others expressed their disappointment as they lost a lot of time trying to understand the literal meanings of utterances. Forgetfulness was one of the main reasons that impeded their ability to decide the right type of speech acts carried by utterances. On the other hand, effective participants seem to make use of linguistic and non-linguistic contextual clues to understand the purpose behind emitting an utterance. For example, in item 9 (RQ.9) the learners revealed that the utterance "***I don't smoke.***" sparked the idea of the harmful effects of smoking which in turn facilitated the process of deciding the illocutionary force of the RQ that followed.

Item 9. George: Could you spare me a cigarette?

John: I don't smoke. Have you thought over your health and the money you spend on smoking?

Familiarity with the social and cultural use of language has a substantial effect on the process of comprehension. The unsatisfactory result of item 7 (7 scores: % 23) gives an evidence to this effect. Table 2 shows that %76.6 of the test-takers failed to understand the function of the RQ,

simply because they were not acquainted with such kind of figures of speech put in the form of an RQ either in class or in their native language.

Item 7: *John, do you really love me?* John: *Is the rain wet?*

Conclusion

The main objectives of this study are to investigate whether EFL learners are able to recognize RQs and interpret their indirect meanings in order to decide their pragmatic functions. It also sheds light on the problems they encounter in this respect. Rhetorical questions are often used as indirect speech acts. The findings showed that the learners are adequately able to recognize RQs when presented orally in speech. However, their ability to assign a specific function for a rhetorical question is not satisfactory. The results revealed that the participants were able to understand the propositional meaning of an utterance, but the majority could not recognize the illocutionary force embedded in that speech act. A considerable number of participants did not make use of contextual clues available to understand the purpose behind producing a certain utterance. Context seems to play a basic role in recognizing and interpreting RQs. It was found that an RQ that contains more than one speech act requires more cognitive processes to attain the intended illocutionary force. For this reason, when an RQ whose illocutionary force is embedded into another one, the participant might mistakenly choose the first one rather than the intended one. For example when refusal is embedded into warning, the listener might infer warning as the sound interpretation.

Implications

The results of this study indicated that interpreting RQs is much more complicated than might be expected as they are context sensitive. In the light of the study results, it is suggested that text books have to cover this important aspect of language communication. Bouton (1999) claims that learners do benefit from explicit instruction in the use of implicatures, and RQs can be considered as a form of implicatures. Learners have to be convinced that an RQ might be used to express various meanings. The learners are to be sensitized to the effect of contextual clues that could be used to identify and interpret RQs. It would be favourable if the learners are exposed to real life situation where people use such questions. The teacher is required to analyse and explain the reason behind using an RQ and how coherence can be made between seemingly unrelated utterances. Learner could be given time to reason and explore for themselves the real meanings of RQs.

About the author

Dr. Khalid Sabie Khamees is an associate professor, currently teaching English at the department of English, Al-Iraqiya University. He has been teaching English since 1972. Before joining the present university, he taught English in Sudan and Yemen universities, including Sana'a University. His Ph.D. thesis was highly evaluated by his external examiner, Professor John Swales, of Michigan University. His research interests include issues related to pragmatics, grammar, phonetics, and learning strategies.

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The Effectiveness of Social Distance on Requests

Sumayyah Qaed Alsulami

Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

This essay is an attempt to explain one of the fundamental discourse analysis theories in the field of politeness: Brown and Levinson's face-saving theory. They divide the face into positive and negative then they formulate five politeness strategies the speaker can use when the person faces any of the face threatening acts. The aim of this paper is to investigate how this theory can be adapted and applied to interview using requests. In addition, the essay will identify the strategies of request and politeness phenomena in producing a request speech act. It will record a 10-minute interviews with an Australian native speaker of English and an Indonesian nonnative speaker about topics of interest to the participants. The study will show how the social distance, the power that the speaker wield on the hearer and the imposition of the request on the hearer impact forming the request sentence.

Keywords: brown & levinson, face saving, politeness, request, social distance

Introduction

One of the aims of socialization is to develop the ability to behave appropriately in terms of politeness. The presence or absence of politeness depends on the social appreciation of competent members of society; not-so-competent members or nonnative speakers may face the permanent risk of violating politeness norms. Politeness as a linguistic phenomenon has been studied by various scholars over the past three decades, including linguists, language philosophers, and sociologists. Many theories have appeared during that time, one of which will be the focus of this paper: Brown and Levinson's theory. The work of these writers on linguistic politeness was first published in 1978, although Penelope Brown wrote an article entitled "Women and Politeness" in 1976 in which she expressed a new view about language and society. Brown and Levinson's theory, also called the "face-saving" theory of politeness, was revised in 1987. This theory has generated some controversy but is considered a fundamental politeness theory in the linguistic field.

The first and main section of this essay describes the literature on Brown and Levinson's theory, addressing the content of the theory and the criticisms that the theory has received from other scholars. A section concerning methodology follows, which provides data related to the theory and its analysis. The third section of this paper contains results and findings. Discussion is the focus of the next section. The paper's final section presents conclusions about the theory and the strategies that are used in interview requests.

Literature Review

Brown & Levinson's (1987) book has two primary parts. The first part contains an analysis of the nature of politeness and its functions in communication. The second part addresses politeness strategies with copious examples from three languages: English, Tzeltal, and Tamil. Brown & Levinson (1987) created a model person (MP) with the capability to move from communicative goals to the optimal means of achieving these goals. The function of the MP is to measure the danger of threatening other interlocutors' face and to select suitable strategies in order to reduce face threats while accomplishing goal-directed activity. Thus, this model of Brown and Levinson's theory is a method for the development of a theory of how individuals can produce linguistic politeness. It focuses on the speaker, though the hearer is mentioned so that the person model can determine the most suitable politeness strategy to employ in specific circumstances (Watts, 2003).

In Brown & Levinson's (1987) model, the concept of face is derived from the work of Erving Goffman (1978), in which it refers to "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (p. 66). Brown and Levinson proposed that every person has two kinds of face. The first type, *positive face*, is defined as the person's desire to be approved and appreciated in social interaction. *Negative face*, on the other hand, is described as the desire to be free from imposition and action. Brown and Levinson claimed that positive and negative faces are universal, existing in all cultures.

Face-threatening acts (FTAs) damage the face of the speaker or addressee by opposing the desires of individuals. Brown and Levinson defined FTAs according to two parameters: (a) which type of face is being threatened (positive or negative) and (b) whose face is being threatened (the speaker or the hearer). Hence, Brown and Levinson suggested a set of five

possible politeness strategies that a speaker may use. The optimal strategy, Strategy 5, is "Don't do the face threatening act." In contrast, Strategy 1, "Do the face threatening act," is the worst option and means engaging in the act baldly without redressive action. If the participant goes on record in FTA, two additional strategies might occur to soften the previous strategy by providing redressive actions: Strategies 2 and 3. Strategy 2, positive politeness, enhances the hearer's positive face, whereas Strategy 3 reduces the encroachment of the hearer's freedom of action or freedom from imposition. The last strategy is off-record politeness, which places the hearer in a position to infer the intended meaning.

Furthermore, Brown & Levinson(1987) postulated 15 substrategies of politeness for the addressee's positive face and 10 substrategies for the addressee's negative face. The 15 substrategies for the addressee's positive face are the following: (a) notice and attend to hearer (needs, wants, and interests); (b) exaggerate (sympathy or approval with hearer); (c) intensify interest to the addressee in the speaker's contribution; (d) use in-group identity markers in speech; (e) seek agreement in safe topics; (f) avoid disagreement; (g) presuppose and assert common ground; (h) joke to put the addressee at ease; (i) presuppose or assert knowledge of and concern for addressee's wants; (j) promise and offer; (l) be optimistic that the addressee wants what the speaker wants; (m) include both the speaker and the hearer in the activity; (n) give or ask for reasons; (o) assert reciprocal exchange; and (p) give gifts to the hearer. The 10 substrategies for the hearer's negative face are the following: (a) be conventionally indirect; (b) do not assume willingness to comply (question); (c) be pessimistic about ability or willingness to comply (use the subjunctive); (d) minimize imposition; (e) give deference; (f) apologize; (g) impersonalize the speaker and the addressee; (h) state the FTA as an instance of a general rule; (i) nominalise to distance the actor and add formality; and (j) go on record as incurring a debtor as not indebteding hearer. The aim of these substrategies is to minimize face threats.(92)

While Brown & Levinson (1987) posited that the definition of face is applicable worldwide, they observed, "in any particular society we would expect face to be the subject of much cultural elaboration" (p. 77). Their model needs to be determined by three sociocultural factors of the FTA: (D) social distance between the speaker and the hearer, (P) power that the hearer has over the speaker, and absolute (R) ranking of imposition in a particular culture. These scholars propose the following equation to assess the weightiness and seriousness of the FTA, which determine the most suitable strategy to use:

$$W_x = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + R_x$$

x refers to the FT

This means that the weightiness of the FTA is a combination of the social distance between the speaker and the addressee, the power that the hearer wields over the speaker, and the degree to which the FTA represents an imposition.

Chen (2001) forwarded a model of self-politeness that is regarded as filling a gap left by Brown and Levinson's theory. The current theory of politeness is a combination of other-politeness and self-politeness. Chen asserted that Brown and Levinson's theory is fundamental and remains the best theory in the investigation of politeness.

Criticisms of Brown & Levinson's (1987) theory have been published in the literature. There are two principal points of criticism. First, some linguists have challenged the universality of the politeness principles. Wierzbicka (1985) was among the first scholars to state this criticism. Many linguists followed Wierzbicka in discussing this issue, including Kasper (1990); Wierzbicka (1991); Watts, Ide, & Ehlich (1992); Janney & Arndt (1993); Chen (1993), Kerbrat-Orecchioni (1994); and Liao (1994). In general, data from non-English-speaking cultures indicate that many speech acts are perceived differently in the area of politeness in these cultures. For instance, in China, imperatives used to make offers (Chen, 1996) and to invite the addressee to dinner (Mao, 1992) are considered "polite." On the same hand, the explicit performative in Polish is a common way to give advice, while a bare imperative is considered one of the softer ways of issuing directives (Wierzbicka, 1985). In Brown and Levinson's theory, imperatives are the most imposing way of engaging in an FTA. However, scholars in this area are fully aware that this speech act could be polite even in English-speaking culture. In their discussion of the bald-on-record strategy, they provide a number of factors in a speaker's choice of imperatives, including interest to hearer, such as offers, invitations, and sympathetic advice. Moreover, every speech act is presented as having different degrees of politeness in different cultures, as in Brown and Levinson's equation of assessing a strategy, which involves "R," the force of imposition of an FTA perceived in a certain culture. This means, in other words, that Brown and Levinson would say that if the Chinese and Polish view acts such as making offers and giving advice as less imposing than English speakers do, then they would assign a lower value to "W," which results in a lower numbered strategy like bald on record.

The second criticism of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory concerns the differentiation between positive politeness and negative politeness, which some authors perceive as doubtful (Meier, 1995). The problem is that Brown and Levinson classify many FTAs as threatening both positive and negative face. For Brown & Levinson (1987), this treatment of FTAs as threatening both kinds of face is not necessarily an issue; it reveals the complicated nature of social interaction and reflects the multifacetedness of utterances. When one act could threaten more than one type of face, a specific strategy could be oriented to different face wants (Chen, 2001).

