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Abstract
The Communicative Approach (CA) has been adopted in English Language-Learning contexts as the ultimate solution in English language teaching, following dissatisfaction with the structuralist approaches, grammar drills and audiolingualism (Liao, 2004; Hiep, 2007). The Communicative Approach promised rapid results in English language learning, however concerns have been voiced on a perceived decline in students’ performance in writing proficiency, following the shift in focus to communication (Lakhwe, 2016; Maalouf, 2016). Thirty years after its implementation, calls were made to reevaluate the Communicative Approach based on case studies and results from ELL contexts (Bacha, 2016; Samra, 2016). Arguments provided that what may work in native contexts may not have the same impact in non-native learning contexts (Lakhwe 2016, Ghadi, Biddou and Boukanouf 2016). This case study seeks to identify the main tenets of the Communicative Approach in non-native contexts, and to recommend essential components to its application. The study is based on data collected from 198 students doing English communication skills courses and 45 participating English tutors in an English foreign language (EFL) university context, Lebanon. Findings suggest that performance remains the evidence of competence; however appropriate language performance is essentially reflective of a tripod model of CLT that incorporates correct linguistic application, appropriate sociolinguistic awareness and higher order strategic maneuverability.

Keyword: Communicative approach (CA), communicative language teaching (CLT), English language teaching (ELT), the tripod construct, non-native contexts

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Introduction
In the past thirty years, perspectives on successful language learning promoted a shift away from the long established grammar curriculum and traditional classroom practice, towards teaching for communication and communicative competence. Ellis (2016) addressed a number of criticisms that have been leveled on the focus on form (FoF) approach. Mastering grammar forms and structures was not perceived to prepare the learners well enough to use the language they are learning to communicate effectively with others (Ellis, 2016). In addition, traditional ways of language teaching reduced the process of language learning to an awareness of grammar labels and limited lexical assemblage.

In earlier literature, Segalowitz (1976) reported that second language learners who have achieved a fairly high level of grammatical competence in the language through grammatically organized classroom training remain unable to communicate with fluency and ease in sociolinguistic and cultural settings. According to Liao (2004), ministries of education in many EFL countries adopted the Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT) based on their objectives of developing communicative abilities in learners. Introducing CLT was perceived to develop in learners greater competence in the use of English for communication and help them overcome earlier concerns on being “communicatively incompetent” (Liao, 2004, p.270). However, Lamie (2001) provides that the Communicative Approach placed more emphasis on obtaining fluency and correct pronunciation and less emphasis on learning grammar rules.

According to the British Council conference findings (2016), the Communicative Approach succeeded in making the students communicate, using the target language, even at a beginners’ level, through advocating more emphasis on skills than systems and utilizing new syllabus design that targeted natural communication exchanges. In assessment, students were evaluated on the level of communicative competence rather than on explicit knowledge of the language (Lacorte, 2005). Another positive perception associated with adopting the approach was that CLT was expected to help tutors keep up with the developments in English language teaching according to Western standards.

However, as the study of grammar became marginalized, pupils started to find it increasingly difficult to develop attentiveness on how language works (Lakhwe, 2012). Moreover, according to Selinker (2006), Swain (2013) and Swain and Brooks (2014), certain grammatical inaccuracies were fossilized since grammatical accuracy was not emphasized. Studies reported that students in Communicative Language Teaching classes developed classroom interlanguage; a language system that may satisfy basic communicative needs in the classroom but does not correspond entirely to the language systems used by native speakers of the foreign language (Selinker 2006, Swain 2013 and Swain and Brooks 2014).

To Teach or Not to Teach Grammar
Since the introduction of the Communicative Approach (CA), opinion was divided on its efficacy. Campbell and Wales (1970), Groot (1975), Habermas (1970), Munby (1978) and Searle (1969) have argued that communicative competence is the most inclusive language competence. From their perspective, communicative competence includes both grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence. On their part, Alexander (1976), Johnson (1977) and Wilkins (1978) have suggested various combinations of emphasis on grammatical skills and
on other communication skills but have not provided empirical data to support the suggested models.

Macaro and Masterman (2006) in a study at the University of Oxford correlated grammar knowledge with writing proficiency. In contexts where emphasis was on developing writing proficiency, grammar was perceived an essential skill.

In a recent conference on *Revisiting the Communicative Approach* (2016), researchers identified resurging concerns associated with learners’ knowledge of the rules of the language and ability to apply the learnt grammar rules in communicative contexts. In addition, researchers debated whether it is still possible to maintain that the teaching of grammatical competence can be separated from the teaching of communicative competence. However, conference participants reported that since the shift in focus from accuracy to communication an obvious decline in the writing proficiency was noted in the performance of students at all levels, in non-native contexts (Maalouf 2016, Samra 2016, Lakhwe 2016).

In following a Chomskyan paradigm, modern linguists generally perceive linguistic competence as referring exclusively to knowledge of the rules of grammar in a language and communicative competence as referring to performance. Kempson (1977) provided:

A theory which characterizes the regularities of language is a competence theory; a theory which characterizes the interaction between that linguistic characterization and all other factors which determine the full amount of regularities of communication is a theory of performance.... A theory characterizing a speaker’s ability to use his language appropriately in context, a theory of communicative competence, is simply a performance theory (pp.54-55).

In Chomsky’s stronger claim (1965), competence refers to the linguistic system or grammar that an ideal native speaker of a given language has internalized, while performance is concerned with the psychological factors that are involved in the perception and production of speech. From this viewpoint, a theory of competence is equivalent to a theory of grammar and is concerned with the linguistic rules that can generate the grammatical sentences of a language.

Hymes (1972) rejected the strong version of linguistic competence that Chomsky (1965) adopted and proposed a theory of competence that includes the language user’s knowledge and ability to use rules of language in context. Hymes (1972) asserted that, “there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless” (p. 278). In their evaluation, Campbell and Wales (1970) argued that, “by far the most important linguistic ability is that of being able to produce or understand utterances which are not so much grammatical but more important, appropriate to the context in which they are made” (p.247).

Following these distinctions, the term “communicative competence” was used to refer exclusively to knowledge or capability relating to the rules of language use, and the term “grammatical or linguistic competence” to refer to the rules of grammar (Allen, 1978; Jokobovits, 1970; Palmer, 1978; Paulston, 1971; and Widdowson, 1971). However, the provided dichotomy did not end with mutually exclusive categories but rather fuelled further debate.
Griffiths (2011) perceives the dichotomy between traditional and communicative approaches as ‘ill-defined”. She proposes that research needs to consider the underlying assumptions that relate to the teaching approaches and syllabi. Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood and Son (2005) argue that in assessing communicative language teaching (CLT), there are significant differences between teachers and researchers’ conceptions. Researchers and practitioners hold different opinions on the matter.

Upshur (1969) argued that grammatical competence is not a good predictor of communicative competence. In their research, Upshur and Palmer (1974) argued against teaching grammar, suggesting that to focus on grammatical competence in the classroom is not a sufficient condition for the development of communicative competence. Larsen-Freeman (2007) concurs, “gone are the days when English teachers made students parrot the rules of the language and use them in making sentences either in speech or in writing”.

Widdowson (1978) explained that in normal conversation native speakers will focus more on language use than on grammar. This viewpoint was maintained in research that promoted communicative language teaching. However, according to Rivers (1973), Schulz (1977) and Paulston (1974), research on basic communicative skills tends to put less emphasis on other aspects of communicative competence such as knowledge of the appropriateness of utterances with respect to sociocultural contexts. In such contexts, emphasis seems to be focused on getting one’s meaning across at the early stages of second language learning. From another angle, Savington (1972), Van EK (1976) and Palmer (1978) underlined that many of the communicative approaches do not emphasize grammatical accuracy.

Caroll (1978) suggests that native speakers of a language are more tolerant of second language learners’ “stylistic failures” than of their grammatical inaccuracies. Without some minimal level of grammatical competence in the second language, it is unlikely that one could communicate effectively with a monolingual speaker of the language. From this perspective, grammatical competence should be perceived as an essential component of communicative performance.

Munby (1978) perceives that the study of communicative competence should focus minimally on the relationship and interaction between regularities in grammatical competence and regularities in sociolinguistic competence. A language user should be able to use correct language in appropriate applications. Van EK (1976) stated that the general objective for second language programmes is that “the learner should be able to survive (linguistically) in temporary contacts with foreign language speakers in everyday situations” (pp. 24-25). This view underlined basic requirements for a foreign language learner.

In a review of approaches to language teaching, Bax (2003) called for the abandonment of communicative language teaching on the basis of its inability to deliver the promised outcomes. On the other hand, Liao (2004) contends that the communicative approach is the best method of teaching a foreign language.

Hiep (2007) proposes that because of the broad theoretical positions on which the communicative approach is based, different interpretations of the communicative approach
resulted in different positions ranging from advocacy to rejection. From a more recent perspective, Hunter and Smith (2012) challenged the assumption that there was ever a whole, distinct or unitary CLT. They perceive CLT as a succession of methods that chart the progression from pre-communicative stage to diverse communicative applications.

Recently, the teachers of English have begun to involve their pupils in grammaring rather than explicit grammar teaching (Enos, 2010; Akakura, 2012). Grammaring has been proposed to include the procedural knowledge in using language rather than the declarative knowledge of its systems. Demonstrating knowledge of grammar rules within a communicative context started to reclaim interest within the EFL teaching context.

Thirty years after the implementation of the Communicative Approach, views remain divided as to whether or not communicative competence is the optimal method for teaching and learning English, and whether or not the notion “communicative competence” includes that of “grammatical competence” as one of its essential components.

The purpose of this paper is to revisit, through a case study, perceptions associated with English language applications and projected in the teaching and learning of English, by tutors and learners, in one EFL context.

Methodology

The study concerns 198 students doing English communication skills courses in an EFL university context in Lebanon. The students undergo a placement test and are placed in English communication skills courses of different levels, based on their attained results in the placement test.

At the time of the study, which lasted for four months, the English faculty at the university were involved in a research that identified the difficulties that students face when learning English in non-native contexts. Opinion was divided on the most appropriate method for teaching EFL.

The study involved the 6 English communication skills course tutors working with the 198 students as well as 39 part time English faculty members. The English communication skills tutorials followed the communicative language teaching approach (CLT) where the focus was on language and communicative functions and notions. The syllabus included imparting and seeking factual information in English, getting things done and socializing. Topic areas encompassed personal identification, familiar setting, travel, food and drink, home and roles.

Student groups relied on the course textbooks that provided the communicative components. The teaching methodology involved pair and group work, communicative activities and teaching functional language. The criteria for evaluating this group’s performance included classroom presentations and group work, efforts to communicate, amount of communication, comprehensibility and suitability, naturalness, poise and semantic accuracy. In addition, there was an end of semester written final exam that students needed to pass to be able to progress to the following level.
The data comprised of students’ continuing assessment records, end of semester student grades and tutor interviews. It is noteworthy that despite the course objectives of adopting the communicative approach in teaching communication skills courses, the end of semester exams included a separate grammar component which is allocated 15 out of 50, in addition to 10 marks allocated to reading comprehension, 5 marks allocated for vocabulary and 20 marks for writing.

**Findings**

In looking at students’ performance in the separate component scores of the final exam assessment, we find that where the grammar grade was low, the writing component grade was also low. Based on the assessment scores, three performance groups emerged. Group A included 48 students who were good performers. Group B included 82 students who were labeled as average performers. Group C included 68 students who were labeled as below-average performers.

<table>
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<th>Tier A (good performers 48 students)</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Writing</th>
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<td>Tier B (middle group 82 students)</td>
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<tr>
<td>and Vocabulary scores similar to</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2/5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
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<td>grammar and writing scores</td>
<td>5/2.5</td>
<td>2.5/2.5</td>
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<td>5/5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tier C (below-average performers 68</td>
<td>3/5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students)</td>
<td>25/2.5</td>
<td>5/2.5</td>
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For Group A, high reading and vocabulary scores were correlated with high grammar and writing scores. For Group B, reading and vocabulary scores were better than grammar and writing scores. For Group C, low reading and vocabulary scores were correlated with low grammar and writing scores.

Where performers were exceptionally good (Group A) or exceptionally below average (Group C), their competence or incompetence was reflected in all assessed areas. However for Group B, performers did better in reading and vocabulary components than in grammar and writing components. For students in Tier B, competence in reading and vocabulary skills did not extend to grammar and writing scores.

Following the attained results, interviews were conducted with tutors to gain insight from tutors’ perspective. On opinion whether the grammar or the communicative approach served better the learners’ needs in EFL contexts, 9 tutors out of the 45 English tutors surveyed replied that they prefer to separate grammar instruction to make English language rules clearer to their students. They perceived that knowledge of grammar rules is crucial in order to help students express themselves accurately in spoken and written communication. In their sessions, grammar instruction included labeling lexical categories, introducing rules of syntax and morphology, drilling sentence grammar as well as semantics and phonologic exercises. According to these tutors, grammar competence is a crucial component in any teaching and learning approach to English in a non-native context, to compensate for the limited
opportunities of practice. Tutors underlined that at the beginner level, a foreign language learner will most likely be unable to devote much attention to the task of how to use language until he or she has mastered some of the grammatical forms that need to be used. Therefore, it is important to adopt the position that foreign language learning will proceed more effectively, when grammatical usage is not abstracted from meaningful context. The tutors however, expressed dissatisfaction with the sociolinguistic models of interaction, contained in the syllabi, which are mostly focused on native speakers’ contexts. The participating tutors underlined the importance of using the learnt language in an appropriate manner and with fluency.

Out of the 45 English tutors surveyed, 36 tutors confirmed that they used integration in teaching grammar. 20 tutors responded that they use some integration in teaching grammar and 16 tutors confirmed that they use substantial integration in teaching grammar within the communicative approach. However the 36 tutors agreed that the communicative approach must respond to the learner’s communicative needs. In this integrationists’ view, communicative competence may be regarded as one in which there is a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social context to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined to be compatible with the requirements of the interaction. In addition, tutors thought that exposure to realistic communication situations is crucial if communicative competence is to lead to communicative confidence. The tutors confirmed that from their experience of working with EFL students, competence in grammar needed a further sociolinguistically appropriate level of production. In addition, the tutors mentioned that the more competent students usually find ways of overcoming “difficulties” in the target language.

In a follow up to their responses, the researcher asked tutors how do they integrate grammar with tasks. The 36 tutors that used integration replied that they integrate grammar in an eclectic approach. Four tutors explained that they derive grammar from the text. Nine
elucidated that they choose the texts that illustrate specific grammar items and twenty-three reported that they highlight the grammar items that are required for the task at hand.

Again, concerns were voiced on the inappropriateness of the texts in preparing learners for encounters that they may face in an EFL context. Tutors explained that they needed to emphasize grammar rules because of the limited opportunities of practicing the taught language would not allow the students to notice the rules from communicative exchanges only.

In the follow up interview, the below questions were also discussed:
1. What is the ultimate goal of ELT in non-native contexts?
2. Is writing a primary component of teaching ELT in a non-native context?
3. Can we teach language in a ELL contexts without teaching grammar?
4. How can we include grammar in ELT and avoid the apprehensions of old school prescriptivism?

In response to question one, there was a consensus that the ultimate goal of English language teaching in non-native contexts is to prepare learners to use English with fluency and accuracy. In relation to question 2, all tutors perceived writing as a primary concern in teaching English in a non-native context. Tutors provided that end of semester assessment has about half of the grade allocated to the writing component (20 out of 50). They defended grade allocation on the basis that most universities conduct writing assessment for applicants and use the results for short listing candidates for interviewing.

As for the third question, tutors explained that their teaching methods provide both opportunities of practice and grammar scaffolding. In responding to question 4, tutors explained that they focus in the lessons on everyday vocabulary and use visual aids to prompt communication. They also confirmed that they pay particular attention to the accuracy of pronunciation as well as conformance to grammar rules.

In a further question on the adequacy of material, 20% of the tutors responded that the material are useful; 38% perceive that it needs customization to students’ needs and 42% consider the material as inadequate.
Discussion

Evidence from tutors’ responses confirms that there is an overemphasis in many integrative theories on the role of communicative functions and social behavior options in the selection of grammatical forms. There is also a lack of emphasis on the role of factors such as grammatical complexity and areas of similarity to the learner’s first language. The adopted communicative language teaching model in the context of the case study is primarily focused on the communicative functions of the language that are modeled from the native speaker’s context of use.

Grammar is targeted to support the correct application of the language in both integrationist and separate approaches in the classroom. In integrating grammar into learning tasks, language rules are highlighted as they emerge from the tasks, or in anticipation of what will be encountered in the lesson. It remains within the syllabus design realm to cater for grammar complexities or draw on similarity to the learner’s first language. In addition, Liao (2004) proposes that further difficulties encountered by the EFL tutor relate to the size of the classroom and the incompatibility of the grammar based tests.

Figure 6. Tutors’ views on the material

All tutors confirmed that there is some attention to grammatical usage within the adopted communication approach. The assumption that grammatical complexity should be considered in the process of specifying the grammatical forms and communicative functions can be related to an earlier assessment of learners’ needs. Areas of grammar, phonology, morphology might not be served well by an organization based on communicative functions alone. Johnson (1977, 1978) and Morrow (1978) have pointed out that it seems unlikely that a syllabus organized along communicative lines can be organized equally well along grammatical lines. The sequencing of grammatical forms should be informed mainly by theories of language (Chomsky 1965, Halliday 1973), language acquisition (Bates 1976; Bloom 1970; Krashen 1982), and psycholinguistic (Fodor, Bever and Garett, 1974; Slobin 1971). Those functions whose appropriateness conditions are more universal, or at least more similar to those that hold for the learner’s native language and culture, may be introduced before those functions that have more idiosyncratic appropriateness conditions.
Conclusion

In ELL contexts, learners do not have enough exposure to hypothesize and test language rules; hence the communicative approach may not work on its own. Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood and Son (2005) advocate that teachers integrate into communicative approaches additional features not normally mentioned in second language literature. Lam (2015, p.293) proposed that, “salient issues emerging from the analysis of literature include advocacy of an eclectic approach”.

Communicating in a foreign language needs to succeed in sustaining conversation at sociocultural and interpersonal levels. The foreign language application needs to be correct as well as compatible with the context of the interaction. It should involve authentic and not text book contrived language to serve as a model for the learner that can be used in future encounters. As such, the communicative approach that we envisage is an integrative one in which emphasis is on preparing foreign language learners to understand and apply aspects of linguistic as well as sociolinguistic competencies and to be able to draw on strategic competence in case of communication breakdown. In cases of limited opportunities of practice, the syllabus must provide models for potential linguistic and sociolinguistic exchanges to support learning the foreign language.