According to Chen (2001), a number of alternative theories of politeness have been established, but these theories have not replaced Brown & Levinson's theory. The first approach is the "norm approach." Hill, Ide, Ikuta, Kawasaki, & Ogino (1986) published the best work that represents this approach in their model of discernment. *Discernment* refers to a situation in which "the speaker can be considered to submit passively to the requirements of the system. That is, once certain factors of addressee and situation are noted, the selection of an appropriate linguistic form and/or appropriate behavior is essentially automatic" (Hill et al., p. 348). Fraser's model of the "conversational contract" belongs to the same approach (Fraser, 1990). Fraser admitted that his model differs from the "social norm view." Conversational participants follow a conversational contract that is determined by social values. In Brown & Levinson's (1987), the norm approach is considered and is then abandoned.

One such alternative might in fact be phrased in terms of norms or rules ... Even intraculturally there are problems, for the kinds of norms envisaged by such workers are extremely specific, in some cases being strict applications of (possibly recursive) rules specifying ritual formulae ... But this will not produce the flexible and indefinitely

productive strategic usage we here describe this possibility has no attraction in a cross-cultural perspective. For norms, being specific to particular social populations, have a severely limited explanatory role in comparative (cross-cultural) research. Moreover, as has been persuasively argued by Lewis (1969), conventions—therefore norms—may have rational origins. This suggests that the notion “norm” may not have the utility as a sociological primitive that it has usually been accorded. (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 85–86)

The second alternative approach to the current "face-saving" theory is the cognitive approach advocated by Escandell–Vidal. Escandell-Vidal (1996) postulated that the addressee's processing of a polite utterance does not differ from the processing of any other type of utterance. Therefore, the hearer requires only a number of cultural assumptions to explain and interpret the intention of the speaker.

Escandell–Vidal (1996) is like previous scholars who criticized Brown and Levinson, in that she contended that their theory fails in explaining cross-cultural differences. She could not solve this problem, however; the only way that she follows is by avoiding this point. The main reason that makes politeness a viable issue in the study of language use is that it provides one explanation for the speaker's linguistic behavior. Politeness is a factor that determines what a speaker says and how he or she can say it. This explains why all theories of politeness have focused on the speaker, whereas Escandell–Vidal shifts the focus from the speaker to the hearer, which does not create a genuine solution to the problem she criticizes.

On other hand, many studies and researches agree with Brown & Levinson's theory as a universal theory. Gilks (2009) discusses in his essay some remarkable arguments against Brown & Levinson model. However, the essay is concluded by the fact that the model in Brown & Levinson's theory still the most influential and useful in the politeness field. Moreover, Agis (2012) conducted a study about the impact of gender on the use of politeness strategies in Turkish series. The study reveals that females used more positive politeness strategies than males in particular in the interaction with friends and children. In contrast, Turkish males used more positive politeness strategies than female in the interaction with older relatives.

Many empirical works on particular types of speech acts in a wide range of cultural and linguistic situations have involved the use of Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness. The most common speech activities that have been discussed in these works are apologies, requests, thanks, and compliments. The speech act that will be investigated in this paper is the request. *Requests* are directive acts that initiate the negotiation of face during a conversational interaction. In Brown and Levinson's theory, requests are face-threatening acts that threaten the addressee's negative face. Thus, a person who performs a request needs to reduce the level of imposition created by an act being requested in order to save the hearer's face and at the same time gain his or her compliance with the request. In addition, the request is realized by means of four linguistic strategies as discussed previously.

Alongside the previous studies using Brown & Levinson's theory the aim of the present study is to determine whether Brown & Levinson's politeness theory can be adapted and applied in an interview focusing on the request speech act as a measuring tool regarding Brown and

Levinson's theory and to identify the politeness strategies that are used by native and nonnative speakers in this interview.

Methodology

There were two participants in this study: the first one is an Australian female and native speaker of English. She spent all of her life in Australia. The native speaker is 32 years old and a lawyer. She studied the law in Monash University beside some short courses related to her major. There is no relationship between her and the interviewer; they met each other coincidentally at Reservoir Pleasure Centre in Melbourne. The other participant is an Indonesian female and nonnative speaker of English. She is 25 years old and came to Australia to study Master in Education. The nonnative speaker is a classmate of the interviewer at La Trobe University whom the interviewer has known for a year.

The two participants, after signing a consent form, were asked to engage with the interviewer in conversation for about 10 minutes. The interview was recorded. After finishing the interview, participants were asked to summarize what they had said in the interview in written form. In the interview, the participants talked about topics of interest to them. The first participant talked about travelling, and the second participant talked about her educational experience in her hometown. The focus of this paper is request sentences in the interview.

The recorded interview was the source of data in this study; participants' written summaries did not contain any sentences related to requests. During data collection, the emphasis was on the three sociocultural factors in Brown & Levinson's theory that affect politeness behavior and the strategy that speakers might use. Therefore, the participants in this research are the most important element in analyzing the data because the speaker or interviewer determines the type and structure of request regarding the relationship with participants.

Request sentences were used as data in this study in order to determine whether sociocultural factors affect the way in which individuals formulate requests. In addition, there was an effort to determine the appropriate strategy to reduce face-threatening acts that the speaker used in relation to Brown & Levinson's theory. This is a suitable method for the analysis of speech acts such as requests.

Results

This section presents examples of request sentences from the interviews with the native speaker and nonnative speaker. The first part of the findings concerns the interview with the native speaker. This interview yielded two examples of requests, which were the following:

- 1.S: You told me today that you want to talk about traveling as an interesting topic for you.
NS: Yes.
S: Can you start talking, please?
2.S: Yeah, I would like to ask you about it, how is the shopping in Dubai?

According to Brown & Levinson's definition of FTA, the person who is threatened here is the native speaker, who is the hearer, and her type of face is positive face because she was happy to

be interviewed. She indicated her happiness to be interviewed to her friend in the place where the interview was conducted; she considered the interview an expression of appreciation. The interviewer, who was the speaker in the passages above, noticed this feeling from the hearer, so in Example 1, she asked the interviewee about an interesting topic. This is one of the 15 substrategies that Brown and Levinson offered to preserve the hearer's positive face. In the same way, in Example 2, she asked also about one of the hearer's hobbies, which is shopping. Moreover, the sociocultural value is high, as the speaker and hearer did not have any relationship before this interview and the level of imposition of a request is high in English. In other words, the weight and seriousness of a request in this situation is high. Thus, the speaker in Examples 1 and 2 tried to use words such as *can*, *please*, and *would* within more formal sentences to express politeness.

The following examples were taken from the interview with the nonnative speaker:

3. S: You said you will talk today about your learning experience in Indonesia, which is your hometown. Okay, can you start now?
4. S: So, tell me about the common language that you speak at home.

The face that is threatened in this case is that of the nonnative speaker, who plays the hearer role. The hearer demonstrated her desire to be accepted in this interaction; thus, her face would be classified as positive. The speaker chose to seek a topic of interest for the hearer, which is the topic of learning experience. This conforms to what politeness theory postulates about the substrategies for positive face. There is a relationship between the speaker and the hearer as classmates who meet each other in other places such as the library and the prayer room at La Trobe University. There is no power of one over the other, and the rank of imposing this request is low. The combination of these three factors results in a low weight and seriousness of the request. In this situation, the speaker is encouraged to present the request sentences in a more direct way using the words *can*, *now*, and *tell me*.

Discussion

Speech acts such as requests, apologizes, and thanks are frequently used in studies of politeness and are important in Brown and Levinson's theory. Request sentences are the best common variables used to explain the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson. These sentences demonstrate the type of face that has been threatened, the strategy that the speaker would use, the impact of sociocultural factors, and the rank of imposition. There are certain forms of sentences that include words such as *can*, *could*, and *please* and imperative verbs that show different levels of politeness as mentioned in this paper. When there is a high degree of social distance, as in Examples 1 and 2, the speaker tends to use a more polite and off-record strategy. In contrast, a speaker will tend to use the bald and on-record strategy while there is low social distance between the speaker and hearer. The data set constituted by the interview and the summary sheet written after the interview did not provide many examples for discussion in this essay. The written summary did not show any examples at all, but it described what the interviewees talked about. In the interview, the interviewer tried not to interrupt the interviewees with many requests, imposing only a few requests on the participants. The advantage of the request sentences in the interview is the ability to apply Brown and Levinson's theory easily. Choosing request variables makes it possible to find relevant examples because it is the most common speech act used in interviews. Unfortunately, the interview lasted only 10

minutes, which resulted in the problem of having too few examples of requests. There were not any differences between the native speaker and nonnative speaker; this might be because they both speak English and adapt English culture in their speech. Quantitative methods such as the use of a questionnaire are among the best for this type of research, as they allow researchers to ask many participants from different cultures about the form of request that they might use in certain situations. More data should be collected from participants, as there is a need for more demonstration of the differences between cultures. The interview should be longer (not less than 20 minutes), and the interviewer should control the interview, determine the topic, and prepare before conducting it.

Conclusion

Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness is the essential theory in the field of politeness. It derives its *face* definition from the work of Goffman, dividing face into positive and negative. These scholars postulate five strategies of politeness for the speaker to use and classify 15 substrategies to be addressed to the hearer's positive face and 10 substrategies to be addressed to the hearer's negative face. Although Brown and Levinson stated that the notion of face is universal, face also depends on three sociocultural factors that might differ from one culture to another: (D) social distance, (P) power of the interlocutors over each other, and (R) ranking of imposition in the culture where the interlocutors are from. The combination of these three factors determines the seriousness and the weight of a face-threatening act. Many scholars have criticized this politeness theory, but it remains flexible and applicable to different cultures with different politeness strategies.

About the Author:

Sumayyah Qaed Alsulami holds Bachelor degree in English from King Abdul Aziz University in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia and Master degree in TESOL from La trobe University in Melbourne .

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Appendix

1-Native speaker

S: ok, hello Nabilah.

NS: hi.

S: how are you?

Ns: very good.

S: ok, you told me today that you want to talk about travelling as an interesting topic for you.

Ns: yes.

S: can you start talking, please?

Ns: sure. I am.. I have travelled a little bit, I born in Melbourne and I lived in Melbourne all my life and I've done a little bit of travelling but I found travelling to be an interesting topic because there are many places that I haven't been to and I think that many places in country I'd love to see.

S: ok, can you tell me about the places that you travelled to.

Ns: sure, I have travelled to Morocco in 2010. I took a trip with my parents and my parents are both from Morocco and they lived in Australia for the last thirty years so I was born in Australia, I am ... I haven't done a lot of travelling because of my study etc. but the places that I've been back to your question,mmm. In Morocco, so different areas of Morocco, Spain. I went to Spain a couple of occasions, I've been all around Australia that was quite a good experience.

S: yeah.

Ns: I've been to Dubai, but there are many other countries I'd like to experience.

S: like what?

Ns: particularly because of the culture differences.. I'd like to experience... I think each country has different culture experience and I think it will be amazing to experience these different places.so..

S: can I ask you a question?

Ns: sure.

S: what did you find different in Morocco than Melbourne?

Ns: oh, Melbourne is a western country as you know, the different between Melbourne or Australia and Morocco is that.. Morocco is a third world country the majority in Morocco either sort of .. either rich or poor there is no...

S: do you mean it's a developing country?

Ns: it's yeah, it's a developing country that's right but the vast difference is there is no middle ground, there is no middle pound if you know what I mean like.. there is either very rich or very poor. What is in Melbourne because of the government support the people

S: ahh

Ns: they have things like searching the government gives.. pays money if you don't have a job..that assist the people.

S: you mean that in Morocco there is a gap in the classes.

Ns: correct! And the government doesn't support you, the government doesn't give you any money.

S: um

Ns: so, if you are poor and you beg in the street. Where is in Australia, you not begging in the street because you got a government to help you out, so that is the vast difference in the type of people..I think..