Following the findings of this case study, our view on a communicative competence model is that such model must incorporate a tripod construct with three essential competencies: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. At the most basic level, learners’ needs must be specified and targeted, with respect to grammatical competence, that is the levels of grammatical accuracy that are required in oral and written communication.

At the second level comes sociolinguistic competence and learning needs. Description of the communicative needs of a given group of foreign language learners is needed which would highlight both the factors particular to the learners and also the factors particular to the speech community in which the foreign language is used.

Lexical and stylistic considerations work at this level to aid successful communication in social setting. Foreign language learners need to acquire an adequate level of appropriateness for their communication in the foreign language as well as knowledge of the sociocultural rules bearing on appropriateness. Knowledge of what a native speaker is likely to say in a given context is an important component of foreign language learners’ competence.

The third level required for a successful communication is strategic competence. At this level, the compensatory communication strategies are to be used when there is a breakdown at one of the other levels. These compensatory strategies can be transferred from the first language epository of interactions and procedures.

With respect to syllabus organization, if a communicative approach to foreign language teaching is adopted, then principles of syllabus design must integrate aspects of both grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence. In relation to grammatical competence, Savington (1972) found that college students may not develop grammatical
accuracy in the course of their second language programme if emphasis is not put on this aspect from the start (1972, p. 60). As for sequencing skills in the syllabus, Davies (1978), following his review of a number of studies of adolescent and adult second language learners, suggests that receptive skills should be emphasized at the early stages of introduction classes but the production skills should not. In addition, ELL texts should be incorporated into foreign language classroom syllabus instead of wholesale transfer of texts from native contexts that may or may not be appropriate to the learner’s context. In addition, the explicit statement of grammatical rules, sociocultural rules, discourse rules and communication strategies, including verbal communication skills and non-verbal elements of communication like gestures and facial expressions, need to be incorporated into any successful foreign language teaching model.

From what has preceded, grammaring or the procedural knowledge of using grammar in context, needs to become an essential component of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and replace the declarative approach to grammar in EFL. Grammaring needs to be integrated in classroom communication, as a process that reflects the three major components of the tripod model of CLT.

Performance remains the evidence of competence; however appropriate language performance is essentially reflective of multiple layers of grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competencies. The tripod model of CLT incorporates correct linguistic application, appropriate sociolinguistic awareness and higher order strategic maneuverability.

About the Author:
Hayat Al-Khatib holds PhD from the University of London. Her professional background includes teaching at the University of London (Institute of Education) and (Goldsmith College), external examiner for PhD candidates at European and Lebanese universities, critical reader for the Open University Master level courses, teaching at the Arab Open University since 2003 and Head of the English Department at Arab Open University in Lebanon since 2005 to date.

References


Autonomous Space Exploration Online in a Writing SAC or OWL

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Abstract
Virtual spaces to help learn a language or write autonomously have become common and are only likely to increase. Multiple resources can be placed on a site easily accessible 24/7 and computer mediated communication in various forms can supply needed human interaction spaces. But how are these sites used by the local students? Following the path of several individuals in detail can allow more understanding and depth of the precise usage of space. This paper tracks two Arab students exploring and using a newly formed online self-access centre (SAC) for writing or online writing lab (OWL) for the best part of a semester. As an exploratory action research study, it was data driven and multiple data sources were mainly unobtrusive so that the study could proceed very naturally. The choices, learning style, autonomy types and personality differences between the two students suggest a range of support is ideal in an online SAC to cater for individuals in this context, including resources, how to learn, 1-1 asynchronous with advisor (emails), forums, electronic writing raters, and a high profile test. Ongoing action research should help to keep the online facility relevant to needs and open to new ways.

Keywords: autonomy, bottom-up development, L2 writing, online SAC/OWL, space to place

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Introduction
This study is a small part of a bigger study in an Arab English medium university in Qatar investigating using virtual spaces for out of class autonomous second language (L2) writing aid. A double action research cycle with 14 followed by a new 14 participants plus nine repeaters from cycle 1 revealed most participants (70%) used a combination of 1-1 asynchronous sessions and resources, followed by a much smaller number using just resources or just 1-1 asynchronous (Denekamp, 2016). As an ad-hoc facility continued use and retention was high with success shown by increased writing proficiency and autonomy. Such use and retention is not the norm with these facilities (Neilson, 2011). Students would have to consider this virtual space as a good personal learning place for this to happen. It is also consistently shown that learners need to have quite a high state of autonomy already, which generally only a minority of learners have, to use these centres successfully and autonomously (Benson, 2011). The autonomy of students in this study was therefore considered from the beginning and throughout the programme from a full repertoire of autonomy perspectives including technical, psychological, sociocultural, political, reactive and proactive (Benson, 2001; Little wood, 1999; Oxford, 2003). The priority use for 1-1 asynchronous advice sessions chosen by the participants was also unusual, especially the textual asynchronous mode (Darasawang & Reinders, 2010; Thompson, 2014). Advice sessions like this are called the deficient mode compared to face-to-face sessions in a physical writing centre (WC) or SAC (Hewett, 2015). Numbers and statistics can only show a portion of what is happening. Following two successful participants closely can increase our understanding of what was making the online SAC space a successful personal learning place for them. Hence, M1 and A6, two successful but different individuals were followed using diverse data supplied regarding them to find out in detail how they used the virtual space successfully.

Methodology
Action research allowed the author of the research to concentrate on understanding and improving the dynamics within the everyday life of a SAC by closely knitting action with research through exploring the uses made of the facility but also responding to the data as it emerged. Participating students were conceived in the roles of informants, whose documents, activities, perceptions, feelings, suggestions and evaluations were all forms of key data. The researcher was a direct data source as an insider-researcher with an important emic role as regards to gathering information. Multi-methods, including mixed methods, and triangulation were used to validate the research and to gain a wide, comprehensive understanding of the evolving situation.

The 14 different data sources included online synchronous chats, 1-1 asynchronous interactions, forums, student drafts, participation frequencies, resource and tool use, pre- and post-questionnaires and test essays, and the field notes of the advisor-researcher. All of these sources were unobtrusive or naturally part of the learning or writing processes except for the pre- and post-questionnaires and essay tests. Data sources were analyzed in various ways including combining and separating under case summaries and content analysis content.

Results
First student
M1, a Qatari sophomore who proved to be quite an extrovert, made high use of writing support via human interaction and community. She participated in asynchronous advisory 1-
1s with the advisor-researcher and tried the forums to get peer perspectives. In 1-1s, she sent chunks of text from two term papers, paragraph-by-paragraph, for feedback and discussion. She seemed able to self-manage her assignments to work in this consistent manner rather than a last-minute, desperate check. When she sent in draft chunks, she also frequently included questions regarding specific concerns. For example, she asked:

“**Is the highlighted sentence correct?? It seems that there is something wrong with it ?!!??**

The advisor’s comments to her could be quite metacognitive and metalinguistic. Her display of reflection stood out through her interactions via questions with metalinguistic and critical dialogue. Some examples include:

“**I read in my book about the tips of making a coherence essay, and putting similar starting phrases for the paragraphs was one of them?? Did I use this strategy in a good way??**

“**I read about proof reading, and I tried to fix some errors,***”

She did not just accept suggestions and directions, but rather queried or asked for more explanation for some.

She made higher and lower order errors. Though she was quite fossilized with some basic grammar and mechanical points, it was easy to code indirect feedback repetitively in order to awaken her to these lower order errors and afterwards expect her to correct many of them herself. She was motivated to learn to enhance her awareness to overcome her weaknesses. When comparing initial and post essay draft analysis over cycle 1, she moved from 15 errors per 100 words to three words per 100 words, showing good language development improvement over a semester. Defossilization had occurred to a satisfactory level where she could concentrate more wholly on content excellence.

She expressed that the SAC was very useful for developing her writing, especially the 1-1s with advisor, for which she conveyed gratitude many times. She strongly agreed in both pre- and post-metacognitive questionnaires that she needed a teacher to help with writing development. This could give the idea that she was depending on the advisor too much, but the advisor did not feel or experience that. Her sociocultural autonomy was not just reactive – growth was noticed over the cycle, where repetitiveness did not feature and proactivity was interlaced. She was able to use the asynchronous mode as a dialogue in which she was very reflective, exerting critical thinking, and the advisor found it very easy to promote autonomy in a natural progression with her.

Though she tried out peer forums three times, unfortunately her peers did not respond (yet quite a few read the posts). She was one of only three students who used these forums. Her only suggestion for improving the SAC was that students should participate more in forums.

She also sampled a range of electronic resources and tools on the site, but mostly in the first half of the 10 weeks when she had more time, rather than the last pressurized 5 weeks. Her resource exploration included specific topic and skill resource aid including essay, term paper and grammar help. Under grammar help, she interpreted the proof-reading resource wrongly, expecting it to have tools to check her work rather than information and
exercises to help her do her own self-editing. Later in the post evaluation however, she mentioned proofreading as a new strategy she had learned. One part of the site she revisited three times was the ‘how’ of self-learning, where autonomy fostering ways were outlined. She tried out an electronic paper-checking tool dubiously, expressing her distrust of such tools. Appreciation was shown when the advisor encouraged her to take a few hints at a time from this tool rather than being overwhelmed by all the problems it might identify.

Overall, she seemed to show a large degree of self-motivation and autonomy from a variety of perspectives (technical, psychological, sociocultural and pro-active). Her writing proficiency had increased in content sophistication and depth, organization, range of vocabulary and accuracy.

**Second student**

In contrast to socially interactive M1, the more introverted A6, a Palestinian student doing an intensive English course in order to get a place in an undergraduate programme, preferred the use of resources and tools. He did not chat or participate in forums himself, but spent much time lurking/checking over what others had contributed in forums, chats, assignment drafts and profiles. 1-1 asynchronous interactions with the advisor were used, but only near the beginning to affirm what to do. After receiving 1-1 feedback from his pre-test IELTS essay test, for which the advisor also complimented him and encouraged him to work on his grammar via the site, he shared:

“Thank you for your comments on my IELTS essay and I promise you I will solve my problem in grammar and vocab”.

This feedback seemingly spurred him to regularly use the resources and tools throughout the semester. He mostly concentrated on grammar (moving up the levels), and to a lesser extent vocabulary resources, despite the wide range of other resources. He did, however, visit eight times the special parts of the site focusing on the ‘how’ of self-learning. In the post-evaluation questionnaire he acknowledged working on the SAC was very useful and would be in the future too. He reported particularly useful:

“the tools such as the sites”

He strongly affirmed in both the pre- and post-metacognitive questionnaires that he did not need a teacher, verified by his constant use of resources and tools rather than 1-1s. The advisor-researcher offered him a synchronous advisory chat (a mode offered to half of the participants), which he did not take up. Comparison of his answers to the pre and post-metacognitive questionnaire showed he perceived he had increased his metacognitive abilities. He demonstrated a good degree of autonomous behaviour, but in an entirely different way than M1, seemingly contented to work from a technical and proactive perspective.

**Comparison by quantification**

Quantified content analysis from both students’ case summaries are represented in Figure 1 for nine themes that were identified as affecting writing and autonomy development success. It affirms variances between M1 and A6. One-hundred percent represents the total content of a case summary, with the quantification of themes done by NVivo (software for aiding
storage and analysis of qualitative data). Explicit content was coded as well as latent (inferred) content (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009), which meant the researcher used NVivo strictly as free node containers for manual coding. Manual coding counters the limitations of the decontextualization rendered by a computer programme, where underlying meanings and conceptual decisions are unable to be made yet (Denscombe, 2007). The majority of each case summary was covered by the final themes showing that they were well chosen or exhaustive (Gratton & Jones, 2003). The sum for themes theoretically could exceed 100% as content was often aligned to more than one theme due to much interrelatedness. Comparison between the students could be made as each one was analyzed the same way offering an objective, systematic, quantitative comparison to increase confirmation of other analyses (Franzosi, 2007). The analysis particularly confirms M1’s use of 1-1s advisory sessions for writing help and collaborative sociocultural autonomy versus A6’s silent independent autonomy.

Figure 1. Comparing the different frequency of success themes for participants M1 & A6

Discussion
Much was learnt following these two individuals and their use of the specific space afforded by the virtual writing SAC. Their exploits added to the information derived from the general trend of participants. The depth of qualitative data and each individual’s experience can not only increase understanding into how the site was being used, but also offer insight into how to cater for, rather than crush, the individual. Furthermore, by working on and learning from some of their outcomes and concerns, more individuals with all their idiosyncrasies may be catered for.

Individual respect
Individual regard is important for the very fact that humans are unique individuals with a unique combination of learning needs and ways of learning. This study shows that what Bowie
said concerning making up an online writing course applies also to online SAC and OWLs. He encourages teachers and designers to consider a “universe of users” rather than a universal L2 language user (cited in Miller-Cochran, 2015, p. 294). Perceiving individual needs and catering for them can actually be done to some measure more easily online. The perception of individuals occurs effortlessly because of the unobtrusive observation allowed by teachers and the automatic records given by the online platform. Catering for individuals is made simple because of the array of tools available online at a click and through the speedy adjustments and access possible.

**Bottom-up development**

Bottom-up development of a SAC is the way to provide a useful niche for a local student population, rather than complying to a standard model that has been generated in a domain where student wants and needs are different, as from a Western education system. An imposed standard model becomes a biased top-down development model. Figure 2 compares the models.

Management

Grass roots - students

**Figure 2.** Comparing development methods

Sloan (2013) encourages the awareness of true student-centredness where students’ wants and needs are known. However, he stops short of acting on them instead encouraging sharing and explanation by teachers/advisors to students as to why the standard way was better. Wilson (2012) is more student-centred and flexible, arguing for a bodega (local market) type WC to suit the backgrounds of local population. Changes are easier to implement in this kind of arrangement for as Wilson further identifies, standards can endorse a status quo whereas change is expected and thus implemented as the norm by “local bottom-up neighborhood cosmopolitanism” (para.6) development. It works as a heteroglossic, democratic, ecological system.

**Space as a personalized place**

This study goes further than a localized system though, endorsing a valuing of the local individual – an individual student-centredness and agency. The online space for the individual can then be a customized niche or personalized place for the individual.

Murray, Fujishima, and Uzuka (2014) relay the importance Japanese learners attach to having language interaction spaces in physical independent learning facilities to increase their language ability and autonomy. Such a use of space was definitely portrayed by M1 in her practice and full dialogical employment of 1-1 asynchronous sessions. This happened, despite being only textual and online without the additional aids of gestures and facial expressions. To her this mode was far from being deficient.
However, both A6 and M1 showed their customized choices and array of places in the overall virtual space stretching past just the social. The online SAC/OWL space for them was their own efficacious niche composed of a complexity of parts making it their place. As active agents in a learning-conducive environment they were able to exercise self-directed agency which sometimes consisted of reactive/assisted/compliant/social agency. Such an agency according to van Lier (2010) can promote “significant progress” in language learning, rather than just success, and enduring, lifelong learning “strides” (p. 5).

**Individual’s offerings to site**

There were special offerings each learner brought to the site that aided its improvement. Following M1’s highly successful use of the 1-1 asynchronous sessions in which she made them high dialogic rather than a default of teacher instruction, I was able to encourage others to adopt her chunk by chunk paragraph technique to promote this doable interaction.

Likewise, following A6 morphing the pre-IELTS essay test results into his autonomous language aims, others were similarly motivated with a little encouragement.

**Multi-dimensional autonomy**

Autonomy is a multi-dimensional capacity (Benson, 2001; Oxford, 2003) and was displayed as such in this study. Forms of technical, psychological, sociocultural, re-active, and pro-active autonomy were healthily displayed. Both students were interested in the psychological realm of metacognition, evidenced by their dipping into the learning-to-learn resources. As a free, open learning environment it could be said political autonomy was exercised too, where students were emancipated to make the environment work for them and suggest/flex changes. The voice of the individual learner is not stifled, but cherished and allowed to expand and flourish and lead the way.

**Future Foci**

Some uses of the space would suggest future foci when studying the online SAC/OWL environment. M1’s endeavors with forums and peer collaboration suggest an intervention is needed with this focus to bring it on board. A6’s regular lurking role suggests some creative ways could be used to exploit this activity also. Students learning from other students or just sharing via textual talking can all enhance writing proficiency, give the needed practice, and make learning a more enjoyable, social experience.

**Conclusion**

Following closely two individuals’ space exploration of an online SAC/OWL yielded rich findings beyond statistical trends. Support was utilized in the form of specific resources, how to learn strategies, 1-1 asynchronous with advisor (emails), forums, electronic writing raters, and results of a high profile test essay. However, deeper ramifications were also confirmed. Individual respect by perceiving and catering for individual needs is required, something easily carried out online. Bottom-up development from the students for decisions involving change in the online SAC/OWL make-up is more important than top-down development from the executive advisor. Bottom-up development captures true student centredness for a localized living system, meaning the facility will be considered a suitable niche for local students. Nevertheless, this does not mean every decision must have joint involvement from the majority of students because for the space to be a personalized place, local individual’s student-
centredness and agency must be valued. Each student will find his/her personalized place – their own efficacious niche conducive to their self-directed agency. Individual’s offerings to the site can stimulate the possibilities of others’ growth. Increase in students’ writing proficiency and autonomy as a multidimensional capacity verifies the online situation need not be a deficient mode but rather a very useful personalized choice for a support niche and facility. Ongoing action research will allow its relevancy to continue to evolve.

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References


Methodological Issues in Studying Cultural Dimensions with Special Reference to Educational Context

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Abstract
The aim of this review was to evaluate certain methodological issues related to the measurement of cultural dimensions and their effects with special reference to educational contexts. Using Google Scholar with the exact topics as search terms, 50 research reports were obtained. The results obtained from the critical analysis of the methodologies used in these reports are discussed in this review. Most studies were on power distance and individualism/collectivism dimensions of culture. A large number of conceptual frameworks and as many as 121 measurement instruments have been proposed by different workers. Research approach in any particular study is determined by the framework and the instrument chosen or self-developed instruments. Surveys and interviews are more commonly used. Not estimating internal consistency or reliability tests in some works makes it difficult to judge the validity of the method of data analysis. Generally the sample size is in the range of 200-500 participants in surveys. Small sample sizes used in a few works may affect the validity and applicability of their findings. It is concluded that large groups of scientists doing a common research programme across several countries is better than individual researches. Meta-analyses are also superior to individual researches. Such methods ensure validity and replicability of the findings. Although none of the research used scenario analysis, it is also a promising method.