S: uhmmm, what about your experience in Thailand? Can you talk about it?

Ns: yes, sure, I went to Thailand probably four may be four, five years ago.. now . I've been a couple of weeks and I went with my best friend Emily, and we took a plane to .. we went to "Pokka" from Bangkok and when we first arrive, it was the first time I've been to third world country and it was just a standing, because I've never been exposed to it, previously for me it was a really sort of new impact experience and I recall in the very first days " I just want to leave" I mean we got there .. we start walking around the main streets of the city. The people just walk straight up to you and just trying sell things to you, you know constantly showing things in your face trying to get you buy something from them.

S: you didn't plan for this travel?

Ns: oh, no, we did, so we did plan for this travel but because I had only heard nice things about it and it's very cheap country to go to, so when you're a student

S: yeah

Ns: it's just sort of experience really.

S: did you search about the best places you have to go to?

Ns: we have done a little bit of research yeah and we've chosen to go to Pokka and there is a beautiful islands around Pokka, so what we end up doing, because we have such an experience on the first day we end up planning the couple of weeks and we end up doing things actively doing things to consume our days. So , for example, we got a boat trip down to Pokka islands and we saw the monkeys down there and we went a safari trip which is really nice we got on an elephant.

S: oh, you're so brave.

Ns: yeah, it was fantastic, it was excellent. So, we end up having very good experience considering the fact that it was a very different culture.

S: yeah, that's right, even the weather is it different?

Ns: the weather was , it was very humid I found. It was either very harsh or it was raining, so it was quite tropical, yeah tropical but it was a good experience.

S: ok, what about Dubai?

Ns: waw, Dubai, where I am going from Dubai!

S: it's like Hollywood in the Middle East.

NS: Dubai, I was there in transition for three days and this was in the way back from Morocco, so we got a flight an Emirati's flight from Casablanca/ Morocco to Dubai and we stayed in Dubai. This is my sister and I , we stayed in Dubai for three days before back down to Melbourne.

NS: we decided to do a trip it called the big bus trip, and we took that from our hotel at 9:00 am in the morning and it goes pass two rout so there is a red route and a blue route and basically it likes you all around Dubai and shows you. You know, all the sort of touristy sites, it was amazing, I think Dubai is a beautiful city but I could never live there, and I say that because it was extremely hot, so it was forty-four degrees or something like that. You literally you can't go outside you live inside when you're in Dubai.

The usuall degree you find in the middle east, it's common it was absolutely crazy, so we found our selres sort of going into buildings, we went to saw the museums.

We saw the pountry on the oceans, we saw the huge fish aquarium tank in the shopping centre. The shopping centres there're so many shopping centre in Dubai.

S: yeah, I would like to ask you it..... How is the shopping in Dubai?

The shopping is amazing but the thing my feet got sore after walk because you just walk and walk around all these different shopping centre, and there is something always new because there is so much to see there but I haven't said that I am a rery outdoor person, I love sport and I do a try act today as you can see.

S: yeah. Sound great!

NS: I like to be outside and I like to have a good weather and you know joyable weather.

That's so healthy for you

Exactly, it's heal their for you, so, look I really like Dubai but I found it to be a bit fake in the sence that it is a desert, it's a city made of in a desert which makes it a sort of for me it just feels unreal I feel it's sereal.

I think it's yeah the major trouble and the major problem in Dubai is the weather, everything is good in this city but the weather is so actually trouble.

That's right, exactly, yeah I Agree

The people are very nice I have no problem with the people, the women dressed in Nekab so it's

S: very good for them, for the weather.

NS: yeah, I noticed that the women dressed in Black and the men dressed in white.

S: yeah that the usual dress you can find it in the middle east, especially in the Goulf, you know the Goulf.

NS: yes

S: located in the Goulf and the majority of women. Wear the black and the men like to wear the white, it's actually the culture.

NS: yes, I found that to be an experience. Seeing the different types of people in Dubai, of course they are very different to Thailand, again very different to Spain and morocco they all are very enjoyable place but can I keep going.

I could talk for ages.....

S: thank you, thank you. For this talk Nabila, I'm so thank for you.

NS: no problem, thank you very much.

2-Non- Native speaker

S:Ok. Good morning Ade.

NNS: Good morning

S: How are you?

NNS: Fine. Thanks

S: Glad to see you today

NNS: Me too

S: I , you said, you will talk today about your learning experience in Indonesia which is your hometown, Ok. Can you start now.

NNS: Ok. I started my learning experience when I was six years old. So, at that time, I didn't take kindergarten program because in 1987 kindergarten program was not popular in my country. I mean there were rich people who enroll their children in the kindergarten program, so I didn't go to kindergarten program

S: As it is my country, there was no kindergarten program is like compulsory for children in the few.....

NNS: But now in my country kindergarten program is like compulsory for children because when they had to go to primary school they have to show kindergarten certificate

S: Oh, great

NNS: Yeah, it is about five times, five years, I mean since five years ago kindergarten.... Every child goes to kindergarten now, I mean in Indonesia but not in my era in 1987, so I did my primary school in Karawang, West Java Karawa is

S: Is that near to your town

NNS: No, let's talk about me I was born in Ramayo. In Ramayo is the district in West Java

S: Aha, in the west

NNS: But even I was five years old. My parents moved to Karawang a different district in West Java but they are still in the same province, West Java but different district it's about three hours by bus, so I moved to Karawang you know in Ramayo I spoke Java, Javanese language in Karawang I spoke Sundanese language

S: You mean you have a different language in Indonesia

NNS: There are very different local languages, different words, different languages because Indonesia has five-hundred local languages not dialects but languages, so I have to learn about Sundanese but as a child. It was easy for me to learn language

S: What about the official language in your country?

NNS: Indonesia is the national language but we have five-hundred local languages not dialects

S: But what about the school, did you study in the same official language?

NNS: Yes, we study in Bahasa Indonesia but I mean every subject is taught in Bahasa, national language which is Bahasa Indonesia but we have to study local language. For example, if I'm in Javanese district region, I have to study Javanese, so when I was in Sundanese region, I have to study Sundanese. But the teaching was delivered in national language so everybody should speak national language at school. I mean in the classrooms, not outside

S: Ok. Let's go back to study?

NNS: I only, only did primary school in Karawang for two years, then I moved again in Lndramayu

S: So you change your language also.

NNS: Yeah, because six years primary school is compulsory so I spent two years, I did two years for primary school in Karawang then I continued my four years primary school in Indonesia.

S: Ok. After that.

NNS: After that, after I finished my primary school, I went to secondary school.

S: Yeah

NNS: Junior high school and I have to, I went to another district still in West Java, it's about one hour by bus so, but I had to live there because I went to Islamic boarding school, so I sleep there and sleep. It's like boarding school, you know boarding school! So, I spend...

S: How many years?

NNS: Three years, I spent three years in Girebon, different district

S: Do you like your school?

NNS: Yes, I really like boarding school because I learned there about independency, I have to manage my own money, so my parents send me money every month

S: And you spend much time with your friends?

NNS: Yes, much time and because at the time it's funny. It was funny because in Islamic boarding school I have to study a lot with 9:00 pm

S: Oh!

- NNS: Yes, until 9:00 pm
S: In the school
NNS: So, I started studying at 7:00 am that formal school, I went to formal school means I wear uniform until 1:00 o'clock and then I went back to my boarding school and I started again another...
S: Classes!
NNS: Classes , yeah at 2:00 to 3:00 p.m and then I had another classes at 4:00 to 5:00 p.m and then I had another classes at 7:00 to 9:00 p.m
S: Did you study the same subjects?
NNS: No, different! At formal school in morning I studied math's, English, biology, physics, Bahasa Indonesia, social sciences and in the Islamic boarding school I studied Naho, Sarf, Fikh, Tawhid
S: Ah, Islamic subjects
NNS: Islamic subjects all Islamic subjects. Naho, Sarf, Fikh
S: Fikh , yeah
NNS: You know Tawhid, Tajwid, you know Tajwd?
S: Yeah , about Quran
NNS: Yeah, so many things Arabic, I studied Arabic and I had to speak Arabic in that I Islamic boarding school
S: Is it compulsory?
NNS: Yes, there was a time when I didn't speak arabic and I get, I got fine , I got hit
S: Oh really?
NNS: Yeah....., I got hit from my teacher, you have to pay also if you didn't speak Arabic because this is not my language, it is easy for me to sleep and speak Javanease or Indonesia so I had many friends, a lot of friends from different countries, from different districts with different languages
S: Can you just limit to me, hoe many languages do you know?
NNS: Bahasa Indonesia, Javanease language
S: Ahh
NNS: This my father, I mean my father is Javanease
S: Your father's mother tongue
NNS: Yeah, my father's mother tongue, the third one is Sundanease language, that's my mother's mother tongue because my mother is Sundanease there are different ethic group so they have different language and then English and Arabic.
S: That's mean five languages
NNS: And my husband is Asakis, he has different language and until now I don't understand and I can't speak my husband mother's tongue. That's very difficult also
S: Yeah, so, tell me about common language that you speak at home.
NNS: Bahasa Indonesia , national language, with my daughter, with my husband,, because I have my own language, my husband has his own language we can't communicate , so we use both national language
S: So what happened after that? After you finish your school
NNS: After I finished my junior high school, I went to anther district located in Sunndanease region. This also an Islamic boarding school but that school I only studied about Islam
S: uhm
NNS: Still I had very busy activities from 7 to 9.
S: how long have you been there?
NNS: Three years
S: Three years and by this finish your high school?
NNS: Yes, so at that time, I didn't live with my parents, I only went back home maybe every six months
S: every six months! For how long?
NNS: For two weeks
S: Only!

NNS: Yeah three weeks or one month in Ramadan.

S: Ok. So

NNS: Ramadan and Eid Al-fiter, Eid Al-fiter

S: That's really interesting topic with you. Thank you for this Ade.

Variation in Address Forms for Arab Married and Unmarried Women in the Workplace: A Sociolinguistic Study

Mays Qasem Ajlouni

Department of English language and literature
Faculty of Arts, Yarmouk University,
Irbid – Jordan.

Lutfi Abulhaija

Department of English language and literature
Faculty of Arts, Yarmouk University,
Irbid – Jordan.

Abstract:

This study aims at investigating address forms that are usually used in the workplace to address Arab married and unmarried women, from a sociolinguistic point of view. Despite the universality of the notion of using address forms, the elements that make them up and the rules that govern their use are cultural and social bound. It examines the use of address forms in relation to the impact of social variables such as gender, age and status on the form being used. To this end, a discourse completion task (DCT) was used to collect data. Analysis of 2000 occurrences of using address terms was carried out. Occurrences were collected from 100 Jordanian people working for JHAS organization. The collected data were analyzed quantitatively. Data were categorized into ten major categories. Results of the study highlight the most persistent terms of address. Results show that personal 'first name' form was the most frequently used address form, while 'kinship terms' were the least used form of address.

Key words: address form, first name, (un)married woman, social factor, sociolinguistics, workplace

Introduction

People in the Jordanian society tend to use learned or borrowed English words while communicating, including address terms such as Madam, Boss, Doctor, and so forth. That is why it is not unusual to hear Jordanian people in the workplace addressing each other by terms such as 'Madam' for addressing married females, 'Miss' for addressing unmarried females, or 'Ms' when not knowing the marital status of a female or having no intention to specify it.

Oyetade (1995:515) defines a term of address as "a word or [an] expression used in interactive, dyadic and face to face situations to designate the person being talked to". Parkinson (1985:1) also defines terms of address as words that refer to the addressee in a speech event, and can convey social information related to the interlocutors, place and time of the speech event. Forms of address make up an aspect of the role that speech may play in interpersonal relationships (Hymes, 1964).