Keywords: cultural dimensions, educational context, ESL, EFL, critical analysis, individualism, collectivism, GLOBE, PISA

Introduction

Many scholars and others have proposed methods of measuring the cultures of countries and regions. The initial motivation for this was provided by globalised firms relocating some of their operations to other countries. These firms had to overcome many hurdles in their operations mainly due to cultural differences between home and host countries. These problems were created by miscommunications due to language problems, wrong understanding of social and cultural practices and problems with political and regulatory systems. The cultural dimensions proposed by various authors have been discussed by Dadfar, Helander, Norberg, Schuster and Zufferey (2003) and House, Mansour, Hanges and Dorfman (2002). One research approach classifies country cultures as single dimensional or multi-dimensional. The second body of research incorporates various theories into a Global Leadership and Organizational Behavioral Effectiveness (GLOBE) programme, which gives annual estimates of national cultures. These estimates are aimed at business leadership. However, the most widely accepted and used concept is that of Hofstede (as cited in Hofstede, et al. (1990)) six cultural dimensions, viz. power distance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation and indulgence versus restraint. More research has been conducted on the first four topics. However, there had been some research works on other conceptual approaches also.

Depending upon the framework, the methods used for measurement of culture in its various dimensions differ depending upon the concept and the framework. All of them need not necessarily agree with Hofstede.

This review is aimed at evaluating some methodological issues related to the measurement of cultural dimensions and their effects with special emphasis on educational contexts.

Method of This Review

The literature search was done using Google Scholar as the search engine. The search term “Methods of measuring cultural dimensions” was used for collection of literature from the first five pages of the search engine and then another search selecting the year 2012 and beyond till the latest. This procedure facilitates selection of most of the old and new research works on the topic. Using this method, 50 research reports were collected and used in this review. The search term automatically filtered works not related directly to the topic. Those which describe the methodology in detail only were included in this review.

Results and Discussions

The results obtained by the critical analysis of the methodologies used in the selected works are discussed below.

General Methodological Issues

In his elaborate study, Denison (1984) uses comparative survey and ethnographic method to characterise organisational culture and relate it to performance. The survey consists of 125 items on 43747 participants from 6671 work groups of 34 companies. The study finds that participative culture and well-organised work environment lead to better performance.
The theory of basic human values as the fundamental part of all cultures is tested for greater validity across many cultures in the work of Schwartz, et al. (2001) replacing their earlier Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) with Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ). In his work, Schwartz (2006) proposes a theory of seven cultural value orientations. These form three cultural value dimensions. The cultural orientations are derived from a priori theorisation and are independent than orthogonal. The author uses data from 73 countries to validate his theories. These theories are alternative proposals to Hofstede’s cultural dimensions. SVS is used for the survey of 80 school teachers from 58 national groups. Also 115 college students from 64 national groups are surveyed. In another PVQ survey, 20 countries are split into 52 cultural groups with minimum 40 respondents. In another paper, Schwartz (2012) explains Schwartz’s theory of basic human values. The nature of values as well as common and distinguishing features of different values is discussed. According to the theory, there are ten basic values recognised across all cultures. Values form a circular structure reflecting motivations expressed by each value. This circular nature is universal in nature and captures compatibility and conflicts among them. After explaining the psychological principles of the theory, the two methods of measurement (the Schwartz Value Survey and the Portrait Values Questionnaire) are elaborated. The theory is validated by the results from 82 countries.

According to Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk and Gelfand (1995), vertical collectivism contains perception of self as a part of a collective and accepts inequalities within the collective. Inequality is perceived in vertical collectivism and in horizontal individualism and equality is perceived in horizontal collectivism and vertical individualism. The need to measure all the four to categorise individualistic and collectivist cultures is stressed and methods of measuring them by defining the constructs and items are given by the authors. These concepts and their use are different from those of Hofstede.

It should be noted that at least one of the authors of the above papers is a critic of Hofstede’s concepts. Hence, their results provide an altogether different perspective on culture. In his paper, Hofstede (1998) contradicts the tendency to identify organisational culture as manifestations of values and attitudes by imposing the sentiments of the researcher. He could not obtain any relationship between employee attitudes and values or organisational values.

In their review, Alesina and Giuliano (2015) note the existence of a two-way causal relationship between culture and institutions. More specifically, using secondary data from various sources, Holmes, Miller, Hitt and Salmador (2013) show that informal institutions (e.g. in the form of the cultural dimensions of group collectivism and future orientation (GLOBE dimensions)) influence the formal institutions of a country. In turn, the three formal institutions (political, economic and regulatory) affect the foreign direct investment levels of the country. The authors base their explanations on institutional theory.

Calori and Sarnin (1991) under taken elaborate field study with questionnaire survey on work-related values and management practices and economic performance data of five mature single business French firms pursuing differentiation strategies. Some cultural attributes and related management practices are positively correlated with organisational relative growth performance and some of these, and a few others are correlated with relative return on investment and relative return on sales. The relationship of cultural factors with profitability is not clear. The authors find it possible to operationalise organisational culture through values and management practices. Traditional human values, organisation’s relationship with environment
and customer orientation are important. Organisational culture has a greater impact on growth than profitability.

Scott, Mannion, Davies and Marshall (2003) list organisational culture measurement instruments proposed and used by different authors which can be used for health care sector. From these, they select some instruments which can be used in health care sector. The selected ones consist of three typological and 10 dimensional approaches.

Predictors for selection of UK managers for a cross-cultural training programme in Japan are evaluated using assessment centre exercises and interviews. Openness is a good predictor of their training performance. Cognitive ability is strongly related to language acquisition. A group discussion is used for measuring adaptation, communication, and teamwork. These also are significant predictors (Lievens, Harris, Van Keer, & Bisqueret, 2003). So far, this is the first work on measurement of cultural factors on individual attributes (not organisational or national culture) using methods other than surveys.

In an earlier paper, an introduction to the project GLOBE is given by House, Mansour, Hanges and Dorfman (2002). This programme covers culture and leadership aspects of 61 countries. Nine dimensions are used for measuring national cultures: performance orientation, future orientation, humane orientation, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, assertiveness, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, and gender egalitarianism. Some of these dimensions are based on Hofstede. Some others have items used by Hofstede. Thousands of middle managers working in various sectors are surveyed in these countries. Their attributes of culture and effective leadership are compared. Six global leadership attributes are identified from these. The authors give the objectives of GLOBE programme, first two phases have been completed. The third phase is in planning. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are used. The constructs, questionnaire items, examples of parallel items for all cultural scales, questions related to culturally-endorsed implicit leadership theory (CLT), a theoretical model of GLOBE and a list of the theoretical propositions are given. The basic theory is that the attributes and entities distinguishing one culture from another are predictive of organisational practices and attributes and behaviours of the leaders which are most frequently enacted, acceptable and effective in that culture. Though largely based on Hofstede concepts, the method of measurement contains a few modifications and additions to Hofstede concepts.

In most of his papers, Hofstede has not given the exact procedures of measuring the dimensions with survey items and sampling details, but only the findings. However, in Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders (1990) use 180 interviews (to get a feel of the culture of their organisations and collect ideas for items to be included in the questionnaire) followed by questionnaire survey consisting of 135 questions on 1295 participants from 20 units from 10 different organisations in Denmark and Netherlands. Of these, 22 questions assess work goals, 28 questions deal with general beliefs, seven questions are other value items generated from previous value items and based on interviews, 13 questions are on reasons for promotions and dismissals; there are four demographic questions and one open question. But in the results, the questions are classified into three value constructs and six practice constructs restricted to factor loadings over 0.6 only. Thus the original questionnaire, the original fully categorised set or a full set of revised categories are not available in the paper. The utility of the work for external validation is limited by this problem.
Each claim is based on the methodology developed by the authors. There is no study comparing the methodologies to verify these rival claims. In a review, comparing different approaches to measurement of cultural dimensions for international marketing, Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham (2007) endorse Hofstede’s dimensions. But they do not compare the different approaches in an empirical test.

Definitions, approaches, challenges and limitations found 121 identified quantitative measurement instruments of culture as reviewed by Taras, Rowney and Steel (2009). They also discuss the dimensionality of culture models, collection, and analysis of data for culture measurement, levels of culture measurement, issues related to cross-cultural survey equivalence and the reliability and validity of culture measures. The current approaches and challenges are discussed. The best practices are suggested on the basis of the reviewed aspects. In the end, the authors give a list of measures for each of the Hofstede’s six cultural dimensions, instruments containing the dimension (from the review) and percentage of the measure to the total of the respective instrument.

Based on a detailed meta-analytical review of the first four dimensions (individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity) 589 studies totalling over 200000 individuals (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010) conclude that-

1. At the individual level of analysis, the cultural values predict outcomes with similar strength (with an overall absolute weighted effect size of ρ=0.18).
2. For certain outcomes like job performance, absenteeism, and turnover, the predictive power of the cultural values is significantly lower than that of personality traits and demographics. But the predictive power is significantly higher for certain other outcomes like organizational commitment, identification, citizenship behaviour, team-related attitudes, and feedback seeking.
3. Most strong relationship of cultural values is observed for emotions, followed by attitudes, behaviours and job performance in that order.
4. Stronger relationship of cultural values is found in the case of managers compared to students, older, male and more educated individuals.
5. Stronger findings are obtained for primary, rather than secondary data.
6. According to the concept of Gelfand, Nishii and Raver's (2006-as cited by Taras et al 2010) of societal tightness-looseness, significantly stronger effects are found in the case of culturally tighter, rather than looser, countries.

Taras, Steel and Kirkman (2012) use a meta-analysis of 451 empirical studies covering more than 2000 samples from 49 countries and regions to refine Hofstede’s cultural dimension scores. The authors observe changes from Hofstede scores 1980 with respect to certain countries like Eastern Europe and South American countries. They were earlier reported as high power distance-collectivist countries. Now these have changed into lower scores power distance and higher scores individualism especially in 1990 and 2000. On the other hand, countries such as US, Canada, and Germany, have changed into lower individualism and higher on power distance. Different types of validity analyses have been done to check the validity of the method and the results obtained.

In a study on Hofstede, cultural dimensions of Russia, Naumov and Puffer (2000) use a 29-item questionnaire containing five dimensions of national culture (power distance, individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, paternalism, and masculinity-femininity)
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based on Hofstede. Paternalism is not among the six dimensions of Hofstede. The justification for inclusion of this item is inadequate. Survey responses of 250 Russians are used. The participants are from managers, professionals, students and faculty members of business schools. Responses for each item are converted to 100 –point scale to compare with the results of other studies. The authors do not give the actual survey instrument in this paper.

Fiske (2002) argues that small differences in scales or samples produce significantly divergent results. The author discusses the following limitations of research on individualism-collectivism. The concepts and methods treat nations as cultures and cultures as continuous variables. It inflates all types of social relationships and distinct autonomies. Contextual specificity in norms and values are ignored. It measures culture as individual preferences and behaviour. It rarely establishes external validity of the measures. It assumes no variance in self-reports, anchoring, and interpretation of scales. It reduces culture to an abstract verbal knowledge.

An individual-based inventory to assess individualism versus collectivism for four social relationships, Individualism-Collectivism Interpersonal Assessment Inventory (ICIAI) was developed and its validity and reliability were established by Matsumoto, Weissman, Preston, Brown and Kupperbusch (1997) using five studies and its utility using a sixth study. In this study, although the survey is used, it is used for measurement of individual attributes rather than organisational culture.

From the above discussions, it is clear that questionnaire survey method and interviews are the main methods used for measuring cultural dimensions. As many as 121 cultures measuring instruments have been used by various authors. Use of any of them or any new instrument in future research depends on the research context.

One such context is the educational context. Within this context, various learning environments exist. Some of these are English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL), in the classroom and out of the classroom (distance, SDL, e-learning, mobile or m-learning). Methodological issues related to various learning environments are discussed below.

Methodological Issues in Educational Context General

From a survey on 103 Introduction to Human Development class US university students, VonDras (2005) obtains the relationship of individualism-collectivism with learning barriers and self-efficacy of performance ratings. Although there is cultural mix among the students, about 85% of the participants are Caucasians. This might tilt the mean response towards their cultural characteristics of individualism-collectivism. The authors do not estimate correlations between the ethnic groups and their individualism-collectivism ratings. So, this effect is unknown. The sample size is too low for the validity of the findings.

Dekker and Fischer (2008) use the theory of societal level value structure proposed by Schwartz (2006) as the framework, for a meta-analysis of cultural dimensions of academic motivation goals. The terms autonomous and embedded societies can be equated to individualistic and collectivist societies of Hofstede. From the literature search, a net sample size of 36985 students from 13 societies is obtained. Mastery goals are higher in egalitarian (individualistic) societies. Performance approach goals are higher in embedded (collectivist)
societies. Meta-analytical studies appear to be more useful than limited researches with respect to the strength of evidence.

In a master thesis, Heijkant, Jørgensen, Printzipa and Lagas (2007) study the individual beliefs of students on Power Distance (PD) and their perception about their teachers. The work is done in a US school and a Hungarian school. Individual beliefs are stressed. Data is collected using a Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) and a Power Distance Questionnaire (PDQ). The PDQ is constructed for the specific purpose of this study, and its reliability is tested. The results do not show any relationship between individual students’ beliefs about PD and how they perceived their teachers.

The theoretical model used by Badri, Amani-Saribaglou, Ahrari, Jahadi and Mahmoudi (2014) in their studies on the effect of cultural dimensions on school culture, motivation and academic achievement of students is based on self-determination theory. The population consisted of 1852 students (924 male and 928 female) from 14 boys’ and eight girls’ schools of Azerbaijan province in The North-west of Iran. Out of this cohort, 296 (159 female and 137 male) participate in the survey. To measure the cultural dimensions, a questionnaire from Sadeghi et al. (2013) is used with suitable modifications to adapt it from a teacher perspective to a student perspective. Femininity, uncertainty avoidance collectivism, and PD are measured using four items each. No data is given on presence of any international students in the sample. If there is a cultural variation among students, it is not reflected in the data or analysis.

Hagedorn and VenyPurnamasari (2012) add five of Hofstede cultural dimensions - PD, individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity and short term/long term orientation to the PISA data on performance in math, science, and reading. The purpose is to evaluate the effect of cultural differences on academic performance independently or collectively across national cultures. PISA questions also include background and demographics. The 2009 PISA test is related to reading literacy. As they use ready data from PISA scores and Hofstede’s publications, there is not much to comment on methodology. They use correlation and regression analyses as would be expected.

In the work of Li and Guo (2012), one novel idea is the comparison of PD between English and non-English teachers using the students’ perceptions of their teachers. The PD values of the Chinese staff who teach English courses may be lower due to their exposure to Western culture through the English language. The results validate this assumption. They adapt Hofstede’s dimension in a questionnaire suitable to their context. In their questionnaire, PD has 14 items covering five aspects of student’s perceptions of the teachers. This procedure of using students to evaluate the teacher’s PD might have doubtful validity. The survey is supplemented with observational studies on 26 teachers (14 English and 12 non-English) when they were conducting their classes.

In the study of Yoo (2014), the focus is only on PD in a high PD collectivist Confucian environment: Korean EFL students are taught by a teacher from a low PD individualistic country. This context is a typical setting that can be observed in many EFL or ESL programmes in developing and developed countries. The author herself is the teacher in this study. She is of Korean ethnicity, born and brought up in the low PD individualistic culture of Canada. The paper narrates her teaching experiences with respect to how she adapted and made changes in teaching methods to make EFL more effective. From this point of view, it is not a research paper.
The note prepared by Govea (2007) for an open distance learning programme contains some methodological elements. The two research questions regarding the effect of PD on student-teacher relationships and the consequential effect of these on teaching methodology are considered. The article is a narrative of the problems he encountered when teaching English to Japanese students and solutions he found for them.

The findings of Mahmud (2015) on the power of the students to ask questions in the classroom are discussed above. The author uses 70 undergraduate students of an Indonesian university. The students are given topics for discussions in the class, and their questions are recorded. The 70 students are divided into 12 groups, and each group made a presentation in the class. The students ask questions at the end of each presentation. After these procedures are completed, they respond to an open-ended questionnaire on the types of questions asked by them in each presentation and their perspectives on their questioning powers. The students exhibit the typical behaviour of high PD culture. They are hesitant, afraid, or not confident to ask questions in the classroom. The inequality and respect for, as well as fear of the teacher, are evident.

In their work, Cetin and Dogan (2014) aim at finding the relationship between the professional experience of teachers and the perceptions of the students on their relationship. The influence of these perceptions on the course and the teacher are also studied. The authors present the MTB model of Wubbels and Levy (1993). The study is carried out at four high schools at Ankara, Turkey. The samples consist of 14 EFL teachers and 436 students taught by these teachers. Each teacher administers the Turkish version (developed by Telli, 2006) of a Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) developed by Wubbels and Levy (1991) in the class. Its reliability and validity have been proven by many workers. The authors use regression and factor analysis of the data. The study demonstrates the usefulness of QTI in single country contexts.

The work of Winch (2015) provides good methodological details. Learning Japanese in a UK University provides an example of foreign language learning in a single country context. The only other variable is the type of students: whether the students belong to a similar PD levels or varying PD levels. The latter could be true if students of different nationalities studied in the class.

**Online, Distance, Virtual Classroom Learning**

Koh and Lim (2007) theorise that PD moderated the relationship between educational technology and learning outcomes. The moderating effect is greater in low PD situations compared to high PD situations. The increasing use of educational technology is reflected in universities opening overseas campuses to expand into international markets and the use of the internet and other IT technologies in student-collaborated teaching. In their study, the use of educational technology improves student performances. As the PD was high, they hesitate to seek help from instructors when in difficulty but seek help from peers, especially from those closer to their culture and linguistic background. Some of the problems observed in the participants are related to: absence of a face-to-face instructor to clarify doubts, fear of being misunderstood (due to wrong expression) when messages were sent to instructors to clarify doubts, reluctance to express opinion fearing that their posting would become permanent records and mistakes would be laughed at, and the tendency to stay away from debates or stick to more acceptable answers when controversies arose in discussions. Student learning outcomes may be improved by greater use of technology.
Methodological Issues in Studying Cultural Dimensions

Liu, Liu, Lee and Magjuka (2010), conducted a case study on perceptions of international students of an online MBA programme at a US university. The cultural differences among the online students do not affect their online experiences. Issues like language, use of communication tools, plagiarism, lack of diversity in cases, time zone differences need to be addressed. Instructors should be responsive to the needs of international students. There is a need to support these observations through more extensive survey research.

Employing diversity of course design to address the culturally inclusive learning environments has been suggested. Djojosaputro, Nguyen and Peszynski (2005), note from a case study of two fully online subjects that students with high PD and collectivism as their cultural background have difficulties with online courses. This difficulty is explained because most of the online courses would be more suitable for low PD and individualistic cultures. Thus, the needs of students from diverse cultures should be addressed. This finding points to a serious problem of several similar studies, in which course design was not considered when evaluating the effect of online learning.

The influence of Confucian heritage on Chinese students in an online context was investigated by Zhang (2013). Twelve students from the Confucian-heritage countries of mainland China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan are in a study done at a research university in the USA. The author finds that online learning resulted in their improved engagement with their classroom discussions. However, it increases their anxiety during participation. The sample sizes are quite low to validate the conclusions.