In other words, forms of address are words or expressions assigned to the addressee, and deemed as conveyors of information about who the speaker is, when and where these words are used, and to whom these words are being used. Forms of address constitute a well established semantic field that involves distinctive lexical categories such as kin terms, titles, personal names, nicknames, pronouns, etc.

The lexical meaning of address terms may differ from "the addressee characteristics" (Braun, 1988:7). That is, if someone uses a particular form of address, this is likely to mean that the speaker would like "to assign [the addressee] a particular role" (Goyvaerts, 1972:4), as being a superior, a subordinate, a stranger, a relative, and so forth.

The notion behind assigning the addressee a certain role might be extended to justify the use of a speaker for many address terms to address a female in a speech event occurring for example in a workplace. A speaker may use the female personal name (for example, Laila), title (for example, Miss), occupational term (Doctor), kinship term (Mama) and polite/respectful term (Madam, *sittorsayyidah* – Arabic terms equivalent to 'Ms or Madam'). Interestingly, such address forms usually follow socially understood and appreciated rules.

This study investigates the address forms that are usually used in the workplace to address Arab married and unmarried women. It is meant to explore the most persistent terms of address, their socially related variations as well as their linguistic features in the Jordanian speech community, as an example, in light of politeness theory.

Address forms are essential for successful communication and are considered a significant sign of how fine a relationship is. However, being socially related and sometimes unpredictable in terms of their use by the speaker or their perception by the addressee, applying the appropriate terms of address is not an easy task. It requires taking into account several factors such as sex, age, formality of the setting, interlocutors' roles and hierarchical status in a workplace, degree of intimacy, interlocutors' emotional state, and even the presence of out-group persons.

Unlike other areas of sociolinguistic research, address forms in Arab societies are not well studied despite their role in initiating effective communication. Today, the complexity of communication in hierarchical organizations seems to exist due to the correlation between the social variables that govern communication, including terms of address usage. Therefore, to gain

an effective communication requires an accurate use of terms for addressing others in different situations in the workplace, which brings the present study to the fore.

In today's workplace dyadic interactions, if the boss is younger than his employee or a friendship between them has developed over the time, for example, this will affect the power, intimacy and solidarity level, and thus affect the used address forms. Such variables are expected to impact the successful employment of terms of address and their structure as well; and various address forms, which correspond to variations across relative societies and speech events, would appear. Accordingly, sociolinguistic variables that govern the use of address terms are language, culture, society and context specific, which make investigating address terms in the workplace of paramount importance.

Departing from research in this sociolinguistic as well as semantic field, the researcher of this study aims to add to the knowledge base by investigating the address forms used by Arabs in the workplace to address the married and unmarried women. It is a description of the sociolinguistic structure of Arabic forms of address as used in the Jordanian society. In an attempt to achieve the study's purpose, the researcher has sought answers for the following three focus questions:

1. In what titles do the Jordanian employees address their companions of Jordanian female employees at work?
2. Do they use first name, titles, polite forms or any combination of these?
3. What are the social factors that affect the speaker to use one term over the other?

Personal address forms constitute "a sociolinguistic subject par excellence" (Philipsen & Huspek, 1985:94). Therefore, although the notion of using address forms is universal, the elements that make up the personal address terms and the rules that govern their employment are cultural and social bound, which makes it worth investigation.

Wood & Kroger (1991:145) mention that studying address forms is a popular sociolinguistics topic because address forms can set the tone for the interpersonal exchanges, and set the relative power and distance between the speaker and the addressee. These reasons behind the study of address forms would establish the foreground of the present study as it is expected to mirror the social relations in Jordanian speech community.

This study is hoped to classify instances of terms of address into major patterns. It shed light on the notion that terms of address do encode much information about the speaker, addressee and the kind of relationship between them. In addition, this study indicates to what extent Jordanian male and female employees are aware of differences in social status.

This study highlights the different concepts of address theory such as power and solidarity, politeness principle, etc. It also shows how these concepts are applied to the Arab culture, in the Jordanian society that is characteristic of Arab and Islamic culture. The researcher clarifies how consistent the Jordanian female-address system in the workplace is with the universal tendencies of address system and with the findings of other researchers in different languages.

This study is believed to be the first in Jordan to address the forms used for addressing females, especially in the workplace. This study, adds to the knowledge base by covering this gap. The researcher hopes to open the door for other Arab researchers to address issues related to

address forms, for example, the effect of using address forms on management and discipline, flow of communication, turn taking, students' performance, and many other applied areas.

The study would construct an analytical framework of address forms in the Jordanian society, and thus, extending the results into the Jordanian organizations. This study is likely to provide evidence for the argument that address forms are sensitive to a variety of factors among Jordanians. The results of this study are hoped to contribute to public and private organizations by providing some vital information on developing a guideline for assessing the address forms that are necessary to be used in work environment.

The study may introduce some pedagogic implications, especially to non-native Arabic learners, by offering some insights for address forms which could be introduced to teaching materials. Such materials are likely to provide learners of Arabic with a framework for good mastery of appropriate address forms to be used in intercultural communication.

Method and Procedures

The participants of this study constituted of a total of 100 randomly chosen Jordanian social workers, data entry-staff, and clinical employees from the northern as well as the central parts of Jordan, working for the Jordan Health Aid Society (JHAS) in different cities, namely: Irbid, Mafrag (northern cities), Amman & Zarqa (central cities).

The choice of those participants is made because they work in different offices, field positions and locations in Jordan, but for the same agency for which the researcher herself works. Thus, they are believed to be more representative and cooperative in providing clear and explicit expression of the forms of address they usually use in workplace, thus help in rendering more reliable elicited data and findings.

The decision to have participants from various groups of age, gender, residential area, educational level and ranks is consciously made to weigh the employed forms of addressing married/unmarried females against such variables. Many researchers such as Brown & Levinson (1987), Broom et al. (1968) and Ray (1971) consider such factors as occupation, rank, education, etc. as determining factors of social interaction and social class. The randomly selected participants are found to belong to three age groups.

Most of the participants (70%) are between 22 and 29 years of age, while participants who are 40 years old and older constitute 6% of the sample. Participants are equally divided into 50% of male workers and 50% of female workers. 67 % of participants come from rural areas and 33% come from urban residential areas. Most participants hold bachelor degrees 81% and 17 % are without a university degree, whereas only 2% of degree holders have an MA or above degree.

Participants were invited to participate in the study with the mediation of friends, colleagues, and friends of colleagues. The use of such network or relations was believed to include more cooperative participants. Following this invitation, 100 employees volunteered. The participants were introduced to a 20-situation Discourse Completion Task (DCT), comprising real-life situations that were designed to evoke the use of address forms.

Prior to the distribution of the DCT forms, the researcher instructed her assistants to approach the participants in a warm manner that allows them to gain their ultimate assistance. Assistants were also asked to explain the goals of the research to the participants and to reassure them that the elicited data will be used for the research purpose and will not be disclosed.

The DCT was chosen as a means of collecting data for this study as it is believed that such technique can capture the required information to trace the study questions. Moreover the DCT would be a reliable means to know the linguistic and social constraints of using address forms. In order to ensure the reliability of the research instrument, it was given to ten participants at a workplace prior to the official distribution of the DCT as a pilot study, they assured the familiarity and reoccurrence of such situations in their real life. The ten participants finished responding to the DCT without facing any difficulties.

Part one of the DCT aimed at gathering personal information about the participants to help in the categorization task. It consisted of personal information, including the age, sex, residential area, and the educational level of the participants. Part two consists of a description of 20 situations prompting the use of some address terms. The social distance variable and the rank level were contained in each situation. Situations were designed to reflect on behavior of addressing married and unmarried females.

Participants were asked to respond to the situations and to provide the response to each real life related situation as if they were in a real situation, where they might be equal, higher or lower in rank, older or younger than the addressee.

The network of friends, aided in data gathering the DCT, were directed to write down all expressions and terms produced by the respondents and any context-related issues that may help in the analysis of the gathered data. Following this method, quite a large number of expressions used by Jordanians in actual social interactions in their workplaces were gathered.

The classification is based on the following broad labeling:

Table 1. Address forms labeling

Ser.	Address Forms
1	Academic title, e.g. Doctor
2	Occupational term, e.g. Boss
3	Endearment term, e.g. dear
4	Title: Madam, Mrs, Ms
5	Title: Miss (and its equivalents)
6	Personal first name
7	Kinship term, e.g. uncle
8	Personal last name
9	Polite words, e.g. please
10	Father and mother of...
11	Combinations, e.g. first name+last name

The used address forms were then counted and their percentages were taken. The strategies resorted to by the participants were compared in order to shed light on any available similarities or differences regarding the various variables: age, gender, social distance, etc.

The provided responses by the participants were checked if related to any of the term categories mentioned in Table 1, and any emerging category was intended to be added as a new category. All identified address forms were tabulated, described, and compared.

Data were categorized and statistically analyzed, following the traditional address forms taxonomies used by Brown & Gilman (1960), Yassin (1975), McConnell-Ginet (1978), Zhou (1998), Okamura (2002), Aliakbari & Toni (2008), Yang (2010), Afzali (2011), and Suryanarayan & Larina (2012) in light of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness principle.

Results and Discussion

All the responses were gathered, counted and categorized with regard to the address forms used for addressing the married females, those used for addressing the unmarried females, and the combinations of used address terms. Then, the identified address forms were compared according to the speaker's (addresser's) gender group, age group, place of residence (rural vs. urban places), and educational level.

The identified forms used for addressing married females in official situation (such as meetings) and less official situation (as in lunch break) were then compared to those used for addressing the unmarried females. In these situations, the addressee was older and higher in rank than the speaker. The identified forms for addressing married females in official situation (meeting) and less official situation (lunch break) were then compared to those used for addressing the unmarried females, but in situations where the addressee was younger, and higher in rank. The percentages of the findings were based on the 2000 gathered responses. The collected forms of addressing married and unmarried females were then compared with regard to the situations where the addressee was older and equal in rank, younger and equal in rank, older and lower in rank, and younger and lower in rank.

Based on the analysis of the gathered data, the researcher managed to identify the forms of address used for addressing married as well as unmarried females in different situations of workplace. Table 2 below presents the identified forms of address, the number of occurrences of each form of address, and how frequently each form is used by the participants.

Table 2. The identified address forms

Address forms	Total number of occurrences	%
Academic title (e.g. Professor)	86	4.3
Endearment term (e.g. Dear)	103	5.15
Polite words (e.g. please, a'zeezeti, hadratek, ezatakaremti, ezasemehti)	270	13.5

Umm... (mother+of son/daughter's name)	193	9.65
Madam, Sayyidah (literally means Madam), Mrs, Ms, Miss, <i>ʔaniseh</i> (literally means Miss)	266*	13.3
Occupational term (e.g. Boss)	251	12.55
First name	814	40.7
Kinship term (e.g. <i>ʔoxti</i> , meaning my sister; <i>xaltoh</i> , meaning aunt)	4	0.2
Last/family name	13	0.65
Total	2000	100%

* 207 for Miss and its equivalents, and 59 for Madam and its equivalents

Unlike Okamura (2002) who mentioned that combinations of two or more forms of address (such as title+last name) might be used by some people to show respect and independence to others in the organization, the researcher of the present study found that no combinations were used by any of the participants of this study except two times in *ʔoxtiMays*, and *xaltohʕelia*. Therefore, combinations will not be mentioned as a pattern in the study.

Apparently, the identified forms used to address both the married and unmarried women in the workplace include the following:

1. The use of academic title (mainly, *ʔostaðeh* for Professor, *Doctorah* for Doctor, *Muhendeseh* for Engineer, and *Sister* for nurses).
2. Using endearment term (mainly, *ʕezizeti* for my dear).
3. Using polite words, exclusively, *law semehtiandeðatakaremti* for excuse me, and *men fedlek, hedreteh* for your honour.
4. Using the form 'Umm+son/daughter's name' meaning 'Mother of+...' as in: *Umm Mohammad*, *Ummhelmi*, and *Umm Sami*.
5. Using Madam/ Sayyidah/Mrs/Sitt as in: *Madam ʕelia*, and *SittHaya*.
6. Using *ʔaniseh* for Miss, as in: *ʔanesehSuha*.
7. Using occupational terms, mainly, *Mudir* for Director, and *Zemili* for my colleague.
8. Using first name such as *Mays*, *Mohammad*, *Ali*, *Musʕab*, etc.
9. Using kinship terms, mainly, *oxti* for sister and *xaltoh* for aunt.
10. Using the last/family name such as: *Nawafleh*, *ʕejlouni*, *Tahat*, *Rjoob*, *ʕalawneh*, etc

In terms of the frequency of employment of the identified address forms, the most frequently address form used to address women in the workplace was utilizing the 'first name' (40%). This finding is in line with Okamura's (2002:76) findings which indicated that interlocutors tend to use the first name as the most common form for addressing. In this study, first name was used more than 40% of the times, followed by three other address forms, including the use of 'polite words', 'titles such as Madam and Miss', and 'occupational terms' that were used almost equally, with an average of about 13% of the total occurrences each. On

the contrary, the least used address forms were 'kinship terms' and 'last/family names', both of which occurred even less than 1% of the total occurrences.

In order to see whether differences or similarities exist in the address forms that are used for addressing the married and the unmarried women, the researcher compared the occurrences and frequency of use of each address form for both the unmarried and the married women based on the 20 situations of the DCT that comprised 10 situations that involved married women, and 10 situations that included unmarried females. Table 3 below shows the similarities as well as the differences in address forms.

Table 3. Married versus unmarried females' address forms

Address forms	Total number of occurrences	Married		Unmarried	
		No.	%	No.	%
Academic title	86	36	41.87	50	58.13
Endearment term	103	70	67.97	33	32.03
Polite words	270	100	37.04	170	62.96
Mother+of...	193	193	100	0	0
Madam, Sayyidah, Mrs, Ms	59	59	100	0	0
?nisety/ Miss	207	0	0	207	100
Occupational term	251	193	76.90	58	23.10
First name	814	337	41.40	477	58.60
Kinship term	4	4	100	0	0
Last/family name	13	8	61.54	5	38.46
Total	2000	1000		1000	

Table 3 illustrates that the same types of address forms are interchangeably used to address the unmarried as well as the married women in the workplace, except for 'Umm/mother + son/daughter's name', and 'kinship terms' which were not used at all for addressing the unmarried female employees.

Interestingly, the dominantly used kinship term was *?oxti* (meaning, my sister). The repeated use of *?oxti* in Arab societies is usually used to create a feeling of trust and ease in dealing. In addition, the avoidance to use 'mother+of...' form in addressing the unmarried is likely because using it in an Arab Jordanian workplace would be considered impolite behavior as it may badly harm the addressee's face; unmarried females in Jordan usually do not favour being addressed as such.

In line with the universal norm of the use of the terms 'Madam' and 'Miss', speakers did not use the term 'Madam' to address unmarried females; instead, they use 'Miss or ?aniseh'. It should be highlighted that the major difference in the use of the identified forms of address lies in the frequency of using each type.

For example, on the first hand, the most frequently forms used to address married women in the workplace are 'first name', occupational terms' and 'mother+of...', while the least used forms are 'kinship terms' and 'last name' forms.

On the other hand, first name', 'ʔanisety/ Miss' and 'polite words' seem to be the most repeatedly used forms for addressing the unmarried female employees, while 'last name' form of address is rarely used.

From another angle, occupational terms and endearment terms were used to address the married women far more than the unmarried. Nevertheless, polite words and 'first name' form were also used to address the unmarried female employees far more than the married one.

Brown and Levinson (1978:96) discussed the influence of social distance between the speaker and the addressee, the relative power between them, and the rank of imposition. Holmes (1993:159) also indicates to the remarkable effect of social distance in relation to age and gender on the strategies used by people.

This section presents the impact of social variables in relation to gender, age and social context on the use of address forms in the workplace.

To highlight the relationship between age and the employed address forms, see Table 4 below:

Table 4. Address forms by speaker's age group

Address forms	Total occurrences	% Group 1 (22-29)	% Group 2 (30-39)	% Group 3 (40-49)
Academic title	86	60.46%	23.26%	16.28%
Endearment term	103	67.98%	29.2%	3%
Polite words	270	50.55%	44.45%	5%
Mother+of...	193	65.28%	17.61%	17.11%
Madam, Sayyidah, Mrs	59	84.76%	15.24%	0
ʔanisety/ Miss	207	93.72%	6.28%	0
Occupational term	251	71%	20%	9%
First name	814	71%	25%	4%
Kinship term	4	75%	25%	0
Last/family name	13	77%	23%	0
Total occurrences	2000			

Obviously, Table 4 shows that, the address forms 'Madam', 'ʔanisety/ Miss' 'kinship terms' and 'last name' were not used at all by Age Group 3. Other groups used all kinds of address forms with different frequencies. When it comes to Age Group 1, apparently, they used all address forms more than any other group. They used 'ʔanisety/ Miss' nearly 94% of the occurrences of this form. More than three quarters of 'occupational terms', 'first name', kinship terms' and last names' were also used by group 1 participants. Regarding Age Group 2, the frequency of using 'polite words' was about 44% of this particular form of address, which was the highest between the remaining address forms. Age Group 2 used 'academic title',

endearment terms', 'occupational term', 'first name', 'kinship terms', and 'last name' at the average frequency of 25 % of each of these forms of address.

It should be emphasized in this place that 'academic title', 'endearment term', polite words', 'mother+of...', 'occupational term' and 'first name' forms were used by all participants, regardless of their age. However, it can be concluded that the older the speaker, the less varied forms of address are used.

Considering that the total number of occurrences made by Age Group 1, 2 and 3 were 1400, 480 and 120 respectively, the researcher found that the youngest group used 'first name' form of address as their favorite form with an average of 40%, while 'kinship terms' and 'last name' were the least favored forms of address even for Age Group 2. See Table 5 below.

Table 5. Address forms by each speaker age group's occurrences

Address forms	% Group 1 (22-29)	% Group 2 (30-39)	% Group 3 (40-49)
Academic title	4%	4%	12%
Endearment term	5%	6%	3%
Polite words	11%	20%	12%
Mother+of...	9%	7%	27%
Madam, Sayyidah, Mrs	4%	7%	0
ʔanisety/ Miss	14%	3%	0
Occupational term	12%	10%	19%
First name	40%	42%	27%
Kinship term	0.30%	0.3%	0
Last/family name	0.70%	0.7	0
Total occurrences %	100%	100%	100%

Considering that the total number of occurrences made by Age Groups 1, 2 and 3 were 1400, 480 and 120 consecutively, the researcher found that the youngest group used 'first name' form of address as their favorite form with an average of 40%, while 'kinship terms' and 'last name' were the least favored forms of address. Age Group 2 tended to use 'first name' and 'polite words' mostly. The oldest group of participants preferred using 'first name' and 'mother+of...' forms.

In light of studies that highlight gender as a major factor affecting linguistic forms, the researcher presents the frequency of address forms' use in Table 6.

Based on the occurrences of the 100 participants, 50 female speakers used all address forms except for the academic title, while the 50 male speakers left out kinship terms and last name forms unused, and they used no address forms at all 20 times. Frequency of using the forms of address seems to vary according to the gender of the participant. First name represented

about 53% of the female occurrences, ‘ʔanisety/ Miss’ and ‘Mother+of...’ represented about 23% of the occurrences. With regard to the male speakers, first name, occupational term, and polite words constituted about 68% of their total occurrences.

Table 6.*Address forms by speakers’ gender*

Address forms	Occurrences in 20 situations	Occurrences of female speakers	Occurrences of male speakers
Academic title	86	0	86
Endearment term	103	73	30
Polite words	270	95	175
Mother+of...	193	106	87
Madam, Sayyidah, Mrs, Ms	59	55	4
ʔanisety/ Miss	207	122	85
Occupational term	251	23	228
First name	814	529	285
Kinship term	4	4	0
Last/family name	13	13	0
No forms of address used	-	-	20
Total of occurrences	2000 (100%)	1000 (100%)	1000 (100%)

Table 6 obviously presents that both male and female in the workplace tend to use the ‘first name’ most of the time. Nevertheless, female speakers use the ‘first name’ nearly twice more than male speakers. Male speakers seem to use ‘first name’ not far differently from the ‘occupational terms’. Saying that, male speakers use ‘occupational terms’ ten times more than female speakers do; and ‘polite words’ were used by the male speakers two times more than females do. Regarding the female speakers, they tend to use the endearment term twice more than male speakers do. Besides, females use ‘Madam, Sayyidah, Mrs, Ms’ far more than males. Apparently, female speakers’ use of ‘kinship terms’ and the ‘last name’ was rare. Male speakers tended to use neither the kinship terms nor the last name when addressing the females in the workplace.

In terms of geographically distributed employment of address forms, Table 7 below shows that participants from Irbid and Mafrag (northern cities of Jordan) as well those from Amman and Zarqa (central cities of Jordan) used all types of address form, but with different frequencies. It is worth reemphasizing that 67 participants came from the northern cities, while 33 participants were from the central cities.

Table 7. Address forms by geography

Address forms	Occurrences of speakers of northern cities	Occurrences of speakers of central cities
	%	%
Academic title	5.03	4.85
Endearment term	7.90	1.67
Polite words	2.90	8.33
Mother+of...	10.90	9.10
Madam, Sayyidah, Mrs, Ms	5.36	2.12
?aniset/ Miss	10.10	12.88
Occupational term	16.40	11.06
First name	40.34	47.57
Kinship term	0	0.61
Last/family name	1.07	1.81
Total occurrences	100%	100%

All participants used the all identified address forms except for those from the northern cities, who did not use 'kinship terms'. The 67 participants of the northern cities used the forms of address 1340 times in 20 situations, while participants of the central cities used forms of address 660 times. Based on the total times made by each group, the percentage of frequency of using each address form is elicited.

First name was the most frequently used address form by both groups, with about 40% of the total occurrences of the northern cities' participants, and more than 47% of the central cities' total occurrences. Occupational terms were the second address form in frequency of use by the northern cities' group, while '?aniset/ Miss' followed by 'occupational terms' were used relatively about the same frequency by the central cities' group. Endearment terms were used much more frequently by the participants coming from the northern cities (7.90%) than those occurrences made by the second group (1.67%). In comparison, polite words were used more frequently by speakers coming from the central cities (8.33%) than those of the northern cities (2.90%), while kinship terms followed by 'last name' address form were of the lowest frequency of use by participants of the central cities.

In an attempt to highlight the relationship between the level of education of speakers and their use of address forms in the workplace, the researcher grouped the participants into a group of participants who do not have a certificate above the general secondary school certificate (Group 1) and the analysis showed that they were 17 speakers; 81 participants with BA degree (Group 2), and 2 speakers with an MA and higher educational level (Group 3), and a group of participants. See Table 8 below.