Sample participants of 524 students of information science course are surveyed and data are collected by Hornik and Tupchiy (2006) to investigate the effects of horizontal/vertical individualism/collectivism on the horizontal collectivism on the effects of online learning. Too many hypotheses are tested to get simple results, although most of the hypotheses are verified. Horizontal individualism is the only variable which negatively affects actual learning. When this overall effect is observed, the verification of other hypotheses and therefore the model are only of academic interest.

The role of collaborative learning as a method for knowledge sharing has been well-recognised. The nature of such collaborative learning can differ in virtual classrooms. The interactions between students required for this can well be affected by cultural dimensions. The extent to which cultural dimensions influence collaborative learning for knowledge sharing in a virtual classroom setting is studied by Thongprasert and Cross (2008). The sample for a quantitative questionnaire survey consists of 100 students each of Thai students in Thai universities and 100 Thai students in Australian universities. All use ICT for sharing knowledge in their virtual classroom. According to Hofstede’s classification, Thailand has high PD, high collectivism, and high uncertainty avoidance. Australia has low levels of all these and collectivism replaced by a high level of individualism. Therefore, Thai students in Thailand should have greater difficulty in knowledge sharing than Thai students in Australia. It is found that to improve knowledge sharing in Thailand, collectivism needs to be increased, and power distance needs to be reduced. Only these two cultural dimensions explain 23.4% of the variation in knowledge sharing. In the case of Thai students in Australia, 57.2% of the variation in knowledge sharing is explained by PD, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism. Most of the Thai students complete only 1-2 years of Australian residence and hence do not adapt well to the
Australian situation. The low sample size and the low level of percentage variations in the dependent variables explained by independent variables is a serious problem here.

**Blended Learning**

The impact of culture and learning style on the success of blended learning in the case of employees training in international organisations studied by Renner, Laumer and Weitzel (2015). The authors define a corporate blended learning environment as a learning environment in which traditional, online and media methods are combined and supported by IT especially for learning management systems. The blend is intended to mitigate weaknesses found in any of the component methods. The authors also define learning style as the learner preferences for any one or more of instructional or other learning methods. The authors use the VARK model of Fleming (2001-as cited by the authors). The VARK model consists of four sensory mode preferences of learning styles: Visual (V), Aural (A), Read/Write (R) and Kinaesthetic (K). Learners can prefer one or more of any of the four modes, thus making several combinations of styles possible. The authors propose hypotheses concerning the effects of learning styles and national cultures. Especially, their hypothesis on PD is that blended learning styles would be more successful in high PD-collectivist cultures than in low PD-individualistic cultures in a strong instructor-centred blended learning environment. The authors test these hypotheses on samples of employees working for an international company in the medical sector. The target group of employees has a continuous need for training and updating their skills in training customers on the product portfolio of the firm. As these employees have different cultural backgrounds and work in various countries of different cultures, their learning styles and experiences can be different. There are 81 respondents to the survey. The authors group the respondents into cultural clusters based on their nationality, as per Hofstede’s cultural classification. Clusters 1 and 2 are mainly Western countries with low PD and high individualism. Cluster 3 contains some European countries classified as high PD/individualistic cultures. Cluster 4 includes some Arab and other countries. Cluster 5 has Asian countries. Clusters 4 and 5 are high PD/collectivist cultures. Results reject the hypothesis that success of blended learning depends on different learning styles. Other hypotheses linking national cultures with learning styles are validated.

In another approach to increase the participative learning of 1000 Chinese students in a blended learning environment (250 campus and 750 online students), Shen, Wang and Pan (2008) note that merely providing recorded lectures to online students will only increase the negative effects of passive learning. A cutting-edge mobile learning system is developed for blended learning and tested on the above sample of students. The system broadcasts live lectures in real time. The students can customise content reception and download course materials. They can interact in real time through SMS and instant polls. In the mobile learning (M-learning) system, the teacher can ask questions during live sessions which can be answered by SMS. The results of this pilot study are encouraging as they translate to better learning outcomes for students.

**ESL, EFL, L2 Context**

Observing that PD can cause misunderstanding in ESL classrooms, Nelson (2000) discusses how the ESL classes in low and high PD cultures can be handled effectively. After reviewing works on how PD influences in learning the English language in Thai contexts, Tananuraksakul (2013) proposes that reducing PD between teachers and students can produce a positive learning environment for English learning and speaking skills. The author uses reinforcement by calling them by nicknames and offering praise in different ways for their every attempt to improve
speaking skills. To some extent, PD reduction and reinforcement strategies induces positive attitudes among students towards teaching and learning English. It also improves their perceptions and beliefs about their English accent. In this study, there is no attempt to quantify the relation between PD and any metrics associated with student learning outcomes.

The relationship between perceived school culture, basic psychological needs, intrinsic motivation and academic achievement is studied by Badri, Amani-Saribaglou, Ahrari, Jahadi and Mahmoudi (2014) using a causal model based on an Iranian sample. Path analysis shows that basic psychological needs and intrinsic motivation have a positive effect on academic achievement. PD and uncertainty avoidance negatively affect basic psychological needs, but femininity influences psychological needs positively. As a fulfilment of basic psychological needs is positively related to academic performance, PD can be regarded as negatively related to academic performance. There is no significant effect of collectivism.

Using a questionnaire survey administered by 14 high school EFL teachers on their 436 students in Turkey, Cetin and Dogan (2014) note that students perceive experienced teachers as more cooperative than fresh teachers. The influence of behaviours by old and new teachers does not differ significantly. The way the students perceived their teachers influences their attitude towards the course and the teacher. It is interesting to note that in a high PD country like Turkey, the EFL teachers assess their style to be a low PD one. The opinions of students are not collected in this study to have insights from the students.

In a report on the teaching methodology in a high PD Korean context, after pointing out the characteristics of learning and teaching in high PD contexts in general, Jambor (2005) recommends that ESL teachers try to understand Korean culture and adapt methodology accordingly. The possibility of reducing power distance through suitable methods and reinforcement are not considered. South Korea is a collectivist society with high PD and is high on Confucian influence. The Canadian author uses his ESL teaching experience in a Korean classroom setting. Korea is collectivist due to the long influence of Confucian philosophy. Although students do collective projects, there is a little L2 dialogue among them. A grammar translation method is followed in traditional language classes, but not followed in L2 teaching. Implementing the L2 system is difficult in classrooms familiar only with traditional methods. Interactions among students suffer most due to this drawback.

Experiences of an English Language Teacher (ELT) in Japan in terms of PD are reported in Hadley (2001). One of the major problems is the existence of hierarchical relationships among students. Low PD teaching methods cannot be copied into the high PD classes straight away as other cultural barriers are also present. A strictly stereotyped situation is non-existent. Global influences cause the shift in Japanese educational culture from a high PD type towards lower PD culture. This process results in the presence of elements of both cultures in classrooms. The susceptibility of Japanese classrooms to influences of low PD is higher compared to some other high PD Asian countries. On the other hand, the influence of high PD of native teachers, teaching methods and materials acts as bottlenecks. The author discusses the current tilt towards low PD structure in ELT classrooms with literature support. The author herself adapts her low PD practices to the high PD practices of Japan. She adopts her role as an unthreatening, approachable and authoritative teacher. The participation point system is used to encourage students to interact freely, which is counted for grades. This tactic gives an extrinsic motivation other than the teacher’s recognition. Question-answer sessions are set as games to encourage the participation of shy and weak students. Attention to hidden needs and increasing wait times to
get answers are used for encouraging quiet, slow or unresponsive students. Adjusting the grading system and increased approachability for weak students after classes are done to deal with very low-level students. Informal feedback through free expression in their native language helps to refine these methods from time to time.

In China, PD is lower for English college teachers compared to non-English college teachers. The aim of one study by Li & Gou (2012) is to test whether there are differences in PD between the English and non-English teachers based on their different academic majors. Sometimes, the PD of EFL teachers can be lower than the PD of teachers in general. There is no study which provides more information about this and this can be the subject of further research.

In another study on the interaction between students from a collectivist country, South Korea, and an EFL teacher from an individualistic culture, Yoo (2014) notes that reflective teaching and a flexible approach with respect to the context is the best method. Here, the author narrates her sole experience of EFL teaching in the two different cultural contexts, and the authors’ conclusions are based on their first-hand experiences. This study also lacks any attempt to quantify the relationship between a PD approach and EFL student learning outcomes.

**Student-Teacher Relationships and Communications**

Lagas, Heijkant, Printzpa and Jørgensen (2007) conduct a study to measure the relationship between students’ individual beliefs on power distance and their perception of teachers by sampling students from schools in the US and Hungary. They find that there is no relationship between individual student beliefs about PD and their perception of teachers. This could mean that students (especially the ones without any international exposure) may be unaware of PD as an influencing factor in their classrooms. They might not have given much thought to the high PD styles used by their teachers as it must be the only approach they have ever seen.

Based on the results of a survey on 1900 Indonesian school students of maths and English, and 55 teachers, Maulanaa, Opdenakker, den Brok and Bosker (2011) report a positive inter-personal relationship of students with their teachers in line with the high PD and collective culture of Indonesia. Conflicts between teachers and students do occur sometimes due to the unequal power relations between them. However, the ultimate control is with teachers due to high PD. Teacher-centred rather than the participative teaching of maths and English also indicates the same cultural pattern. The influence is more dominant than proximity with respect to student motivation. However, the relatively higher rating for drudgery and repression is indicative some problems in some Indonesian classrooms.

Bjørge (2007) observes that Email communications tend to be more formalised when students from high PD send emails to their teachers. This implies that the high PD culture of the country and classrooms is also reflected in the use of technology by the stakeholders.

In a study on apprehensions of Chinese college students on classroom communications, Zhang (2005) obtains significant positive correlations for student-level PD and student perceptions of tutor humour orientation with classroom communication apprehension. However, multiple regression analysis shows student level PD as the only predictor of classroom communication apprehension. Perceived tutor verbal and non-verbal immediacy has no effect. This implies that any changes in the PD between student and teacher have the potential to bring about a change in classroom communication apprehension. This can possibly lead to better student learning outcomes.
Conclusions

This review indicates many methodological problems with the research works on cultural dimensions in general and in an educational context in particular. Most studies have been on power distance and individualism/collectivism even in educational contexts.

There are a large number of conceptual frameworks and as many as 121 measurement instruments proposed by different authors. The research approaches vary depending on which framework is used for selecting the variables and method of study. Generally, the tendency is to use survey and/or interview methods. In many works, internal consistency or reliability tests have not been done. This raises doubts on their validity. If a parametric distribution has been wrongly assumed, the methods of data analysis could also be wrong.

In surveys, the general tendency is to use about 200-500 participants. In some works, low sample sizes are used. This may affect the validity of the findings. Although resource and time limitations are possible constraints, cross-validation by similar studies by other workers are very limited. Thus, the replicability of the findings is in doubt. In some research works, large groups of scientists across different countries collaborate on a common research programme. Two excellent examples are the GLOBE and the PISA programmes. This should be the norm for such studies in future. Course design is an important aspect when online learning is researched in high PD cultures. Scenario analysis, not used in any reviewed work, may also be a good methodological option.

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Methodological Issues in Studying Cultural Dimensions


Methodological Issues in Studying Cultural Dimensions

Alshahrani


An Exploratory Study on the Relationship between Demotivation and Academic Fields among Chinese EFL Learners

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Abstract:
The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between demotivation and academic fields among Chinese EFL learners. To this end, a 33-item self-made questionnaire was administered to 128 Chinese tertiary EFL students. The collected data were processed by means of both descriptive and inferential analysis. The results identified eight salient demotivators: Teaching Contents and Teaching Process, Teacher-related Factors, Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities, Deficient English Learning Abilities, Lack of Intrinsic Interest, Undesired Influences of Important Others, Textbooks and Teaching Materials, and Lack of Effective Learning Strategies. The Independent T-test results showed that English majors were significantly different from the students of International Trade in the following four demotivators: Teacher-related Factors, Teaching Environment and Teaching Facilities, Lack of Intrinsic Interest, and Undesired Influences of Important Others. The findings of this study would be implicative for helping English teachers reduce the negative effect of demotivation in college English class in China and beyond.

Key Words: Academic fields, Chinese EFL learners, demotivation, relationship

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1 Introduction
As a newly emerged construct, demotivation has been one of the foci in second language acquisition in the past two decades. Previous research mainly centers on the identification of demotivation and demotivators among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners (e.g., Li & Zhou, 2017). These studies have justified the existence of demotivation to learn a second language (L2) and revealed the multiple sources of demotivators (Li, 2014a). The multiple sources are found to be situational and context-specific. However, previous studies mainly focus on the description of demotivators. Little is known about the relationships between demotivation and other factors at contextual, social, and learner levels. To bridge this gap, this exploratory study aims to investigate the relationship between demotivation and academic fields among Chinese EFL learners. To be specific, this study will examine the differences in demotivation to learn English between Chinese tertiary students of English and International Trade. The findings will provide implications for English teachers to reduce the detrimental effect of demotivation in English class and for English language teaching in China and other contexts with similar backgrounds.

2 Literature Review
2.1 Definition of Demotivation
Demotivation to learn a foreign language is first defined as “specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action” (Dornyei, 2001, p. 143). This definition takes demotivation as the negative counterparts of motivation. While motivation shall increase the tendency of an action, demotivation would decrease it. A demotivated learner is thus the one who was initially motivated to pursue a goal or to engage in an activity in second language learning but now has become disinterested in doing so because of detrimental influences of certain external factors. This view holds that demotivation is first triggered by external factors and that demotivation is a subsequent action after motivation.

Dornyei’s (2001) endeavor to define demotivation has been influential in the research of L2 demotivation. His definition indicates that demotivation starts mainly from external triggers that reduce motivation. However, this definition for L2 demotivation seems to be problematic in legitimating the role of internal forces. While claiming the external factors as the sole sources of demotivation, Dornyei lists reduced self-confidence and negative attitude toward the activity of learning a second language as sources of demotivation. Recent studies have revealed that external forces are not the sole source in engendering demotivation. Instead, both external and internal factors are found to work together to contribute to the formation of demotivation in second language learning process (e.g. Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Li, 2013). Based on the discussion above, the present study therefore proposes to expand demotivation as a construct covering not only external but also internal factors that reduce or diminish the learning motivation.

2.2 Research on Demotivation
Demotivation is later studied in relation to second/foreign language classroom. Oxford (1998) identifies four demotivators in foreign language learning: undesired student-teacher relationship, teachers’ negative attitude towards the L2 class, mismatch between teaching style and students’ learning style and unreasonably designed classroom activities. These studies are the pioneering effort in examining classroom demotivation. However, their foci are centered on teacher-related factors.

Different from previous studies which examined demotivation mainly from the perspective of teachers, Dornyei (2001) pays attention to the perceptions of those students who had been identified to be demotivated. He summaries nine factors that might have caused demotivation in foreign language learning process: teacher-related factors, inadequate teaching facilities, reduced self-confidence, negative attitude towards learning the target language, second language as a compulsory course, interference of learning another foreign language, negative attitude towards learning target language countries, attitude toward peers around, learning materials. These nine factors present a holistic picture of demotivation from the demotivated students’ perspective. However, it seems to take demotivation as a phenomenon that is only observed on demotivated students. It is unknown whether motivated students experience demotivation or not.


2.3 Research on Demotivation and Academic Fields
Recent studies have gradually shifted from the identification of demotivators among EFL learners to the explanation of the generation mechanism of this construct in the past decade. Efforts have been made to explain the formation of demotivation in association with achievement (Li & Wang, 2016), language proficiency (Hu, 2011; Najafi & Behjat, 2013), mastery goal orientation (Jahedizadeh, Ghanizadeh & Ghonsooly, 2016), gender (Lee & Lee, 2011), education level (Kaivanpanah & Ghasemi, 2011), and other learner variables (Gao & Zhang, 2016).

Among these learner variables, academic fields are considered to be a vital factor in explaining the relationship with demotivation (Alavinia & Sehat, 2012; Aliakbari &
Hemmatizad, 2015; Gao, 2014; Gao & Zhang, 2016). In their examination over the relationship between demotivation and academic majors, Alavinia & Sehat (2012) find no significant differences in the overall demotivation between different majors. However, they do find significant differences in the effect of teacher’s personality and behavior as well as the learners’ experience of failure between different majors. Aliakbari & Hemmatizad (2015) find a statistically significant difference in such demotivators as learning contents and materials, test scores, and lack of intrinsic motivation factors among different academic majors of Iranian students. Gao (2014) finds significant differences in such demotivators as lack of intrinsic interest and inadequate language learning abilities between Chinese university English majors and non-English majors. Gao & Zhang (2016) find no significant differences in demotivation between Chinese EFL learners of sciences and liberal arts.

The above review of literature reveals a dearth of research on L2 demotivation among Chinese EFL learners. It has also been apparent that current research has yielded inconsistent results in the relationship between different academic fields and demotivation. Further research is thus necessary. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the potential relationship between demotivation and academic fields among Chinese EFL Learners.

3 Research Design
3.1 Research Questions
This study aims to investigate Chinese university students’ demotivation to learn English and its relationship with academic fields. Specifically, it addresses the following two questions:
1) What are the demotivators to learn English among Chinese university EFL learners?
2) Are there any significant differences in demotivation among the participants of different majors?

3.2 Demographical Information of the Participants
The participants for this study were 128 university students from a local technological university in central China. Of the 128 students, there were 18 boys and 110 girls; 55 English majors and 73 students in International Trade; 27 students in Grade 1, 33 in Grade 2, 38 in Grade 3, and 30 in Grade 4. The participants are averagely 20.57 years old. The oldest is 24 years old while the youngest is 18 years old. They have been averagely learning English for 10.16 years. The student’s longest length of time spent learning English is about 14 years, while the shortest is five years.

3.3 Instrument
The instrument for this study is a self-designed questionnaire. It was designed according to some previous research (i.e., Li, 2013; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Zhou & Wang, 2012). It consisted of two sections: the first section was concerned with the students’ personal information, including their major, grade, age, and gender. The second section was made up of forty-four 5-point Likert scale items about English learning demotivation, with the answers ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Items with higher scores indicated higher possibility to cause students’ English learning demotivation. The reliability of the questionnaire is determined by means of Cronbach alpha. The Cronbach alpha test shows that the reliability coefficient of the questionnaire is 0.920, which means this questionnaire has high reliability.

The questionnaires were designed in Chinese for the purpose of making it easier for the students to understand and to answer. Besides, a brief introduction was presented at the
beginning so as to help the students to understand the purpose of the questionnaires and to avoid incomplete answers. Instructions were also announced orally by the teachers who distributed and collected the questionnaires to ensure the validity of the data.

3.4 Data Collection and Analysis

A number of 160 copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the participants. The participants were asked to reflect on their past experiences when providing responses. Moreover, they were instructed that the survey was for research purposes only, and that the information they gave would not affect their final scores of the course. The participants were allowed 30 minutes to complete the questionnaires. Finally, 156 copies were collected but 28 of them were found invalid because of blank or incomplete questionnaires. Therefore, there were 128 valid copies of the questionnaires.

All the collected questionnaires were numbered and processed by means of the Statistics Package for the Social Sciences 20.0 (SPSS 20.0). To answer Research Question 1, factor analysis was first performed to identify the demotivational patterns of the participants. In order to answer Research Questions 2 which examines the differences in demotivation between students in different majors, Independent T-test was performed with an alpha level set at 0.05.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Demotivators to Learn English among the Participants

The participants’ responses to the questionnaire were first subjected to an exploratory factor analysis for the purpose of answering the first research question which inquires the demotivation features of the participants. The KMO value .821 (close to 1.0) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity .000 (<0.05) showed that there were significant correlations among the variables in the questionnaire (Table 1). Therefore, it can be concluded that there were common factors and the questionnaire data were suitable for factor analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 KMO and Bartlett’s Test</th>
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<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</td>
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<td>Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity</td>
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<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
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The items whose factor loadings and communalities are lower than .400 were deleted in the factor analysis. The factor analysis with varimax rotation produced 5 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Table 2). According to Table 2, the eigenvalues for all the eight factors were above 1.000. The cumulative variance of these eight factors was 64.640%, which can interpret very well all the variances in Table 3, suggesting a high construct validity of the questionnaire.

<table>
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<th>Table 2 The Eight Factors Generated by the Exploratory Factor Analysis</th>
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<td>Factor</td>
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An examination over the eight extracted factors reveals that they fall into two broad categories: the internal factors (Factor 4, 5, and 8) and the external factors (Factor 1, 2, 3, 6, and 7).

Table 3 displays the labels assigned to the five extracted external factors, the actual items each factor subsumed, the corresponding loadings. Factor 1 includes six variables involving the overnumbered vocabulary, grammar, and sentences (Item 22), the exam-oriented class (Item 24), the translation-featured class (Item 23), uninteresting assignment (Item 26), passive learning (Item 27), and the too many learning materials (Item 21). These items are related to the teaching process and contents. Therefore, this factor is terms as Teaching Contents and Teaching Process.

Factor 2 has six variables pertaining to teacher immediacy (Item 13), teachers’ preferences for well-achieved students (Item 12), teacher personality (Item 14), teacher competence (Item 15), teaching style (Item 17), and teacher criticism (Item 18). These variables refer to the negative influence of teacher-related factors on L2 demotivation, such as teacher personality, teaching competence, and teaching style. This factor is thus named Teacher-related Factors.

Factor 3 compasses four variables related to the overcrowded classroom (Item 29), the underequipped classroom facilities (Item 30), poor conditioned projectors (Item 28), and little availability of access to multimedia resources (Item 31). These four items are about the detrimental effect of inadequate classroom learning conditions and facilities on L2 demotivation. Therefore, this factor is defined as Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities.

Factor 6 includes four variables referring to undesired relationship with peers (Item 33), peer bully of one’s poor English (Item 34), families’ overemphasis of the value of English (Item 42), and teachers’ repeated reminds of the importance of English (Item 43). These items are about the negative influence of important people on L2 demotivation. This factor is thus termed Undesired Influences of Important Others.

Factor 7 has three variables covering the monotonous after-text exercises (Item 9), unauthentic languages in the textbooks (Item 20), and the less interesting topics of the texts (Item 10). This factor is therefore named Textbooks and Teaching Materials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3 Rotated Factor Loadings of the External Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An examination over the eight extracted factors reveals that they fall into two broad categories: the internal factors (Factor 4, 5, and 8) and the external factors (Factor 1, 2, 3, 6, and 7).
### An Exploratory Study on the Relationship between Demotivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Translation-featured class is boring</th>
<th>Assignments are of no interest</th>
<th>I do not like the teacher-dominated English class</th>
<th>Too many reference books in class</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.690</td>
<td>2.757</td>
<td>1.0019</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>2.835 .10331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Factor 2 Teacher-related Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English teacher is not easy going</th>
<th>English teacher prefers the well achieved students</th>
<th>English teacher is easy to lose temper</th>
<th>English teacher is unable to explain language points</th>
<th>English teacher’s teaching methods fail to attract us</th>
<th>English teacher criticizes us when we do not do well</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.744</td>
<td>2.476</td>
<td>.99578</td>
<td>.645</td>
<td>.632</td>
<td>.602</td>
<td>.96056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Factor 3 Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English class is overcrowded</th>
<th>Classroom facilities are poor equipped</th>
<th>multimedia conditions are not well functioning</th>
<th>little use of multimedia resources in class</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.824</td>
<td>2.656</td>
<td>1.0381</td>
<td>.509</td>
<td>.770 .2.976 .1.1045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Factor 6 Undesired Influences of Important Others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I do not like some students in my class</th>
<th>Some students laugh at my English</th>
<th>I dislike families to push me into learning English harder</th>
<th>I dislike English teacher to often tell to learn English well</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td>.611</td>
<td>.611</td>
<td>.583</td>
<td>.672 .2.476 .97983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.96948</td>
<td>.1.1151</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Factor 7 Textbooks and Teaching Materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>The exercises after each unit are boring</th>
<th>The contents in textbooks are boring</th>
<th>The topics of some texts are boring</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>.770</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td>.476</td>
<td>.770 .2.843 .1.0971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 4 presents the labels assigned to the five extracted external factors, the actual items each factor subsumed, the corresponding loadings. Factor 4 includes five variables involving the participants’ English achievement (Item 2), their inabilities to learn English grammar (Item 3), vocabulary (Item 1), pronunciation (Item 4), and writing (Item 5). This factor is therefore named Deficient English Learning Abilities.

Factor 5 has three variables relating to the participants’ little interest in taking English-related jobs in future career expectancy (Item 37), loss of interest in English class (Item 36), and indifference to English if not required by the nature of English as a compulsory course (Item 38). This factor is thus termed Lack of Intrinsic Interest.

Factor 8 encompasses two variables relating to the participants’ poor mastery of learning strategies such as inference (Item 40), and methods of remembering vocabulary and grammar (Item 39). This factor is thus named Lack of Effective Learning Strategies.

The order of the eight demotivators’ mean values from the highest to the lowest is as follows (Table 5): Textbooks and Teaching Materials (mean = 2.9323), Lack of Effective Learning Strategies (mean = 2.8867), Teaching Contents and Teaching Process (mean = 2.8242), Deficient English Learning Abilities (mean = 2.6797), Lack of Intrinsic Interest (mean = 2.6562), Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities (mean = 2.5918), Undesired Influences of Important Others (mean = 2.4824), and Teacher-related Factors (mean = 2.4635). According to Table 5, the top three demotivators with highest mean values are Textbooks and Teaching Materials, Lack of Effective Learning Strategies, and Teaching Contents and Teaching Process respectively. The last three demotivators with lowest mean values are Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities, Undesired Influences of Important Others and Teacher-related Factors respectively.
Table 5 Overall Features of the Participants’ Demotivators (N=128)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demotivator</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F7 (Textbooks and Teaching Materials)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.9323</td>
<td>.84530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8 (Lack of Effective Learning Strategies)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.8867</td>
<td>.90973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1 (Teaching Contents and Teaching Process)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.8242</td>
<td>.73867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4 (Deficient English Learning Abilities)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.6797</td>
<td>.84195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5 (Lack of Intrinsic Interest)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.6562</td>
<td>.84072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 (Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.5918</td>
<td>.85911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6 (Undesired Influences of Important Others)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.4824</td>
<td>.81761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 (Teacher-related Factors)</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.4635</td>
<td>.73648</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In summary, the findings reveal that the participants seem to be mainly demotivated by Teaching Contents and Teaching Process, Teacher-related Factors, Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities, Undesired Influences of Important Others, and Textbooks, Teaching Materials, Deficient English Learning Abilities, Lack of Intrinsic Interest, and Lack of Effective Learning Strategies. These results indicate that the students might be most possibly demotivated by such factors as Textbooks and Teaching Materials, Lack of Effective Learning Strategies, and Teaching Contents and Teaching Process. Of the eight factors, the first five are external factors (79.86%) and the last three are internal factors (20.14%). While showing that demotivation is the result of the interplay of external factors and internal factors, the results of this study indicate that external demotivators are more influential than the internal ones on Chinese EFL learners’ demotivation to learn English.

4.2 Differences in Demotivation between Different Academic Fields

Independent T-test was performed in order to examine the differences in demotivation between students of English majors (SEM) and students of International Trade (SIT). Table 6 presents the Independent T-Test results on demotivation between the English Majors and Students of International Trade. Apparent differences can be observed in the overall means of the participants’ demotivators between the two groups of students. As shown in Table 6, the P values [Sig. (2-tailed)] for Factor 2 (Teacher-related Factors), Factor 3 (Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities), Factor 5 (Lack of Intrinsic Interest), and Factor 6 (Undesired Influences of Important Others) are 0.000, 0.047, .001 and .008 respectively, which are all below the .05 level. The findings indicate that there are statistically significant differences in these four demotivators between the English majors and the students of International Trade. The findings disagree with Gao & Zhang (2016) who found no significant differences in demotivation between Chinese EFL learners of sciences and liberal arts. However, these findings confirm Alavinia & Sehat (2012), Aliakbari & Hemmatizad (2015), and Gao (2014).
An Exploratory Study on the Relationship between Demotivation

Li & Zhou

Table 6 Independent T-test on Demotivation between SEM and SIT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demotivators</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1 (Teaching Contents and Teaching Process)</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.7212</td>
<td>.76716</td>
<td>-1.374</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIT</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.9018</td>
<td>.71191</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 (Teacher-related Factors)</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.1970</td>
<td>.68199</td>
<td>-3.731</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIT</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.6644</td>
<td>.71605</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 (Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities)</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.4182</td>
<td>.91674</td>
<td>-2.008</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIT</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.7226</td>
<td>.79447</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4 (Deficient English Learning Abilities)</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.5964</td>
<td>.87981</td>
<td>-0.972</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIT</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.7425</td>
<td>.81273</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5 (Lack of Intrinsic Interest)</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.3697</td>
<td>.78219</td>
<td>-3.492</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIT</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.8721</td>
<td>.82333</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6 (Undesired Influences of Important Others)</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.2636</td>
<td>.74290</td>
<td>-2.692</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIT</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.6473</td>
<td>.83732</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7 (Textbooks and Teaching Materials)</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.8909</td>
<td>.96023</td>
<td>-0.479</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIT</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.9635</td>
<td>.75269</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8 (Lack of Effective Learning Strategies)</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.8455</td>
<td>.95681</td>
<td>-0.444</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>.658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIT</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.9178</td>
<td>.87803</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students of International Trade seem to be more significantly demotivated by these four factors than the English major students. The first significant difference is the Teacher-related Factors, which is also reported in Alavinia & Sehat (2012). They found significant differences in the effect of teacher’s personality between different majors. This might be first because teachers for English majors are traditionally considered to be more competent in language proficiency and qualification. Those teachers might be more skillful in motivating their students in learning English than the teachers for non-English major students.

The second significant difference is Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities. This finding is not reported in the literature of demotivation research. This might be caused by the fact that English majors are often taught in small class with a group of about 20-30 students. By contrast, non-English majors like students of International Trade are often found to be taught in large class with at least 50 students in a group. In addition, language laboratories are often provided for English majors, while non-English major students often have very limited access to these language learning facilities on campus. Therefore, it is possibly more likely for students majoring in International Trade to feel negatively motivated.

The third significant difference is Lack of Intrinsic Interest. This result echoes Gao (2014) and A liakbari & Hemmatizad (2015). English major students usually show a greater interest in the target language than non-English majors. Otherwise, most of them would not have taken English as their major in college. Though most Chinese EFL learners are found to be more instrumental than integrative in their English learning motivation (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005), non-English majors, compared with English majors, are more instrumentally motivated to learn English. This strong instrumentality does not necessarily help maintain long-term motive for language learning once a previous goal has been achieved. Thus, when passing the National
An Exploratory Study on the Relationship between Demotivation and Academic Fields

English Matriculation, non-English majors like students of International Trade are more likely to be demotivated in college.

The last significant difference is the Undesired Influences of Important Others. This might be because non-English majors are often taught in large-sized class. Students in such large class have few opportunities to receive frequent feedback from their English teachers. Particularly, when they encounter difficulties or suffer from setbacks in English learning, they might have limited access to receiving immediate guide from teachers. On the other hand, the students within a large class are confronted with pressure to handle interpersonal relationship with other peers, which might pose challenges to their affective abilities. By contrast, English majors, enjoying small-sized class, have more opportunities to receive feedback from their teachers and to interact with peers. Therefore, it is more likely for non-English majors to be demotivated.

5 Conclusion
This study has investigated 128 university students’ demotivators to learn English and the differences in demotivation between students in different majors and grades. It has found that demotivation in English learning was common among Chinese tertiary EFL learners. They seem to be mainly demotivated by the following factors: Teaching Contents and Teaching Process, Teacher-related Factors, Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities, Deficient English Learning Abilities, Lack of Intrinsic Interest, Undesired Influences of Important Others, Textbooks and Teaching Materials, and Lack of Effective Learning Strategies. The findings of the study have also indicated that English majors were significantly different from the students of International Trade in the following four demotivators: Teacher-related Factors (teacher personality, teaching competence, and teaching style), Classroom Learning Environment and Facilities, Lack of Intrinsic Interest, and Undesired Influences of Important Others.

The findings of this study would be implicative for helping English teachers reduce the detrimental effect of demotivation in college English class. For example, teachers are suggested to strength students' intrinsic motivation. Only a strong interest in language and language learning could students become more willing to maintain their effort in learning English. Given the differences in demotivation among EFL learners of different academic fields, teachers and curriculum designers are suggested to take academic fields into account while designing and developing English class to students of different majors. As for the deficiency of effective learning strategies among the learners, a strategy-embedded instruction is thus necessary to be incorporated into English language curriculum (Li, 2014c).

This study is an exploratory attempt to examine the relationship between demotivation and academic fields. Larger samples of more academic fields and triangulated data collection methods are suggested to be integrated in future research.

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**References:**


The Role of Teacher-Student Conferencing in Improving Grammatical Accuracy in University EFL Students’ Composition Writing

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Sétif, Algeria

Abstract
Based on the value of teacher-student conferencing practice in writing classes, the study investigates the role of this practice in improving grammatical accuracy in EFL university students’ writing. One particular aim of this study is to help second-year students at Sétif 2 University (Algeria) reduce subject-verb (S-V) disagreement and run-ons in their writing. Ten students took part in this study; they wrote 120 drafts, and were provided with teacher’s oral feedback on their written compositions at the editing stage. Corpora of students’ compositions were examined and instances of errors were counted before each conferencing session for four weeks. The findings reveal that the participants successfully show progress in grammatical accuracy over time to reach elimination for Subject-Verb disagreements and a significant reduction for run-ons.

Keywords: accuracy, feedback, grammar correction, teacher-student conferencing, writing

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Introduction
Teaching writing is one of the most difficult tasks for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers as it involves various processes which require teachers to devote a lot of time to help students write better. It is what and how we respond to students’ texts that carry the most weight in writing instruction. In fact, although there is no one right way to respond to students’ writing, there are some better ways to respond as there are worse. On the one hand, most studies on feedback on second language (L2) writing show that students receiving comments from teachers improve their writing over time and recent research reflects that content takes the priority over form when providing feedback. Writing accuracy, on the other hand, is the key to readability and transmission of the writer’s intended message.

Statement of the Problem
Being university-level EFL writing teachers for a considerable period of time authorizes us to say that the level of student writers is developing slightly and their productions have become more satisfying than they have been and this is due to many changes in the Algerian University such as the teaching approach which has been adopted by writing teachers changing from a product approach to a process approach. Also, the allocated time to teaching writing has been increased from three hours per week to four hours and a half allowing further practice opportunities for the students.

Increased teaching and feedback provision enable students to become familiar with expository writing including different types of paragraphs and compositions. What is noticed is that students go beyond the problems they mostly complain about like the difficulty to start writing and generate ideas; this is thanks to the instruction of pre-writing techniques. Students also become able to write for a purpose and an audience, developing major and minor details leading all to a good content and structure. It is satisfying for any writing teacher to see his/her students achieving this; however, it is very disappointing to read such a good content with accuracy errors especially when the error is far expected to be produced by university students. Accuracy errors harm the good content and affect the overall quality of the writing piece, and hence affect the reader’s understanding. “Even fairly minor errors can lead to problems in text processing and comprehension” (Ferris, 2002: p.329)

Accuracy problems reflect unsuccessful editing and much of the existing literature on writing instruction is about the writing process and its sub-processes, but when we come to editing, two terms are common: self-editing and peer-editing. If our students are noticeably developing through process writing instruction, but producing inaccurate products with many errors, this means that there is a gap somewhere. This might lead us to assume that either self / peer editing are not done properly, or the students undermine the editing process; therefore, a necessary intervention from the teacher at this stage is necessary. The most suitable intervention, we see, that can work with both assumptions is teacher-student conferencing. To illustrate, one of the claims of the process writing approach is that conferencing should take place between the first draft and revision, but since self / peer editing are two strategies that did not put an end to students’ errors, why do not we try conferencing at that stage to allow more individualized treatment of students’ problems? Also, if the students undermine the editing process, then they
need to be convinced of the necessity of developing editing skills and teacher-student conferences can be a good way to do so.

Among the accuracy problems that are noticed in second year EFL students’ writing, two grammatical problems frequently appear: subject-verb disagreement and run-ons. Grammar correction is seen as one way of helping writers to improve the accuracy of a piece of writing and in turn, therefore, to improve its communicative effectiveness. Subject-verb (S-V) disagreement is an error that is not expected at a university level, and it is not the case of one or two students, but of a wide majority. Despite the teachers’ repeated corrections of such errors, the students undermine their corrections and ignore their effect on their writing. This might be justified in Ferris’ (2002) words: “Many students have little interest in and pay limited attention to editing their work. They find editing tedious or unimportant or they have become overly dependent on teachers or tutors to correct their work for them” (p. 329). Subject-Verb disagreement and run-ons do not only occur at the second-year level, but they extend to Master level and this reflects that the types of feedback followed in their second and third year writing sessions fail to have long-term effects. There is then a call to an urgent solution to this problem at earlier levels.

Aim of the study
This research paper comes in an attempt to help university-level EFL students to eradicate or reduce silly errors in their writing which are of shame to appear at this high level. Also, it aims at leading our students to be autonomous editors who can succeed beyond the second-year EFL writing class.