Table 8. Address forms by academic level

Address forms	% Group 1	% Group 2	% Group 3
Academic title	2.10	4.80	2.5
Endearment term	5.60	5.05	0
Polite words	12.09	12.60	62.5
Mother+of...	9.00	10.11	0
Madam, Sayyidah, Mrs, Ms	3.00	3.02	0
?aniset/ Miss	12.10	10.24	0
Occupational term	16.50	12.03	0
First name	39.40	41.40	25.00
Kinship term	0.30	0.19	0
Last/family name	0	0.56	10.00

Groups 1, 2 and 3 were based on the total occurrences of address forms made by each group: 340, 1620, and 40 occurrences, consecutively. Obviously, speakers of Groups 1 and 2 tended to use all address forms except for the 'last name' which was not used at all by Group 1. Occupational terms were the second preferred address forms for Group 1 speakers (about 17%), while '?aniset/ Miss' and 'polite words' were used relatively with the same frequency and in the third rank, with about 12% each of Group 1 total occurrences. Speakers of Group 2 used occupational words and polite words relatively with the same frequency (12%), followed by '?aniset/ Miss' and 'mother+of...' with a frequency of use at about 10% of their total made occurrences of address forms. Kinship terms were the least used address form by Group 1 speakers, while Group 2 speakers' least used address forms were kinship terms as well 'last name' forms.

As regards Group 3, speakers used only 'academic titles', 'polite words', 'first name' and 'last name' forms. Polite words were the preferred form of address used by people with the highest level of education, as it was used more than half of the times of the group made occurrences, followed by 'first name' as their second choice, with 25% of their used address forms. This might be because people with higher academic degrees receive respect by all employees in the Jordanian workplaces more than any other groups; and they are usually appointed in higher positions than those of other groups, and thus they feel equal if not even higher than some employees.

Therefore, all that seem to qualify them to feel some ease in using just some polite words or even the first names. Bearing in mind the limited number of participants with an MA degree and above in this study, it can be said that the higher the educational level speakers have, the less address forms they tend to use.

The researcher assumed that speakers would tend to use more address forms, especially those related to the occupational terms, when the addressee was higher in rank than the speaker. However, the influence of the rank or the position of the addressee may diminish, especially in cases where the addressee might be younger or equal in age to the speaker. Therefore, she sheds

light on this issue to verify the influence of the rank/position of the addressee along with the addressee's age.

Table 9 below presents how speakers tend to address the unmarried as well as the married women who are older and higher in rank in highly official situation such as meeting (and the total of which were 200 made occurrences, hereafter), and in less official context such as lunch break (and the total of which were 200 made occurrences, hereafter).

Table 9: Addressing 'older and higher in rank' unmarried/ married women

Married addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context	Unmarried addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context
Polite words	144	85	Polite words	92	65
Academic title	15	30	Academic title	50	68
Mother+of...	7	40	Occupational term	38	40
Madam, Sayedah	11	20	Miss, ?aniseh	20	27
Occupational term	23	25			
Total	200	200	Total	200	200

Analyzing the gathered data related to the DCT situations that were intended to find out the address forms that might be used to address 'older and higher in rank' unmarried/ married women', the researcher found out that in such situations speakers use 'polite words', 'academic title', 'mother+of...', 'Madam/Saydeh', and 'occupational terms' to address the married women.

With regard to addressing the unmarried women, speakers also used 'occupational terms' and 'Miss/?aniseh' besides 'polite words' and 'academic title'. Apparently, the form 'mother of' was not used to address the unmarried women, which might be explained in the general dislike of single women in Jordan to be addressed as such.

Seemingly, 'polite words' were the most repeatedly used address forms. They seem to be used far more in highly official situations such as meetings than in situations like lunch break, and this is probably due to the closeness people may feel when sitting in a dining hall eating together far from the work routine, while in situations like meetings speakers need to show more respect than solidarity. On the contrary, the remaining used address forms were more frequently used in the less official situations.

Nevertheless, things were not that different when speakers addressed the women who were higher in rank but younger than them, except for the tendency of speakers not to use the form of 'mother of', including the married women, unlike the situations where women were older. Table 10 below presents how speakers tend to address the unmarried as well as the married women who are younger and higher in rank than the speakers.

Table 10: Addressing 'younger and higher in rank' unmarried/ married women

Married addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context	Unmarried addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context
Polite words	150	100	Polite words	120	95
Academic title	20	40	Academic title	20	48
Occupational term	30	60	Miss, ?aniseh	34	31
			Occupational term	26	26
Total	200	200	Total	200	200

Unlike the situations when addressing 'older and higher in rank' married women, speakers used 'occupational terms' twice more in less official situations than in the highly official situations to address the younger married women. Similarly, to address the unmarried women in less official situations, speakers doubled the use of 'academic titles', but when it comes to using 'Miss/?aniseh' and 'occupational terms', speakers tend to use them relatively with the same frequency in all situations.

Moving from the situations where the addressee is higher in rank than the speaker, the researcher also highlights the effect of interaction with women who are equal in rank to the speakers. Table 10 below shows the used address forms when speaking with females, who are older and equal in rank. Table 11 is intended to determine whether variations exist when addressing females who are younger and equal in rank.

Table 11: Addressing 'older and equal in rank' unmarried/ married women

Married addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context	Unmarried addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context
First name	121	130	First name	160	200
Mother+of...	28	15	Miss, ?aniseh	30	0
Kinship term	13	20	Kinship term	10	0
Last name	8	20			
Madam/Sayedah	30	15			
Total	200	200		200	200

Table 11 presents that, similarly to the situations where the addressees were higher in rank than the speaker, the speakers used 'mother+of...' and 'Madam/Sayedah' to address married women who were equal in rank to them. Yet, the speakers used more different address forms to address females of equal rank, including 'first name', kinship terms', and 'last name'.

Moving away from the situations where the addressees are higher in rank than the speaker, the researcher also highlights the effect of interaction with women who are equal in rank to the speakers. It is worth highlighting that only 'first name' address form was used to address older and equal in rank unmarried females in less official situations.

Regarding addressing unmarried females, Table 10 above also shows that speakers used 'Miss' to address the unmarried females, similarly to those situations where the addressees were

older and higher in rank. However, the other address forms that were used in cases which included females of equal ranks to the speakers were not in common with those situations of women with higher rank. These forms included 'first name' and 'kinship terms'.

When comparing Table 12 below with Table 9 above, it seems evident that 'polite words' were in common in situations that included younger married women, whether of higher or equal rank with the speaker. Similarly when addressing the unmarried females, speakers use 'polite words' and 'Miss'.

However, other different address forms were used in situation where the addressees were younger and equal in rank.

Table 12: Addressing 'younger and equal in rank' unmarried/ married women

Married addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context	Unmarried addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context
Mother+of...	30	30	First name	133	0
Polite words	30	10	Polite words	47	0
First name	140	160	Miss, ?aniseh	20	0
Total	200	200		200	0

Table 12 shows that in addition to 'polite words', the speakers used 'first name' and 'mother+of...' to address the married younger women of equal ranks. Moreover, in addition to 'polite words' and 'Miss/?aniseh', speakers also used 'first name' to address unmarried younger females of equal ranks. Obviously, 'first name' address form was the most frequently used in both highly official and less official situations. It is also worth mentioning that only 'first name' address form was used to address younger and equal in rank unmarried females in less official situations.

Having reviewed the situations that included unmarried and married women who were higher than as well as equal in rank to the speakers, the researcher moved one step forward to see how things may differ when addressing women with lower rank than the speaker. See Table 13

Table 13: Addressing 'older and lower in rank' unmarried/ married women

Married addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context	Unmarried addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context
First name	160	170	First name	170	200
Mother+of...	30	30	Polite words	30	0
Polite words	10	0			
Total	200	200		200	200

Table 13 shows that the situations that included married women of lower rank and older than the speakers used the 'first name', 'mother+of...' and 'polite words', where 'first name' forms was used more repeatedly than other used forms in both highly and less official situations.

Similarly, for addressing unmarried females, speakers used 'first name' and 'polite words' in both kinds of situations, but they only used 'first name' in the less official situations. This unique use of 'first name' address form was evident in situations where the addressee was both younger and lower in rank than the speaker. See Table 14

Table 14: Addressing ‘younger and lower in rank’ unmarried/ married women

Married addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context	Unmarried addressee	% Highly official situation	% Less official context
First name	200	200	First name	200	200

Only ‘first name’ form was used to address unmarried and married women in the two kinds of situations. This is likely because people in Jordan usually tend to feel closeness and solidarity with females who are younger, especially when their ranks in the workplace will not be a constraint in mutual communication.

In relation to the first two questions of the study, results have shown that the titles and terms that the Jordanian employees use to address their female companions in the workplace fall in different address forms categories, as follows: Academic titles, endearment terms, polite words, using ‘mother+of...’ form, Madam/ Sayyidah/Mrs, Miss and ?aniseh, occupational terms, first name, kinship terms (mainly xaltah, and ?oxti), and the last/family name.

In relation to the differences related to the use of such address forms in view of the married versus the unmarried employees, the same address forms are used to address both the unmarried and the married women, except for the ‘mother+of...’ form which is used exclusively to address the married women in the workplace. Besides, in line with the universal norm, Madam and its equivalents are used to address the married women, while ‘Miss’ and its equivalents are used to address the unmarried female employees.

In terms of the frequency of employment of the identified address forms, the most frequently address form used to address women in the workplace is utilizing the ‘first name’. This finding is in line with Okamura’s (2002:76) findings which indicate that interlocutors tend to use the first name as the most common form for addressing in most situations. In this study, first name is used more than 40% of the total 2000 occurrences, followed by the use of ‘polite words’, ‘Madam or Miss’, and ‘occupational terms’. On the contrary, the least used address forms were ‘kinship terms’ and ‘last/family names’.

Regarding the third question of the study about the social factors that may affect the speaker’s use of address term, the researcher has found that social factors (particularly, age, and rank) effect the tendency and preference of using address forms, and they are considered factors that influence the means of expressing attitude and values toward power and solidarity. This influence has led to a variation and adjustment in the use of address forms, which seems corresponding to Giles and Taylor’s (1977:322) contention that people accommodate and adjust their speech as a means of expressing attitudes towards others.

Such adjustments are evident in situations where participants tend to use only the ‘first name’ form to address the unmarried as well as the married women who are younger and of a lower rank than the speakers in an attempt to achieve solidarity and intimacy. Still, the same speakers avoid using ‘first name’ and ‘last name’ to address women who are older and higher in rank than the speakers in an attempt to maintain power-related distance.

Oyetade (1995) stresses that linguistic choices that are made by participants seem to be affected by social variables, mainly age and social status or rank. This is also on the same line of thought of Brown and Levinson (1978:96) and Holmes' (1993:159) indication to the effect of social factors on the employed strategies. In light of such studies, the present study has identified some features of the influence of social factors, in relation to age, gender, geography and residential area, level of education of interlocutors, and rank, on address forms used in the workplace.

As regards age impact, similar to the people of the Chinese culture, as mentioned by Ervin-Tripp (1972), the age in the Jordanian Arab culture is found essential in determining which address term should be used. Like Ervin-Tripp (1972:220), the researcher has found that limited address terms are usually used by speakers to address those who are younger than them or of similar age.

In addition, the researcher concluded that the older the speaker, the less varied forms of address are used. Similarly, the younger the speakers, the more tendency they have to use 'first name' form of address as their favorite. In addition, she found that the older the speakers, the more likely they tend to use 'first name' and 'mother+of...' forms. Conversely, she found that 'kinship terms' and 'last name' look as the speakers' least favourite forms of address.