Research Hypotheses
To reach our aim we raised the following hypotheses:
1. Teacher-student conferencing can be an effective way to achieve grammatical accuracy in university-level EFL students’ composition writing.
2. Teacher-student conferencing can reduce or eradicate subject-verb agreement problems in university-level EFL students’ composition writing.
3. Teacher-student conferencing can reduce or eradicate run-ons in university-level EFL students’ composition writing.

Background of the Study
Feedback, a major element in language teaching, is “an input from a reader to a writer with the effect of providing information to the writer for revision…the comments, questions, and suggestions a reader gives a writer to produce reader-based prose as opposed to writer-based prose” (Keh, 1990, p. 294). Students do not become proficient writers only by writing and rewriting for readable handwriting, but they need to see how readers receive their writing and what revisions might strengthen their texts. Having an audience is the first step that encourages the writer to consider issues of language, style, tone, unity and coherence and conferencing allows the presence of a reader.

Writing Conferences
Conferencing is a form of oral teacher feedback. According to Penaflorida (2002), conferencing is “one-to-one conversation between teacher and student” (p. 351). It is an effective
means of teacher response to student writing and it “may be short or for as long as the two parties wish to talk” (p.352). In their investigation of feedback in L2 writing, Hyland and Hyland (2006) claim that the writing conference is “an approach lauded by L1 researchers as a dialogue in which meaning and interpretation are constantly being negotiated by participants and as a method that provides both teaching and learning benefits” (p.5). Defined this way, conferencing appears to be a new area of application in L2 context and the little research done proves its positive effect on students’ writing.

Conferencing has been proved to be an effective means of teacher response to student writing because it makes teachers better acquainted with their students (Penaflorida, 2002). Writing conferences also make discussion more ‘student-centered’, foster a sense of community, a sense of group knowledge, and student participation (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). The interactive nature of the conference gives teachers a chance to meet students’ writing needs and clarify ambiguities. In the context of the present study, the ‘subject-verb agreement’ and ‘run-ons’ are both identified as students’ needs.

**Grammar Correction and Accuracy**
Grammar correction is a kind of corrective feedback. The latter is given on form consisting of the marks used by the teacher to correct error on grammatical features, capitalizations, punctuations, tenses, and other surface structures. It is claimed that “the object of using correction techniques is to give the students a chance to get the new language right” (Harmer, 1983: p.63). In grammar correction, the focus is given to correcting grammatical errors in order to reach an accurate product. Grammatical errors include sentence structure, agreement, tense, word order, fragments and parts of speech.

Corrective feedback is of two types: implicit and explicit feedback. Implicit corrective feedback is favored over explicit feedback in which “people learn more by doing things themselves rather than being told about them” (Scrivener, 2005: p.3). By contrast, explicit correction should not be ignored as it “may be the quickest, most appropriate, most useful way of helping” (p.301). However, emphasis is put on the importance of ‘encouraging, tactful correction’ and the need for sensitivity on the part of the teacher (Ur, 1996: p.249). Confirming this, some researchers like Erlam, Ellis & Bastone (2013) advise teachers to try to elicit self-correction from the learner rather than to correct directly and explicitly.

In contrast to benefits of corrective feedback, explicit correction is considered potentially damaging as it might elicit a negative affective response from the learner (Truscott, 1999). Further, Truscott (2007) says “correction most likely has small harmful effects on students’ ability to write accurately and that we can be reasonably confident that if it does have any genuine benefits, they are so small as to be uninteresting” (p.256). In a review article, Truscott argues that grammar correction is not effective because “students will repeat the same mistake over and over again and this is attributed to the student most of the time who is not tentative or lazy” (Truscott, 1996: p.369), but our duty as researchers is to look for the gap and try some practices that might work and prevent this repetition of mistakes. We do not need to correct; we need to show them how to correct. This can be done through an editing conference between the teacher and the student.
Method
Methodological Approach
The researchers opted for learner corpora research in which one of them gathered large corpora of the students’ paragraphs and compositions weekly from the beginning of the year for more than a semester in order to notice any development. Indeed, there was progress in students’ writing at many levels, but issues of low concern like S-V agreement and run-ons remain unsolved. The researchers then decided to analyze the students’ progress as a group of ten students in depth using an elaborate feedback form (conferencing). Each student wrote three composition drafts weekly for four weeks. All in all, the students wrote 120 drafts, and 40 drafts were examined to determine frequency of errors.

Participants
Ten second year students of English at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University - Sétif 2-(Algeria) took part in this study. The teacher’s acquaintance with a class of 36 students for more than a semester giving different writing practices helped her to select a group of ten students who have frequent errors in S-V agreement and run-ons. This sample is selected according to the students’ needs because not all students in the class have similar problems and the number of the sample is bound with the time that a conferencing session takes especially at a composition level.

Target Problems
When providing feedback, the teacher could not ignore some problematic aspects of content or other accuracy problems, but most discussion in the conferencing sessions focused on two target problems: Subject-verb agreement and run-on sentences (comma splice and fused sentences).

Design
One of the two authors of the present paper took the responsibility of providing feedback on students’ compositions in all conferencing sessions at the time of the study. All participants wrote about the same topic suggested by the teacher, and each time they generated and organized their ideas before producing their first drafts which were self-revised to produce second drafts. Conferencing sessions with the writing teacher were scheduled after writing the second drafts, and instances of errors were counted in the overall composition before the conferencing sessions. The students are required to write a third draft after the editing conference with the teacher. In addition, the writing conferences were audio-recorded and transcribed for data analysis.

Example of a Conferencing Episode
T stands for teacher and S for student.
“...It create problems between couples, and increase divorce rate...”
T: ok, um can you see any mistake in that sentence?
S: hmm
S: no!
T: ok, read the sentence loudly.
S: It creates; the “s” oh my God!
T: Read the sentence again
S: “It creates problems between couples, and increases divorce rate”
T: ah! so you paid attention to the mistake in the second verb?
S: yeah
T: nice
T: you have good ideas, but over use of such mistakes undermines the quality of your writing.

The teacher in this episode is inviting the student to read a sentence that includes S-V agreement mistakes because as the student reads loudly, s/he will listen to his/her own writing bringing him/her to a more conscious level of rethinking and re-seeing what s/he has written .(Seow, 2002). Then, the teacher raises the student awareness to the good content s/he wrote showing how surface errors interrupt the reader many times.

**Examples of Errors from Students’ Writing**

The following are some examples, put in bold characters, selected randomly from students’ compositions.

1. **Lack of Subject-Verb Agreement**
   - “Divorce mean the separation between parents”.
   - “For many years, human society have been changing”

2. **Run-on Sentences**: O is a symbol that we used to illustrate the place where the two independent clauses run together
   - “The most dangerous effect of watching too much TV is on educational life, O this may lead to failure, O students will give more interest to watching TV over their studies.”
   - “Even though TV is a tool of entertainment, O it still affect our life, O it cause many bad effects.”
   - “Modern life is very different from ancient life O it has brought a lot of positive changes.”
   - “The latter has negative effects on children’s life because it can destroy their life O they may become homeless and unprotected”.
   - “Children may become unsociable persons O they are exposed to different kinds of violence”.

**Findings and Discussion**

Instances of errors were counted in each essay and did not appear in the edited drafts because all revisions were perfectly successful. Also, our aim is not to test short-term editing behaviors, but longitudinal rather because subject-verb agreement is a very basic rule that can easily be corrected and much practice was done earlier in the writing course on run-ons in discussing effective sentences in which the students revealed successful corrections at the sentence level tasks. The students are able to correct a run-on sentence in a separate exercise, but unable to identify it in a whole composition. The participants are referred to as S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9 and S10. The following table illustrates the errors in the four compositions written by S1.
Student 1: S1

Table 1: Summary of S1’s Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>S-V agreement</th>
<th>Run-ons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay3</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. S-V Agreement & Run-ons Errors in S1’s Writing

S1’s errors reported in table 1 reveal a radical change in subject-verb agreement and a gradual treatment of run-ons, moving from 6 errors in essay 1 to 1 error in essay 4. The findings in S1 papers (essay 1 to essay 4) show that the student made statistically significant reductions in her errors. What is noticed is that S-V agreement errors increased in the second essay which leads the teacher to remind the student in the conferencing session about the mark she will have if continuing to write carelessly. “Giving the students an immediate sense of their final grade could be motivating” (Ferris, 2002, p.329) This strategy worked for that student to reduce her errors to one S-V agreement error per essay to eliminate it in the fourth one. The following table summarizes S-V agreement errors in 10 students writing through the four essays.

Table 2. Summary of Students’ S-V Agreement Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>S1</th>
<th>S2</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>S4</th>
<th>S5</th>
<th>S6</th>
<th>S7</th>
<th>S8</th>
<th>S9</th>
<th>S10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 2. S-V Agreement Error Decrease throughout four Conferencing Sessions

Improvement in all students’ writing accuracy concerning the error S-V agreement is very apparent from Graph 2. There is a noticeable error decrease in essay 2 to reach surprising results by essay 3 in which S2, S3, S4, S7, S9 and S10 were able to eradicate the error definitely and they reached the same satisfying results in essay 4. S1, S6 and S8 gradually decreased S-V disagreements to reach no error in essay 4. Only S5 completed the fourth essay with only one error while his first essay contained 6 errors.

Table 3. Summary of Students’ Run-ons Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>S1</th>
<th>S2</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>S4</th>
<th>S5</th>
<th>S6</th>
<th>S7</th>
<th>S8</th>
<th>S9</th>
<th>S10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In conferencing sessions, the students reflected that they focused on the flow of their ideas, the reason why they generally produce run-ons; but when they are told to correct, they are unable to do so. Some students were unable to identify the run-on sentence. They were shown how to divide the paragraphs into units (from the beginning of the sentence till the placement of the period). Those units will be then checked as to whether or not they are run-ons through counting the number of independent clauses within. When they are able to identify the number of clauses, the treatment is easy because they were trained how to do so in earlier sessions through four possible ways: inserting a period, inserting a semicolon, coordination or subordination.

Results in Figure 3 show that the students made four to nine errors per essay, and this is a serious problem that certainly harms the essay accuracy and the overall content message. Through conferencing with the teacher, the students achieved a noticeable gradual reduction in the number of errors in which only one student (S9) finished writing essay 4 with two run-ons and five students (S1, S3, S5, S6 and S10) reduced their error gradually to make only one error in essay 4 while four students (S2, S4, S7 and S8) among 10 participants managed to eliminate the problem completely in the fourth essay.

It is therefore clearly significant that the positive change in students’ accuracy errors can occur after two conferences. These results confirm our hypotheses stated earlier: Teacher-student conferencing can reduce run-ons, but eradicate subject-verb disagreement in Sétif 2 University students’ writing. This leads to confirm the main hypothesis that “Teacher-student conferencing is an effective way to improve the grammatical accuracy.”

Pedagogical Implications
Our discussion leads to some suggestions for teachers. First, writing teachers should take students’ pieces of writing periodically to indicate major problems to be focused on in giving feedback because students cannot indicate their weaknesses measured with appropriation, and if they work repeatedly on a few types of errors, a definite reduction and longitudinal results will be achieved. For teachers also to improve students’ linguistic control over their writing, they have to strictly consider accuracy errors when evaluating the students’ writing in order to raise the students’ awareness in early stages to avoid the problem in Master levels. This implication is not limited to writing teachers only; it also serves all content subject teachers’ purposes in order to raise Algerian students’ awareness on accuracy in content modules.

There should be a kind of flexibility in selecting the feedback approach in teaching writing because both content and form are important for the communicative effectiveness of any piece of writing. On the one hand, spotting grammatical mistakes only is not sufficient, but on the other hand, giving more focus to the content and meaning only will lead to a good content but inaccurate product. Therefore, feedback approach should be flexible according to the students’ needs and weaknesses.

More focus on the editing process is recommended in which the role of the teacher should be teaching students how to edit not asking them to self/peer edit because the students show a big gap between knowing the error and identifying the error type. Once the students are trained how to edit, self or peer editing become very useful. In this regard, Seow (2002) says “The
students are, however, not always expected to know where and how to correct every error, but editing to the best of their ability should be done as a matter of course, prior to submitting their work for evaluation each time.” (p.319)

Conclusion
The study participants were able to make correct changes in response to teacher feedback. With this finding, we can add our voice to previous research findings about the effectiveness of teacher’s corrective feedback in making successful student revisions on the drafts of their essays. In addition, students show progress in grammatical accuracy over time highlighting the effectiveness of a new feedback method in helping not only to reduce, but also to eliminate finally some accuracy problems in the written product. The findings also support the claims of previous researchers that feedback should be focused on and modeled to the students’ needs. Therefore, conferencing with students on form, including certain kinds of error correction, is beneficial to the students and it is not a type of feedback that is limited to content. This is justified on the ground that accuracy of the written product matters and its importance is bound up with the communicative effectiveness of any piece of writing.

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References


Building Teacher’s Pedagogical Competence and Teaching Improvement through Lesson Study

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Abstract
Teachers’ competence in managing the classroom becomes a significant factor in the students’ comprehension, and further, in developing their competence. This study was aimed to observe and give the evidence of the use lesson study in helping the teacher to have the other’s perspective, especially in the process of teaching to strengthen their strategies and classroom management. By applying action research through plan, do, and reflective phases, lesson study was able to foster significant teaching skill to develop the quality of teaching and learning. The average of teachers’ pedagogical competence for Language Testing Administration (LTA) was 3.33 and 2.84 for Genre Based Writing (GBW) from three cycles. The improvement of teachers’ pedagogical competence was based on their decision in adjusting the material and approach to implement a meaningful learning. It proved that students’ motivation could be optimally stimulated in joining the classroom. However, the students’ perception of teachers’ pedagogical competence was also increasing. It was believed that it was a part of teaching improvement. Therefore, it is recommended to implement lesson study for improving the quality of learning especially for its process.

Keywords: lesson study, pedagogical competence, teaching improvement

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Introduction
One of the efforts to develop the quality of learning is by improving teachers’ professionalism. It is very important because teachers have a crucial factor to determine the quality of education system. Teachers should have the competencies affecting the students’ achievements and performances. To meet the demand, teachers should also be able to answer the students’ need in their learning. According to the Minister of National Education Regulation No.16 of 2007, there are four competencies of teachers’ academic qualifications through teacher education; pedagogical, personal, professional, and social competencies. Those competencies are aimed to actualize the need in improving the quality of education in widely scope.

According to Ryegard, et.al (2010), pedagogical competence refers to educational and teaching qualifications. One of the qualifications, the teachers should have the ability to manage and run the process of teaching and learning in the classroom. The flow of interaction, teachers’ performance, the ability to design a lesson plan, the appropriateness in choosing the method and media of learning also become the indicators of pedagogical competence (The Law No. 14 of 2005).

In practical domain, pedagogical competence needs to be built through practices in classroom setting that faces real problems and students with various characteristics. However, some teachers may not have fortunate condition in executing the jobs. The condition can be in several forms; the minimum source in designing a lesson plan, the lower competence of the students, the lack of facilities, and so on. By the time, it requires the willingness to take part in discussions and/or collaboration between the teachers to share ideas in fulfilling the goal to make his teaching is effective. Lesson study could be arranged to answer the problems. It emphasizes on the improvement of teaching and learning process focusing on the teachers’ pedagogical competence through others’ point of view that may dig one’s strength and potential (Lewis, 2002). It also focuses on students’ learning and progress developed by their teachers considering their pedagogic techniques to improve a particular aspect of teaching and learning (The National Strategies, Secondary, 2009). In conducting lesson study, the teachers collaborate to investigate the teaching and learning process based on the collegial principle and mutual learning to build learning community (Hendayana, et.al, 2006). They collaboratively planning, teaching, observing, and analyzing the teaching and learning process in the classroom (Dudley, 2011). Hurd, and Musso (2005) also mention that the cycle of lesson study is focused on professional development of teachers’ planning, observing, and revising. It is also in line with Hollingsworth and Oliver (2005) state that a collaborative process of lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and refinement are engaged by small groups of teachers. They begin their lesson study by reading and discussing the different instructions (Tomlinson, 1999). Through discussion, the teachers collaboratively could share their experience and knowledge to clarify the goal of that learning so that they can design, and create multiple pathways for improving their teaching (Cerbin and Kopp, 2006). It also enables them to bring their ideas about effective teaching in order to evaluate the research lesson, the students, and their own understanding about
teaching and Learning (Lewis, 2002). Lesson study offers a different way of thinking about teaching and learning. It is more oriented toward students’ learning, so that the teachers need to know how to stimulate and sustain the students’ motivation to learn in order to teach them effectively.

According to Keller (2000), one of approaches to stimulate and sustain the students’ motivation of learning is through attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (ARCS) model of motivation. It provides guidance for analyzing the motivational characteristics of a group of learners and designing motivational strategies based on the analysis of attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction. It enables the teachers to effectively and efficiently stimulate students’ motivation. Motivational design theory asserts that instructional material should be configured with the strategies increasing the attention, relevance, confidence and satisfaction of the students for an instructional design ensuring the continuity of learning motivation (Malik, 2014). However, the amount of students in a classroom might cause the teacher to have less opportunity in grasping the students’ responses. The disadvantage condition can be supported by teacher’s colleague through collaborative discussion in informing the classroom situation. This support can be used by the teacher to adjust the strategy in the refinement of the next lesson plan. By knowing the students who are attentive, eager to join the classroom, and also those who are confidence, the teacher can maximize the classroom atmosphere to pursue the learning goals in an interesting way. Further, the responses of the students sometimes contribute to neither advantage nor disadvantage of the classroom delivery, and teacher should be aware to this factor to maintain the quality of his/her teaching.

Method
This research was conducted in the classes of Language Testing Administration (LTA) and Genre-based Writing (GBW). The subject of the study was the fourth semester students of English Education Department of Muhammadiyah University of Semarang in the academic year of 2015/2016. There were 11 students took part for this research.

To achieve the objectives of the study, the research was conducted by using an action research based on a research lesson/lesson study (Lewis, 2002). There were three cycles consisted of plan, do, and see. The following figure is the cycles of research lesson based on Hurd and Musso (2005).
The following is the procedures of the research referring to the cycles of lesson study.

**Planning.** The first stage of lesson study is planning. In this stage, there are some activities done:

a. Forming a lesson study group and establishing the procedures. The lesson study group focused on the study of lesson, discusses the roles, the responsibilities, and also commitments to do a lesson study. In this phase, they discussed about what they want students to know and to do.

b. Identifying the goals of learning. It focused on the exploring of the effectiveness of various strategies used by the teacher in conducting teaching and learning process. Through the use of various strategies, it enabled the students to reach the competence of the certain subject.

c. Planning a lesson based on the goals. Determining the goal of learning needed to be focused on so that the learning strategies also could be adjusted.

d. Analyzing students’ problems of learning based on need analysis. It identified the students’ problems and obstacles for comprehending the materials so that the use of appropriate strategies of learning was expected to overcome those problems.
e. Determining and designing a lesson plan. It was begun through brainstorming a list of lessons taught in the previous meeting. The teacher designed how to motivate the students to learn and involve them in meaningful learning.

f. Designing a handout based on students’ background knowledge and students’ need. Knowing students’ background knowledge is important to determine the material given to the students. Simplifying the material in order to be easier to understand must be done by the teacher so that the goal of learning could be achieved.

**Doing.** There are some activities done in this stage, they are:

a. Implementing teaching and learning process refers to lesson plan designed based on the observers’ comments. The success of teaching and learning process was basically not only determined by the teacher, but also the team planned the lesson collaboratively. It implemented the lesson representing the best thinking of the group.

b. Observing the teaching and learning process by focusing on students’ attitude during the class.

c. Writing students’ activities during teaching and learning process based on the observation sheet.

**Seeing.** In the stage of seeing, all participants in lesson study do some activities, such as:

a. Discussing collaboratively with the other teachers to discuss the weaknesses and strengths of learning model implemented during teaching and learning process. The appropriate of using learning model indicated the success of teaching. It was chosen based on the students’ learning characteristic and need.

b. Reflecting to the process of teaching and learning in the class. It reflected the lesson plan used by the teacher when implementing the teaching, the collected data, and the goals.

c. Conveying the findings of students’ activities and attitude during teaching and learning process. It included the students’ strengths and weaknesses of learning the material.

d. Watching the video of teaching and learning process to know the students’ attitude and response in the class. It was important for the teacher to know what the students know and do not know about the material. The students’ attitude and response became the indicator whether the teaching and learning process could be accepted.

e. Reflecting teaching and learning process to be repaired in the next cycle. Adjustments and refinements of teaching and learning process were needed to improve the quality of teaching based the observers’ finding during the research lesson.

The subject of the study was the fourth semester students taking the subjects of Language Testing Administration and Genre-based Writing. The data were got from questionnaire, observation, and video recording. The data were analyzed descriptively to find out the quality of teaching and learning process and know the improvement of students learning.

**Finding and Discussion**

A number of tables are used to present the result of the study covering teachers’ pedagogical competence, students’ motivation of learning, and students’ perception of teachers.

**Teachers’ Pedagogical Competence**

According to Ryegard, et.al (2010), pedagogical competence refers to educational and teaching qualifications. It emphasizes on the quality of teaching. The quality of teaching could be assessed
from the ability and willingness to take part in discussions of teaching. There are three areas of assessment used to assess pedagogical competence; teaching skills, theoretical knowledge, and approach characterized by willingness and the ability to develop.

Related to teaching skills, the teachers’ pedagogical competence can be elaborated into the following criteria; the preparation which covers the lesson plan, media, students setting, and material. From the presentation, it can be seen from the way the teacher is explaining, confirming the students’ response, simplifying the materials, stimulating the students to be attentive and being involved in the process of learning, and also giving the students opportunity to ask some questions related to the material. From the learning methods, the teachers are observed from the way they set the students in learning condition, knowing the students’ difficulties, anxiety, and strength to maximize the learning atmosphere. Teacher’s characteristics are needed to support the teaching and learning process emphasizing on the way the teacher stimulate the students to be active during the class, being assertive to the learning situation, and also having the initiative for creating the interesting learning. The closing covers the teacher’s ability to conclude the material conveyed, giving evaluation and feedback to the students.

The following is the observation result of teachers’ pedagogical competence done by the observers of lesson study during teaching and learning process in the classroom.

**Table 1 The Teachers’ Pedagogical Competence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Language Testing Administration</th>
<th>Genre based Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cycle I</td>
<td>Cycle II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Preparation</td>
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<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Presentation/Conveying material</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Learning method</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teacher’s characteristic</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Closing</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.94</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.50</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 showed there was a significant improvement on the average of LTA and GBW. In cycle I of LTA, the average of teacher’s pedagogical competence was 2.94. From the fifth components above, the highest score was lied on teacher’s characteristics (3.60) followed by the preparation (3.10). From the observation result, it showed that the teacher of LTA was discipline,
assertive, responsible, and able to establish good communication with the students. The average of pedagogical competence in cycle II was 3.50. Besides the teacher’s characteristic having the highest score (3.70), the learning methods and closing were the second one in this cycle (3.60). It meant that the teacher had the ability to identify the students’ difficulties of learning enabling the use of the appropriate learning model used for teaching and maximize the learning atmosphere. In cycle III, the highest component was on teacher’s preparation and characteristic (3.73). Next, the learning model used by the teacher also showed the improvement with the average of 3.63. It happened when the teacher were able to cope with the students’ problems of learning. The teacher did not only focus on the certain student but also all students in the class.

In the course of GBW, the average of the first cycle was 2.28. In this cycle, it was known that the lowest observations in terms of presentation/conveying material (1.50). The teacher did not show the ability to use certain techniques to convey the material taught in order to be easily understood. The observers found that the teacher only focused on giving the video without considering whether or not the material was appropriate. The skill of writing that must be achieved by the students was not conveyed yet. The use of video emphasized on pronunciation and dictation. Consequently, many students did not understand how to write the text of news item. Based on the weakness of cycle I, the observers advised the teacher to focus on students’ writing. The way the students wrote the text must be considered. Giving guided writing to them was an alternative way to be given to them so that they could develop the existing idea. The average of the teacher in conveying material in cycle II improved to 2.46. Even though it was not significant, but there was an improvement. It also happened in cycle III where there was an improvement of teacher’s presentation (3.09). The teacher had given some guided writings to the students enabled them to practice how to write the simple text.

The implementation of lesson study on subjects of LTA and GBW enabled the teacher to take part in discussion with the other teachers collaboratively to improve the quality of learning. In the stage of planning, the teacher designed the teaching and learning process and simulated in front of the observers to get comments. The problems encountered during the implementation of learning in the classroom were actively discussed in the phase of see. The students who were passive during teaching and learning process were easily found during the class. The tendency to avoid questions from the teacher was another part of students’ problems learning found during lesson study. To overcome those problems, lesson study was held so that each observer could provide feedback and share the experience of teaching to the teacher. The teacher was given the opportunity to design of teaching used to overcome learning problems in the classroom. The students were stimulated to actively take part in teaching and learning process and get motivation for joining the class.

**Students’ Motivation of Learning**

Teachers’ pedagogical competence covers some components in teaching and learning process widely. It is not only how to manage the class by creating good interaction between students and teacher but also promoting and sustaining the students’ motivation in joining the class. It was based on the result of the research referring to the aspects of motivation for joining the classroom. The students’ motivation covered attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (Keller, 2014). The following is the result of students’ motivation in joining the class.
Building Teacher’s Pedagogical Competence

Table 2 The Students’ Motivation of Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Language Testing Administration</th>
<th>Genre based Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cycle I</td>
<td>Cycle II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>2.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td><strong>3.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Attention.** Based on Table 1, the average of students’ motivation to join the class of Language Testing Administration (LTA) and Genre-based Writing (GBW) showed the improvement. It was seen from the aspect of attention shown by the students during teaching and learning process in the classroom of LTA from the cycle I (2.81), cycle II (3.15), and cycle III (3.52) and GBW with the average of cycle I was 3.05, cycle II was 3.24, and cycle III was 3.51 which those were the highest among others. According to Keller (2014), grabbing the students’ attention covers active participation, variability, humor, incongruity and conflict, specific examples, and inquiry.

During teaching and learning process in the classroom, the students joining LTA class seemed happy, showed their curiosity by asking both the teachers and their friends related to the materials that they did not understand yet, and had a responsibility to complete the task given by the teachers well. For stimulating the students’ attention, the teachers collaboratively and intensively discussed with the others (as observers) in the stage of planning. Based on the observers’ comments, the teachers needed to change the way the teachers performed in the class, the communicative competence used to the students (even by interspersing some humors to the students), and the simplified materials supported with appropriate illustration and media made the students easier in comprehending the materials needing a high concentration.

In GBW class, the students’ attention was quite high when the teacher showed some videos related to the material. However, their ability in comprehending News Item Text was still low. It could be seen when the teacher asked them about the generic structure of the text, nobody could answer the question well. Only 20% of them dared to convey their opinions even though they were still doubt to do it. While the other students did not give any responses and preferred to keep silent or busy for doing something to answer that question. Giving some specific examples related to the text of news item through video and guided writing eventually helped their understanding about it.

**Relevance.** Keller (2014) mentions that there are six majors strategies of relevance; experience, present worth, future usefulness, needs matching, modeling, and choice. The aspect of relevance,
in simple words, could be seen from the students’ ability in comprehending the materials based on their willingness, the appropriateness of learning model, associating the material with daily life, and the useful of the material for them. Based on the data, it proved that there was a significant improvement from the cycle I, II, and III for the subject of LTA and GBW. In LTA, the average of relevance in cycle I was 2.46. It improved to the cycle II with the average of 3.08, and cycle III was 3.15. In learning LTA, The students were demanded to master various assessments to support their skills. The demand of designing the tests covering four language skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing were not easy for them. They frequently did some mistakes in choosing the diction and grammar used in a sentence. Their difficulties were caused by the low of their background knowledge, and also unsupported of learning environment. The other factor was the limited number of students taking the subject causing the limited competitiveness among them. The students also had low motivation to improve their skill even though they studied English department.

Meanwhile, the average of relevance in GBW for cycle I was 2.90, the cycle II improved 3.03, and the cycle III was 3.12. The students’ ability in associating what they got with their daily life showed the improvement. They could find out some sources supporting their understanding about news item text. The ability for analyzing and creating the simple text based on the generic structure also improved well. The teacher could present the material from the easiest step to follow until they were able to create their own text in a simple one.

Confidence. The students’ confidence for joining the classes of LTA and GBW could be seen from their belief to comprehend the materials, their success of learning, and their performances during teaching and learning process. The students’ confidence could be pursued by the teachers’ effort in helping students understand the materials, providing objectives and prerequisites, allowing for success, growing the learners, giving feedback, and controlling the students (Keller, 2014). In cycle I of LTA, the average of students’ confidence was 2.09. It improved to 2.86 in cycle II, and significantly improved in cycle III in the average of 3.63. The improvement of students’ confidence was caused by the teacher’s effort to provide some treatments in term of how to compose/create some questions based on four language skills. The supported illustrations enabled them easier in understanding the material so that they were more confident to show their designing simple tests in front of the others. The better understanding of the materials, the use of correct grammar, and the ability to construct some words into some sentences became the factors determining their confidence.

For the class of GBW, there was also an improvement from the first cycle to the third cycle. In cycle I, the average of students’ confidence was 2.93. It improved in cycle II with the average of 3.22, and 3.40 in the third cycle. In this aspect, the students’ ability in writing news item text showed an improvement. The treatment offered through guided writing made them more confident to write. The ability to construct their own sentences was a part of their effort to create the text well. The communicative competence used by the teacher to trigger their ability in writing also became the big factor determining the students’ confidence to perform their writing.

Satisfaction. Satisfaction could be seen from the students’ learning performance, happy to get the teachers’ praise, willing to help the others, the class attendance, the desire to learn and success, and so on. Based on Table 1, it proved that there was a significant improvement in LTA and GBW classes. The average of students’ satisfaction of LTA in cycle I was 2.73. In cycle II, it
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improved to 2.81, and in cycle III, the improvement was 3.29. Generally, the students were satisfied with their learning performance of designing the simple various tests when the teacher appreciated their learning. It fostered them to be more confident in front of the others and stimulated them to perform better in another opportunity. Those efforts also caused them to attend the class regularly so that they could participate actively in teaching and learning process.

Meanwhile in GBW class, the students’ satisfaction also occurred from the cycle I, cycle II, and cycle III. In cycle I, the average of students’ satisfaction was 2.99. It improved in cycle II with the average of 3.13, and in cycle III, there was also an improvement of their satisfaction of 3.51. The students’ satisfaction of GBW caused them to develop their performance in writing by exploring and/or developing their simple text supported with their arguments.

Students’ Perception of Teacher

According to The National Strategies, Secondary, lesson study is a professional learning process focusing on the students’ learning and progress caused by the development of teacher’s pedagogic techniques designed to improve a particular aspect of teaching and learning. Lesson study involves groups of teachers’ collaboratively planning, teaching, observing, and analyzing teaching and learning process of the classroom (Dudley, 2011). Through the steps intensively discussed with the others, the teachers could develop and improve their teaching-on what actually happens between teachers and students in the classroom (Hurd and Musso, 2005). In the lesson study cycle, the teachers discuss together to formulate goals for students learning, students long-term goals, improve the appropriate lessons for students, deepen the students subject knowledge, plan lesson collaboratively, anticipate students thinking, study students learning and behavior, and build strategies of powerful instruction (Lewis, 2002).

Based on the activity of lesson study conducted by the collaborative teachers from plan, do, and see in which the main goal was to improve the quality of teaching and learning, below is the result of students’ perception of teachers conducting teaching and learning process in the classroom.

Table 3 The Result of Students’ Perception of Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Cycle I</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Cycle II</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Cycle III</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><em>Language Testing</em> Administration (LTA)</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><em>Genre-based Writing</em> (GBW)</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table, it could be seen that students’ perception of teachers in teaching LTA and GBW improved for every cycle. In cycle I of LTA, the average of students’ perception of teacher was 2.38 (poor). The teacher’s ability for creating the interactive learning was still low. The observers also found that the teacher used conventional teaching during the class. The teacher only explained the materials without involving the students to be active in the classroom. Consequently, the students felt bored during the class and got difficulties for comprehending the material.
Based on the findings in cycle I, the observers advised the teacher to involve the students in group discussion. Giving some illustrations supporting the students’ comprehension must be emphasized to the next cycle. Simplifying the materials and giving the opportunity to design various tests in groups as the first stage for creating their own were focused in this cycle. The use of appropriate learning strategy helped the students to comprehend the material easily. It was proved with the average of students’ perception of teacher in cycle II improved to 2.94 with the category of good. It also proved that the teacher’s effort to use different learning strategy helped the students to comprehend the concept of learning.

Meanwhile in cycle III, the students’ perception average of teacher was 3.08 (good). The teacher had stimulated the students to be active in teaching and learning process by giving some questions demanding them to answer it based on their own knowledge. The teacher did not let the students to avoid the questions because it was given to all students. It enabled them to discuss and think actively the answer of questions.

Similar condition happened on GBW class. The average of students’ perception of teacher in cycle I was 2.42 with the category of poor. The teacher did not teach the students how to write the text of news item through some steps of writing. But the learning process was emphasized on pronunciation and dictation. The condition made the students incapable to write the text. They felt confused to start to write because the teacher only showed the video without guiding them to write the simple text of news item based on the generic structure and language features used.

In the stage of see, the observers gave some comments to the teacher’s performance of teaching. The use of guided writing needed to be focused on in order to make easier for developing the idea in a text. In fact, this similar condition also happened in this cycle. The teacher did not apply the use of guided writing in GBW class based on the observers’ advice. The media optimized in this cycle was still video in it did not help much to the students for writing. As a result, the average of students’ perception to the teacher was 2.61.

In the third cycle, there was an improvement of the students’ perception average of teacher as much as 2.94 with the category good. In this cycle, the students were given the opportunity to learn to write their own sentences that they arranged based on guided writing given. The condition was quite effective to help them in finding the ideas which they would develop in accordance with the information or the knowledge that they had. The students had an ability to create their own simple text of news item without the use of guided writing as being given in the previous cycle.

Conclusion
From the explanation above, there are some points that can be concluded; first, lesson study improved the teachers’ pedagogical competence focused on teaching skill to develop the quality of teaching and learning process through collaborative discussion. The average of the observation on LTA in cycle I is 2.94. It improves to 3.50 in cycle II, and 3.56 in cycle III. Meanwhile in cycle I of GBW, the average of the observation is 2.28. The improvement of teacher’s pedagogical competence happens in cycle II with the average of 2.99. It also improves
in cycle III with the average of 3.26. Those assessments are based on the aspects of preparation, presentation/conveying material, choosing learning model, teacher’s characteristic, and closing.

Second, the students’ motivation for joining the teaching and learning process is based on the teachers’ effort to improve the quality of learning covering attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (Keller, 2000). The average of students’ motivation for joining LTA in cycle I is 2.52. It improves in cycle II with the average of 3.00. While the improvement also happens in cycle III with the average of 3.33 (good). The students’ motivation average for joining GBW class in cycle I is 3.00. It improves in cycle II and cycle III with the average of each is 3.15 and 3.33.

Third, lesson study proves the teachers’ ability to improve the quality of teaching and learning process. It gives many unforgettable experiences of learning to the students during the class. Based on the students’ perception to the teacher of LTA, the average of cycle I is 2.38, cycle II improves to 2.94, and the improvement also happens in cycle III with the average of 3.08. Similar condition also happens in GBW class with the average of cycle I is 2.42, cycle II is 2.61, and cycle III improves to 2.94. The improvement is caused by the reflection of learning for each cycle intensively based on the observers’ comments so that the problems or obstacles faced during teaching and learning process can be overcame.

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Perceived Effectiveness of Social Media as an English Language Learning Tool

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Abstract
Little is known about the potential effects of social media usage on the learning performance of undergraduates, especially female students in some Arab/Islamic cultures, where sex-segregated education is the norm, and the freedom of expression of women may be suppressed. The purpose of the current study was to test the correlation between the independent variables (including, level of social media use, interactivity with peers, interactivity with teachers, active cooperative learning, engagement) and the dependent variable (i.e., learning performance) of female Saudi students in a sex-segregated educational system. A cross-sectional survey was administered to 283 participants, representing 15.8% of the target population of female Saudi students enrolled on a distance learning course at King Abdulaziz University. The data were analyzed by partial least squares structural equation modeling, to generate and validate the Social Media-Learning Performance (SM-LP) model. The SM-LP model predicted with a substantial effect size (R² = 67.7%) that female Saudi students perceived that they could potentially improve their learning performance, in a sex-segregated education system, through high levels of social media use, stimulating interactivity with peers and teachers, as well as active collaborative learning, and engagement. All the path coefficients were statistically significant (p < .05) reflecting a strong endorsement of the use of social media as an effective learning tool. The findings have important implications for sex-segregated educational context.

Keywords: Computer-mediated communication, English language learning, language learning tool interactive learning environments, perceived effectiveness, Social media

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Perceived Effectiveness of Social Media as an English Learning Tool by Female Undergraduates in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA).