When considering the rank together with the age of addressee, for example, there seems to have speakers' tendency to avoid the use of first or last name in addressing those women who are older and higher in rank in the workplace. This tendency may reflect the sensitivity in dealing with female superiors and the need of the speakers to maintain that level of power relationship between speakers and the women of higher rank. In comparison, in situations where the addressee women are equal to the speakers in rank or even lower, the speakers sometimes tend to use the 'first name' address form, even when the addressees are older or of the same age of the speakers. The researcher has also found that it is the power, which is represented in 'rank' in this study, which is more likely to influence the use of address forms.

This highlights that there is systematicity in such language behavior in Arabic (particularly, the Jordanian Arabic); and address forms in the workplace do have social functions, including showing politeness and respect, showing intimacy (especially when talking to women of lower ranks, and younger age), and displaying honor and social distance, especially when dealing with women who are older, married, and or of a higher rank (Yang, 2010:743; Thome-Williams, 2004:85).

This study shows that rank in the workplace is usually used to represent the status and position of people assuming certain roles, and thus, ranks entail the expected performance and address forms from interlocutors in any situation. This finding is similar to Goodenough's (1965) point in relation to the statuses as being determinant of concerning rights and duties. This study underlines that the higher the rank of the addressee, the more polite and far from the direct-naming address forms are used. Though, when the relationship between the interactants is equal in terms of rank and power, intimacy and solidarity are likely to imply symmetrical usage of address forms, as Fasold (1990) mentioned. In brief, similar to the findings of Brown & Ford's

(1961) study, this study stresses that status and intimacy between interlocutors are determining factors for selecting the forms of address.

It seems that even the situation itself has impact on the employed address forms. For example, when the same high official situations of the workplace (such as meetings) and less official situation of the workplace (such as lunch break) were used to find out the influence of age and rank together on the preference of using address forms, the researcher concluded, similarly to Keshavarz (2001:6), that setting and formality of context stress that context is also another factor that affects language use. In other words, linguistic and social behavior need be suitable for the situations wherein speakers use forms of address.

With regard to gender, highly significant differences have been identified in the frequency of speakers' use of certain address forms. For example, female speakers prefer to use the 'first name' nearly twice more than male speakers. Female speakers also tend to use the 'endearment terms' twice more than male speakers do. Besides, females use 'Madam, Sayyidah, Mrs, Ms' about 10 times more than male speakers. From the perspective of male speakers, they seem to use 'first name' as well as 'occupational terms' nearly with the same frequency. Male speakers use 'occupational terms' ten times more than the female speakers; and they doubled the use of 'polite words' over the female speakers' use of the same address form. The use of both 'kinship terms' and 'last name' forms was rare by the female speakers, and they were not used at all by male speakers.

In order to highlight any address form-related differences that are associated with the difference in regions of the same country, the researcher has found some differences in the frequency of using different address forms. The speakers of the central areas of Jordan tend to use the identified address forms twice more than the residents of the northern regions of the country. This might be related to the awareness level of the need and necessity to use the address forms in the workplace. For example, participants from the central region use the occupational terms 158 times in 20 situations, while participants from the northern cities used it 73 times.

First name is the most frequently used address form for both groups, with about 40% of the total occurrences of the northern cities' participants, and more than 47% of the central cities' total occurrences. Occupational terms are the second address form in terms of the frequency of use by the northern cities' group, while 'ʔanisety/ Miss' followed by 'occupational terms' are used relatively about the same frequency by the central cities' group. Endearment terms are used much more frequently by the participants coming from the northern cities (7.90%) than the second group (1.67%). In comparison, polite words are used more frequently by speakers coming from the central cities (8.33%) than those of the northern cities (2.90%), while kinship terms followed by 'last name' address form are of the lowest frequency of use by participants of the central cities.

However, using no form of address as in the cases where speakers used no address term at all, as in the lunch break when communicating with 'younger and equal in rank' unmarried/ married women, might be considered by the addressee as rude and showing disrespect, especially in cases of new arriving employees. This point is stressed by Yang (2010:744) who underlines that the absence of certain address forms especially in situations where the addressee expect

them is regarded rude. In this regard, the researcher is in line with Suryanarayan and Larina's (2012:10) point that women need to be held in respect, and any familiarity in Jordanian Arab culture might be misinterpreted.

What is also significant in this study is that the higher the academic level of speakers is, the less varied forms of address are used. Besides, it is worth reemphasizing that the lower the educational level of the speaker is, the more repeatedly he/she uses the academic title to address women in the workplace. Polite words are the preferred form of address used by people with the highest level of education (more than 50% of made occurrences), followed by 'first name' as their second choice (25% of the used address forms).

This limited number of address forms that are used by the highest academic level group might be because people with higher academic degrees in the Jordanian workplace usually receive respect by all employees more than any other groups; and they are usually appointed in higher positions than those of other groups, and thus they feel equal if not even higher than some employees. Therefore, all this qualifies them to feel some ease in using just a limited number of address forms such as polite words or even the first names. Bearing in mind the limited number of participants with an MA or higher degree in this study, it can be said that the higher the educational level speakers have, the less address forms they tend to use.

In light of politeness theory, since politeness is "culturally determined" Holmes (1995:285), it has been concluded in this study that the older the addressee, the more politeness is required from the speaker to show in the used address forms, which is the same finding of Wang (2003). The speaker should address the women in a way that shows positive politeness that values the addressee's status by demonstrating shared common ground that is achieved by the use of intimate forms of address (Brown and Levinson (1987:107). Nevertheless, exaggeration in intimacy and familiarity might be misinterpreted in the Jordanian Arab culture; thus, women should be held in respect, especially by male speakers. Therefore, even negative politeness ought to be applied to keep that distance and formality, especially with superiors, by using more formal address forms that use occupational terms, academic titles, polite words, and Madam/Miss.

Last but not least, it is important to mention that Suryanarayan and Larina's (2012:12) finding of the Indian society is in parallel with the finding of the present study in that: due to the hierarchical politeness system in workplace, politeness in Arab societies, such as the Jordanian are requires demonstrating the status of the addressee of the higher rank. Subordinates are required to apply negative politeness and avoid using first names and the intimate forms of positive politeness. It is essential for people in the same workplace to use the appropriate and acceptable address forms in accordance with the Jordanian Arab culture and social expectations.

This value of using the appropriate forms of address is considered by researchers in this field (such as Buss, 1999) as an etiquette that is followed to avoid being characterized as impolite or insulting. The speaker should assure the addressee married as well as unmarried women that he/she appreciates this value of her. Therefore, using the appropriate address forms is a way of reflecting politeness and respect to women, and acknowledging their value in hierarchy of politeness system in the workplace.

Different from Austin (1962:166) who pointed out that younger people tend to do more declining in defiance of their society cultural norms, results of this study show that the younger speakers and those with less academic degrees have more preference to use more varied address forms and more frequently than others. This might be due to their awareness of the importance of establishing relations with others in light of youth empowering and globalization trend throughout the country.

Kachru(1997:66)arguesthat“peoplewhoshareacommonlanguageandculturehave an easier time ‘making sense’ of eachother’s utterances and actions”. Based on the discussion about the identified address forms used by the participants, and the relationship between the used address forms and social variables in relation to age, rank, gender, geography, level of education, degree of the officiality of the situation, and the bigger (Jordanian) social context, it can be said that address forms for Arab married and unmarried women in the workplace, particularly in Jordan, have a special patterning of can be understood and appreciated by people sharing the same socio-cultural background.

Despite the universality of the notion of using address forms, the findings emphasize that address forms in the workplace are society or culture specific. In addition, as Parkinson (1985) stated, forms of address are not and should not be selected randomly, and they are rather governed by factors such as those related to the addressee, where and when such terms are used. This study underlines that the attitude of a workplace society towards a female employee is well demonstrated in the way linguistic address forms are used to address the unmarried as well as the married women (Akindele, 2008:3).

Ssummary

The current study has investigated the most persistent Arabic address forms as usually used in the workplace for addressing married and unmarried women, and affecting social variables. Communication in the workplace where hierarchical relations exist seems not an easy task, which implies care about choosing the appropriate terms of address to be used. This special attention is due to the correlation between the social variables that govern communication in workplace context, including gender, age, formality of the setting, hierarchical status and rank, etc. Saying that, today's dyadic interactions in a workplace, where friendship and intimacy between employees may develop over the time, would affect the power, intimacy and solidarity level, and thus influence the address terms in place.

This study is meant to find and identify what titles the Jordanian employees use to address their female companions in the workplace, and what the social factors that affect the speaker's use of one address term over another. A total of 100 randomly chosen male and female employees working for the JHAS participated in the study. Participants came from different offices, positions and locations; yet, they belonged to the same bigger agency for which the researcher herself works. Working for the same agency, the researcher found it useful to find more cooperative employees in her study, and thus rendering more reliable elicited data and findings. Participants were of various groups of age, gender, residential area, educational level and ranks. This variety helped her weigh the employed forms of address against such variables. She used DCT of 20 situations prompting the use of address terms in response to each real life

related situation, where the addressee might be equal, higher/lower in rank, older or younger than the speaker.

Upon the completion of the data gathering, data were categorized and statistically analyzed, following the traditional address forms categories used by former researchers in the field (Brown & Gilman, 1960; Yassin, 1975; McConnell-Ginet, 1978; Zhou, 1998; Okamura, 2002; Aliakbari & Toni, 2008; Yang, 2010; Afzali, 2011; and Suryanarayan & Larina, 2012). The classification was based on the following broad labeling: Academic titles, Occupational term, Endearment terms, Madam, Mrs, Ms, Miss titles, First name, Last name, Kinship terms, Polite words, and umm+ of. The provided 2000 responses by participants constituted the corpus of study. The gathered data were checked if related to any of set address form categories mentioned, with a door open for registering any emerging category. All identified address forms were tabulated, described, and compared in relation to the intended social variables.

Conclusions

Studying forms of address is a sociolinguistic issue that can explicitly show the role that speech may play in interpersonal relationships of a speech event (Hymes, 1964) as address terms generally refer to and can convey social information concerning interlocutors, as well as speech event's place and time (Parkinson, 1985:1).

The addressee's characteristics entail differences in the used address terms and their lexical meanings (Braun, 1988:7). Using a certain form of address can assign a particular role to the addressee (Goyvaerts, 1972:4), as whether being a superior, a stranger, an intimate, etc. This study classified the gathered instances of terms of address into major patterns. It could shed light on the idea that address forms really encode a great deal of information about the speaker-addressee relationship. The researcher showed that the Arab, particularly the Jordanians', are in affinity with the universal trend of using the address forms; however, some society specifics seem to stand out, especially those related to the affecting social factors.

This study could highlight the different concepts of address theory such as power and solidarity and politeness principle. It also showed how these concepts are applied to the Arab culture, particularly to the Jordanian society. Because address forms are believed to manifest social relationships, this study could show variety in the types/categories, deletion, and changes in the frequency of employment of each form in light of changes in situations and characteristics of the interlocutors.

Results showed that the Jordanian employees use various address forms toward their female companions in the workplace, including: Academic titles, endearment terms, polite words, using 'mother+of...' form, Madam/ Sayyidah/Mrs titles, Miss and ?aniseh titles, occupational terms, personal first name, personal last/family name, and kinship terms (mainly xaltoh, and ?oxti). Positive address forms such as personal 'first names' and 'last names', and 'kinship terms' were used largely. Similarly, negative address forms such as 'occupational terms' and 'academic titles' were also used. Having said that, negative politeness address forms were more frequently used to address married and unmarried woman in the workplace.

This study has provided evidence that speakers' choices of forms of address do help us understand the typical and complex systems of interpersonal communication in workplace's daily interactions. According to Brown and Gilman (1960), social meanings and use of every language lexical items can be mapped onto the power as well as solidarity levels. Jordanian employees seem very dependent on relations, which may justify the tendency of establishing less formal style of forms of address even with superiors. This also emphasizes the importance of solidarity between workers.

Regarding the used forms of address for married and unmarried women, the same address forms were used to address both the unmarried and the married women, except for the 'mother+of...' form and 'Madam' title which were used exclusively to address married women. The most frequently address form that was frequently used to address women in the workplace is utilizing the 'first name'. Conversely, 'kinship terms' and personal 'last/family names' were the least used address forms.

Furthermore, social factors have been identified as key factors that influence the use of address forms. Most participants used a large number of address forms in their interaction with others, but with different frequency. The study highlighted the impact of social factors on the variation and adjustment in the use of address forms, which seems corresponding to Giles & Taylor's (1977:322) contention that people accommodate and adjust their speech as a means of expressing attitudes towards others.

With regard to age influence, the researchers concluded that the older the speaker, the fewer varied forms of address are used in favor of the frequent use of 'first name' and 'mother+of...' forms. Concerning the rank effect, the study concluded that speakers tended to avoid using the personal first or personal last name in addressing those women who are older and higher in rank. This displays that honor and social distance, especially when dealing with women who are older and of a higher rank, should be maintained. Moreover, this study underlines that the higher the rank of the addressee, the more polite address forms that are far from the direct-naming are used. Though, in situations that involve communicators who are equal or even lower in rank, address forms are likely to be characterized by intimacy.

The researchers could reveal that formality of context is another factor affecting on address forms' use that should be appropriate to the situation. Address terms used in a lunch break were more intimate and positive than those used in official meetings. With regard to gender, female speakers prefer to use the personal 'first name' as well as 'endearment terms' nearly twice more than male speakers to address women in the workplace. Female speakers also tend to use the titles of 'Sayyidah, Mrs, Ms' far more than male speakers. In comparison, male speakers use 'occupational terms' far more than the female speakers; and they doubled the use of 'polite words' over the female speakers' use. What seems to be in common is the rare use of both 'kinship terms' and personal 'last name' forms by both female speakers and male speakers.

With reference to the country region-based variations, speakers of the central areas of Jordan tended to use the identified address forms twice more than the speakers coming from the northern regions of the country. This could be ascribed to the awareness level about the need to

use the address forms in the workplace. This study showed that the higher the academic level of speakers is, the less varied forms of address are used.

Because of the hierarchical politeness system in workplace, politeness entails the demonstration of the status of the addressee, especially that of the higher rank, by using negative politeness. This study underlines that in an Arab workplace, subordinates should avoid using first names and the positive politeness/address forms when addressing women who have higher ranks than the speakers, especially when she is older. It is essential for people in the same workplace to use the appropriate and acceptable address forms in accordance with the Jordanian Arab culture and social expectations. Using no form of address at all, or inappropriate address term, might be considered by the addressee as rude and a sign of showing disrespect

About the Authors:

Mays Qasem Ajlouni

Department of English language and literature Faculty of Arts, Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan.

Dr. Lutfi Abulhaija

Head of Department, Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan.

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Book Review

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Reviewer: Dr. Ahmad Al-Harabsheh, Yarmouk University, Translation Dept.

The Papers in Arabic/English Translation Studies is a practical and useful guide for beginner translators, professional translators and researchers specialized in translation, because it is a handbook that tackles the theoretical and practical perspectives of translation in Arabic/English translation. The articles of the book are written by different popular researchers, who have wide experience in the theoretical and practical aspects of translation. Prof. Farghal is a well-known linguist who specialized in pragmatics and translation studies. He wrote many papers about the pedagogy of translation and the challenges encountered by translators in rendering different types of texts. He has a long experience in teaching linguistics and translation courses at Yarmouk University and Kuwait university.

The aim of this excellent collaborative book as mentioned by the authors is " to bring together and update some scattered material in one volume, which is hoped to inaugurate a series of other volumes in a scantily researched area. This will definitely serve students, researchers, and practitioners who usually experience difficulty in locating academic papers dealing with Arabic/English TS". Therefore, this book can be a beneficial resource for researchers in addressing similar issues in translation from Arabic into English and vice versa. Another significant aim of this book is to engage translators in "translational argumentation", as the solutions suggested for the challenges are not final,

so the researcher can conduct other research papers to expand, to refute, or to find new solutions and strategies to overcome the challenges that translators encounter when translating different genres of discourse.

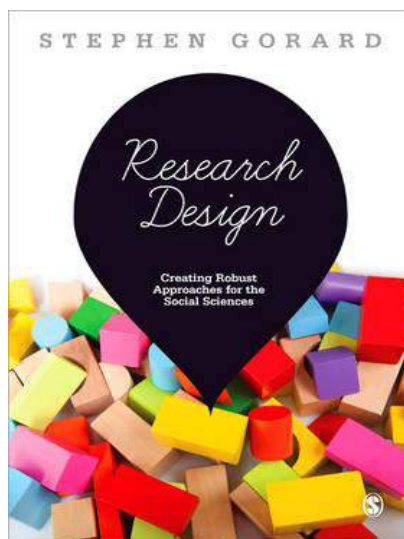
This book consists of 15 chapters about different topics of translation such as equivalence, linguistics, coherence, religious translation, literary translation, legal translation, scientific translation, pragmatic issues such as politeness and discourse markers, syntactic issues such as passive, semantic issues such as collocations, machine translation and journalistic translation. It tackles many of the challenges that translators encounter when translating such texts from a SL into TL and the possible solutions to overcome such challenges. The topics discussed in this book are : basic issues in translation, the linguistics of translation, the translation of English passives into Arabic, translating modals by Zero equivalence, semantic and syntactic hurdles in machine translation and student translation, translation miscues: poetry as an example, audience awareness and role of translator, reader responses in Quran translation, coherence shift in Quran Translation, pragmalinguistic failure: The case of Arabic politeness formulas, Media translation: the case of Arabic Newsweek, Collocations; and index of L2 interlingual transfer competence, Explicitation vs. implicitation :Discourse markers as an example, Lexical reduction in scientific translation, Major problems in students' translations of English legal texts into Arabic.

In short, the book is valuable guide for any researcher in the field of translation. One of the impressive issues in this book is the variety of texts the book tackles, the logical and interesting methods used by the authors in analyzing the data, and in suggesting plausible solutions for the challenges that translators encounter when translating such texts from Arabic into English. I recommend this book as a manual tool for all those who interested in theoretical and practical translation, as it provides very rich data and discussions. Also, the authors evaluate the merits and demerits of each translation strategy and they reflect their experiences on these strategies to improve the practices of Arabic/English translation.

Reviewer: Dr. Ahmad Al-Harashseh,
Yarmouk University, Translation Department, Irbid, Jordan

Book Review

Research Design, Creating Robust Approaches for the Social Sciences



Author: **Stephen Gorard**

Title of the Book: **Research Design, Creating Robust Approaches for the Social Sciences**

Year of Publication: **2013**

Publisher: **Sage, United Kibgdom**

Number of Pages: **232**

Reviewer: **Dr. Nadia Idri, Faculty of Arts and Languages, University of Bejaia**

Research is widely changing over time since social and human phenomena are evolving in a considerable way. Changing research methods, research approaches and research designs is also an issue that we should develop and update accordingly. For this, Stephen Gorards's text comes to update the literature putting focus on the need for a new design in research in social sciences. This well-elaborated book does in no sense exclude traditional views on how to plan, organize and execute a research project, but tries to highlight the new approaches that can help a researcher develop his project as authentically as possible via the appropriate choice of the design for his research.

The intended audience of this book can be wide as it can vary from beginners such as students; as it serves as an excellent textbook, teachers who can employ it in teaching, tutoring and working in his research; or workers in the field of research in social sciences. This unique faculty in the book is brought out by Gorard through his quite simple style, illustrative comments and argumentative language. Examples from existing case studies in the field are presented based on standard design models.

In his work, Gorard divided the book into five parts arranged from general considerations; going through the research steps and the main elements that a researcher should consider like research questions, claims, sampling, validity, ethical issues; and he then ended with his pertinent concluding part about the need for robust design.

The main objective behind writing this book is to shed light on the concept of design; which is often confused with paradigm, data collection or analysis. In addition, many existing designs the author has referred to, but he detailed the description of the various elements of research designs. Each chapter ends with three examples and notes based on the author's experience. Add to this, a suggested reading for each chapter is provided.

In his first chapter, Gorard tried to explain the concept of research design and question its place among research methods. This way of organizing a research project or programme for its inspection. He referred to its elements going through case studies sub-groups, timing and sequence of data collection, etc. for him, thinking of the conclusion the researcher wants to draw should happen before the research is conducted. That is, through research design, the researcher can generate evidence and answer his questions. The author has also tackled how can a researcher adopt a simplified cycle for a field or programme; and how to relate it to design elements. Hence, the researcher will choose the most appropriate design for his research project (Chapter 2).

Of course, a researcher should work out his project to answer his research questions. Gorard, then, explained how to generate and express them referring the reader to primary and secondary data as well as the literature review (chapter 3). Such conclusions generally take place in the last stage but the researcher should present a logical argument to reach the final conclusions (Chapter 4). This called warrant for research claims should be clearly and convincingly presented in order to reach defensible conclusions. To go further, the author moved to discuss the nature of causal claims which are highly present in explanatory social science research as discussed in the fifth chapter of the book. The author tried to relate design to explain any causal relationship between two or more variables. Such cause and effect link should also be measured by means of statistical tools (Chapter 5).

In his third part, Gorard presented the elements of design in four chapters. He started arguing the importance of the selection of cases of interest in the research and the appropriate allocation of cases to sub-groups (Chapter 6). These sub-groups are explained via the notion of sampling. In this chapter, many such research designs are identified as longitudinal, cross-sectional or experimental. When dealing with sub-groups, sampling is considered and when compared, the researcher should clearly determine these sub-groups and compare them at the beginning of the research in order to construct persuasive claims (Chapter 7). Time has been given a salient part since all the above mentioned research designs have time considerations and phenomena are said

to change over time and this issue of time is what the eight chapter details. Finally, after dealing with the elements of research design, this last chapter of the third part considers the intervention to be evaluated. Gorard considers that a research design can contain all the discussed elements he presented in his first chapters; and this generally occurs for high research designs, as it can contain some of them (Chapter 9). Focus is put here on experimental and quasi-experimental research types which are subject of change when circumstances change as well.

The fourth chapter goes a step further to deal with highly advanced research designs. First, the author presented the currently less common research designs (Chapter 10). Then, a chapter is presented to deal with the aspect of validity as part of research evaluation (Chapter 11). Traditional and generic threats to treat the validity of research conclusions are introduced and the need to introduce new ones is, then, an issue. Here, the difference between pattern and 'noise' is considered in data in chapter Twelve. To end this part, Gorard considered the aspect of research ethics and the conflicts of interest in the conduct of research.

The last part is conclusive. It is a summary and defends the principle of the need of a robust approach in social science research design. The author presented useful notes on how to choose a research design and how to write a successful research proposal.

As a whole, the book remains an opportunity to be updated in the field of research in human sciences and well focused when starting a research project. It can serve as a guide all along the research process especially with its various explanations, illustrations and examples

Reviewer

Dr Nadia Idri

Faculty of Arts and Languages

University of Bejaia