1. Introduction

Social media is defined as “forms of electronic communication through which users create online communities to share information, ideas, personal messages, and other content” (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2014). Online learning communities operate by providing opportunities for learners to interact with their peers and teachers and to receive guidance and information that is beneficial for the acquisition and development of their knowledge and skills. Social media, including networks, blogs, and forums, transform internet users from passive receivers to active learners, by facilitating interactivity and engagement in communication (Grabowicz, 2014). A new global generation of learners has benefitted from the development of online communities in the 21st century (Rosen & Nilson, 2008). The use of social media is widely believed to enhance teaching and learning at course delivery level by providing students with interactive content and improved support services, including tutoring and feedback (Martínez, Alemán & Wartman, 2009).

Most of the research published in the last five years on the use of social media in educational settings has been conducted in the Western world (e.g., Chao, Parker, & Fontana, 2011; Dunn, 2014; Grabowicz, 2014; Heiberger, & Junco, 2011; Martínez, et al., 2009; Neier & Zayer, 2015; Rosen & Nilson, 2008; Väljataga & Fiedler, 2009). Researchers have generally concluded that social media provide a familiar, easy, fun, and effective way for many students to learn, and that educators should satisfy the needs of students to learn through social networking. Such conclusions may not, however, be applicable in the Arab/Islamic world (Shabrg, 2012) providing the rationale for the current research that investigates the perceived effectiveness of social media as a learning tool by female undergraduates in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA).

The Internet in the KSA is mainly used for social purposes and communication (Albahlal, 2012; Masmah, 2011). In the Arab region, Saudis have recently become the most active users of social media, such as Twitter and Facebook. The number of Twitter users in the KSA grew more than 3,000% between 2011 and 2012 (SocialClinic, 2013). In 2012, the number of Saudis who were estimated to be using Twitter and Facebook was estimated to be 393,000 and nearly 4 million, respectively (Fatany, 2012). Many Saudis enjoy social networking since it enables them to say what they may not be able to say fearlessly in real life, providing a breather for them from the suppression under which they may be living (BBC, 2014). In line with the rapid growth of social media usage among the Saudi population, the social media usage at universities in the KSA has also developed rapidly in the last five years (Al-Khalifa & Garcia, 2013; Shabrg, 2012).

Limited research has examined the effectiveness of social media as tools to encourage interactivity and collaboration between Saudi teachers and undergraduates. Kutbi (2014) conducted a qualitative survey with 25 female undergraduates at King Abdulaziz University (KAU), and concluded that a majority of participants perceived using social media in education positively. Alshareef (2013) similarly found that among 100 undergraduates at KAU (60% female) the social network played a major role in student satisfaction with an online communication course. Al-Sharki and Hashim (2016) carried out a survey with 2,605 undergraduates at various colleges in KAU (54% male) revealing that 79% used social media for entertainment, 67% for information searching, and 62% for learning. Differences were found between male and female students regarding their preferred social media applications and frequency of use of social media, possibly reflecting the influence of the sex-segregated societal roles.
educational system in the KSA. According to the Saudi Ministry of Higher Education (2006) both males and females are provided with equal education at all levels in the Kingdom; however, education in the KSA is still segregated by sex. Female Saudi students study in separate colleges where no male students are allowed unless through a video link.

There have been a number of studies on the advantages and disadvantages of undergraduates’ use of social media in the KSA, the descriptive surveys of Alshareef (2013) and Al-Sharki and Hashim (2016) and the review of social media usage in higher education by Al-Khalifa and Garcia (2013). However, the effectiveness of social media as a learning tool has not been quantitatively evaluated. There is a gap in the literature regarding the extent to which social media usage may help improve the English language learning performance of undergraduate students, especially female students, in the context of the Arab/Islamic cultural background of the KSA.

1.1 Conceptual framework

The proposed conceptual framework for this study is the Social Media -Learning Performance (SM-LP) model, devised by the researcher, and defined diagrammatically in Figure 1. This explanatory model is underpinned by Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1986) explaining that effective learning involves modeling processes, in which the learner is stimulated by interactions with his or her environment, including other individuals, as well as external educational media. The SM-LP model is supported by empirical research (Dunn, 2014; Grabowicz, 2014; Heiberger, & Junco, 2011; Martínez et al., 2009; Rosen & Nilson, 2008; Väljataga & Fiedler, 2009) concluding that the frequent use of social media (Level of Use) should ideally improve the level of communication between students (Interactivity with Peers) and also between students and teachers (Interactivity with Teachers). Interactivity with teachers through frequent online participation via social media is proposed to reduce diversity and open up diverse lines of communication (Hrastinski, 2009; Jackson, 2011). Furthermore, the frequent use of social media is assumed to stimulate interactivity between peers, enhancing knowledge transfer between students (Chen & Bryer, 2012; Fewkes & McCabe, 2012). The SM-LP model also posits that interactivity associated with social media usage stimulates group learning activities (Active Collaborative Learning) as well as sustained involvement in learning (Engagement). The SM-LP model explains why many students who are skilled in technology, including the use of social media, tend to become active learners (Resta & Laferrière, 2007) and also become effectively engaged in learning (Carini, Kuh, & Klein, 2006; Carnaghan & Webb, 2007; Junco, 2012; Junco, Helbergert, & Loken, 2011).

The SM-LP model predicts that frequent use of social media stimulates interactivity with peers and teachers, active collaborative learning, and engagement, to explain a high proportion of the variance in student learning performance. The validity of the SM-LP model needs to be tested, providing a rationale and direction for the current study.

1.2 Research aims and objectives

The aim of this study was to provide empirical data to support the development of the SM-LP model defined in Figure 1. The empirical model was constructed using measurements based on the perceptions of female undergraduate students in the KSA regarding their use of social media. The objective of this study was to evaluate the validity, reliability, and strength of
the relationships between the six latent variables in the SM-LP model (i.e., Level of Use, Interactivity with Peers, Interactivity with Teachers, Active Cooperative Learning, Engagement, and Learning Performance). The results would lead to practical implications of the outcomes of the SM-LP model in the context of sex-segregated education of female students with an Arab/Islamic cultural background. The aims and objectives of this study supported the recommendation of Shabrg (2012) that more empirical studies should be conducted in the KSA to evaluate the use of social media as instructional and learning tools which encourage and support the collaboration of students and teachers. Furthermore, this study also supports the recommendation that social network technology use should be evaluated and understood in the classrooms in King Abdulaziz University (Alshareef, 2013).

2. Methods

2.1 Population and sample

The target population consisted of 1796 female Saudi undergraduate students, enrolled in ELCA 102, a second level distance learning programme, studying for a Bachelor’s degree, in the female section of King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, KSA. This university is developing an interactive social media based learning environment, in which the educators are encouraging the use of social media in their academic courses to promote student learning, and to improve English language skills (Al-Sharki & Hashim, 2016). A simple random sample of 283 female students, aged 17-23 years was drawn from the target population, residing in Jeddah or cities and villages outside Jeddah. This sample size, representing 15.8% of the target population, provided survey response data with a 1% margin of error and 95% confidence limits.

2.2 Data collection

A cross-sectional survey was administered between April 8th and April 27th 2016. The survey was conducted in compliance with the ethical standards and research protocol approved by Institution Review Board of KAU. All the respondents provided their informed consent. The 283 participants were sent a copy of the survey instrument via the Blackboard® network at KAU. The participants also communicated their responses to the instrument using the Blackboard network.

2.3 Instrument

The self-report instrument was adapted by the researcher from a questionnaire originally developed by Blasco-Arcas, Buil, Hernández-Ortega & Javier (2013) to evaluate the role of interactivity, active collaborative learning, and engagement in learning performance, in the context of using clicker applications in the classroom by undergraduate students. The 26 items listed in Table 1 provided the response data required to measure the six latent variables in the SM-LP model. The items used to operationalize Level of Use were measured using a 5-point ordinal scale, ranging from 1 = lowest frequency of use and 5 = highest frequency of use. The items used to operationalize Interactivity with Teachers, Interactivity with Peers, Active Collaborative Learning, and Engagement were measured using a 5-point ordinal scale, where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree. Four items were not included in the SM-LP model, but were included to determine the respondents’ frequency of use of Facebook®, Twitter, and YouTube, and to ask which social media applications were chosen by university students in learning English as their most favorite?
2.4 Data Analysis

The frequency distributions of the responses to items concerning the level of use of social media were computed using IBM SPSS® version 20.0. The method of analysis applied to construct the SM-LP model was partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) using SmartPLS® version 2.0.M3 (Ringle & Wende, 2005). PLS-SEM was chosen because it is a non-parametric technique, that has less restrictive sample size and data requirements than alternative parametric methods, such as covariance-based SEM (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014; Wong, 2013). PLS-SEM was particularly useful for this study because the survey item scores were measured at the ordinal level, and were not normally distributed.

The PLS-SEM path diagram in Figure 2 was constructed assuming that Level of Use was the only exogenous latent variable (i.e., not predicted by other latent variables). The five endogenous latent variables were as follows: (a) Interactivity between Peers, and Interactivity between Teachers, predicted by Level of Use; (b) Active Collaborative Learning and Engagement, predicted by a combination of Interactivity between Peers and Interactivity between Teachers, and (c) Learning Performance, predicted by a combination of Active Collaborative Learning and Engagement. No mediating or moderating effects were assumed.

Statistical evidence to warrant the validity and reliability of the SM-LP model was computed by SmartPLS using the protocols described by Hair et al. (2014) and Wong (2013). Tests were conducted to determine if (a) the six latent variables in the measurement model, operationalized from the 5-point ordinal item scores using confirmatory factor analysis, exhibited adequate levels of factorial validity, convergent validity, discriminate validity, and internal consistency reliability; (b) the bootstrapped mean values of the path coefficients (β weights), defining the predictive relationships between the latent variables in the structural model, were significantly greater than zero at α = .05; and (c) a substantial proportion of the variance in Learning Performance was explained by the structural model, based on the criteria that $R^2$ values of 67%, 33%, or 19% were defined respectively as “substantial”, “moderate” or “weak”.

3. Results

3.1 Level of use of social media

The majority (over 60%) of the 283 respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they: (a) had above average to high experience in using social media (198, 70.0%); (b) were familiar with the use of social media (206, 72.8%); (c) frequently used social media for entertainment (217, 76.7%); (d) liked to use social media for communicating with friends and family (241, 85.2%); (e) liked to use social media for education (214, 75.6%); and (f) were not facing any problems in using social media for learning (182, 64.3%).

The respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they used specified social media applications, in order of magnitude of frequency, as follows: Facebook (45, 15.9%); Twitter (91, 32.1%); YouTube (215, 75.9%), and other applications (224, 79.1%) including Blackboard, Snapchat, Google, Instagram and WhatsApp. The frequencies of the responses to the question “In your opinion, what are the most favorite social media applications chosen by university students in learning English” in order of magnitude, were as follows: Blackboard (8, 2.8%); Facebook (10, 3.5%); Snapchat (10, 3.5%); Google (14, 5.0%); Instagram (21, 7.4%); Twitter (40, 4.2%); WhatsApp (49, 17.3%), and YouTube (151, 53.4%). Confirmation of the popularity of
You Tube was revealed by one respondent stating “I personally think that Facebook and Twitter's time are over… I think a lot of people use YouTube to watch and learn better English.”

3.2 Validation of the measurement model

The factorial validity of the SM-LP model was confirmed by the consistently strong factor loading coefficients (ranging from .500 to .875) between the latent variables and their corresponding reflective items. Examination of the cross-loadings in Table 2 indicated a high level of discriminant validity. The factor loadings for the items reflecting each latent variable were consistently greater than their cross-loadings on alternative latent variables.

The quality criteria for the measurement model are summarized in Table 3. The six latent variables satisfied the conventionally accepted quality criteria to validate a PLS-SEM model (Hair et al., 2014; Wong, 2013) specifically (a) convergent validity was confirmed, because the average variances explained (AVE = 52.3% to 79.3%) by the items reflecting each latent variable were consistently greater than the minimum requirement of 50.0%; and (b) the internal reliability values (Composite Reliability = .812 to .939) for the items reflecting each latent variable were consistently greater than the minimum requirement of 7.

3.3 Evaluation of the structural model

The path diagram for the SM-LP model is presented in Figure 2. Statistical evidence to evaluate the SM-LP model was computed by SmartPLS. The bootstrapped mean values of the path coefficients (β weights) defining the predictive relationships between the latent variables in the structural model were all significantly greater than zero at p < .05. The effect size was substantial (R² = .677) indicating that 67.7% of the variance in Learning Performance was explained by the structural model.///

The positive path coefficients in Figure 2 reflected the relative strength of the predictive relationships between the latent variables in the SM-LP model. The path coefficients between LOU → IWP (β = .630; R² = .396); and LOU → IWT (β = .600; R² = .360) indicated that a high level of use of social media explained a moderate level of the variance of the interactivity between peers and teachers. The combination of the path coefficients between IWT → ACL (β = .478); and IWP → ACL (β = .423) indicated that interactivity between peers and teachers explained a substantial proportion (R² = .725) of the variance inactive collaborative learning. The combination of the path coefficients between IWP → ENG (β = .386) and IWP and ENG (β = .478) indicated that interactivity between peers and teachers explained a moderately substantial proportion of engagement (R² = .596). Ultimately, the SM-LP model predicted that an increase in active cooperative learning, in combination with engagement, would result in enhanced learning performance, indicated by ACL → LP (β = .371) and ENG → LP (β = .494) with a substantial effect size (R² = .677).

4. Discussion

4.1 Summary of Findings

The findings of previous research conducted in educational settings in the Western world have highlighted that social media usage is an essential aspect of today’s technologically rich society, and it may also help to improve the learning performance of students (e.g., Dunn, 2014; Grabowicz, 2014; Heiberger, & Junco, 2011; Martínez, et al., 2009; Rosen & Nilson, 2008;
Väljataga & Fiedler, 2009). Shabrg (2012), however, predicted that the Saudi educational system, may require “a quantum leap” to keep up with modern trends, including the use of social media. In the context of a rapidly developing educational system in the Arab/Islamic world, the current study provided empirical evidence to support the argument that a representative sample of 283 female Saudi students at KAU perceived that the Saudi educational system has achieved such a leap.

4.2 Level of Use of Social Media

The results of the cross-sectional survey at KAU in 2016 confirmed that the prediction of Shabrg (2012) was pessimistic. The response data indicated that social media usage provided frequent opportunities for the majority of the female Saudi undergraduate students to interact with their peers and teachers, and thereby receive guidance and information beneficial for their development of knowledge and skills, leading to a high level of learning performance. The respondents endorsed the use of eight social media applications, specifically Blackboard, Facebook, Snapchat, Google, Instagram, Twitter, WhatsApp, and YouTube, in increasing order of magnitude. The majority of the respondents reported that they frequently used social media for entertainment, liked to use social media for communicating with friends and family as well as education, and they did not face any problems using social media for learning. These responses were consistent with previous surveys reflecting the high proportions of undergraduate students at KAU (Al-Shareef, 2013; Kutbi, 2014; Al-Sharki & Hashim, 2016) and elsewhere (Jahan, 2012; Neier & Zayer, 2015) endorsing the perceived usefulness of social media.

Facebook is reported to be the most commonly used platform for online social networking among university students (Guimarez, 2014; Junco, 2012); however, the current survey revealed that Facebook was not popular among the female Saudi students at KAU, consistent with a previous survey (Al-Sharki & Hashim, 2016). The low frequency of use of Facebook was possibly because it is primarily designed as a network for socialization, including making new contacts. In Islamic cultures, male students tend to be more frequent users of social media for making new contacts compared to females (Al-Sharki & Hashim, 2016; Maslam & Usluel, 2011). The cultural and religious ideology of some members of Saudi society is an obstacle inhibiting the use of Facebook for socialization by women. Some parents in the KSA may refuse to let their daughters use Facebook, even for educational purposes, believing that social networking is immoral, because it encourages abnormal or inappropriate practices (Al-Rabeay, 2013; Hamoud, 2013). Kabilan, Ahmad, and Abdin (2010) suggested that Facebook is valuable for incidental language learning in Asia. Students whose first language is not English can engage in social chats with their English speaking friends. The female Saudi student at KAU did not frequently use Facebook for this purpose.

The current study, in line with a previous survey (Al-Sharki & Hashim, 2016), revealed that the most popular social media application used by female students at KAU is YouTube. It provides a wide range of videos with remarkable educational content in English. It is possible to easily share YouTube content between peers and teachers. The current survey revealed that WhatsApp is also popular at KAU, mainly due to the recent implementation of WhatsApp by educators to communicate with students in the university network.
4.3 Social Learning-Learning Performance model

The statistical evidence obtained using PLS-SEM established the validity, reliability, and significance of the relationships between the six latent variables in the SM-LP model. The SM-LP model predicted that a high frequency of use of social media was a significant driving force that explained a substantial proportion of the variance in the perceived learning performance of female Saudi students ($R^2 = 67.7\%$). The SM-LP model predicted that the perceived levels of interactivity, engagement, and active collaborative learning of the female students at KAU would increase as a result of a high frequency of participation in social media, eventually resulting in increased learning performance. The predictions of the SM-LP model were consistent with the findings of previous quantitative studies, conducted outside the KSA, highlighting positive correlations: (a) between the level of use of social media and the level of interactivity among peers and teachers (Dunn, 2014; Grabowicz, 2014; Heiberger, & Junco, 2011; Martínez et al., 2009; Rosen & Nilson, 2008; Väljataga & Fiedler, 2009); (b) between the levels of interactivity, engagement, active collaborative learning, and the learning performance of students (Carini et al., 2006; Carnaghan & Webb, 2007; Junco, 2012; Junco et al., 2011 Resta & Laferrière, 2007).

4.4. Implications for educational theory and practice

The positive outcomes of the SM-LP model, predicting that improved learning performance is perceived to be associated with a high frequency of use of social media, expand Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1986) by explaining how effective learning involves modeling processes, in which learners are stimulated by interactions with peers and teachers, as well as active collaboration and engagement, through social media usage. Furthermore, the SM-LP model has practical implications with respect to the sex-segregated education in Arab/Islamic cultures. According to Ertürk (2009), sex-segregation in Arab Islamic culture adversely impacts the quality of education, because the allocation of resources and access are said to be unequally distributed. Female faculty members complain that women’s branches of universities are less equipped than those for men, and that the highest decision-making positions are occupied by men. Furthermore, sex-segregated education may be an obstacle preventing the greater participation of women in Saudi society because it may grant more social power to men over women (Hamdan, 2005). Recent developments, promoting social media usage for educational purposes by female students in the KSA, may be helping to reverse the trend of adverse impacts of sex-segregated education. The positive outcomes of the SM-LP model are consistent with the arguments of some educators in the KSA, who believe that the use of social media may help improve the quality of the female education system. Alkahtani (2012) suggests that social media have a positive effect on the collaborations between Saudi students, because female students are able to retain their cultural and religious values, without being in physical contact with the opposite sex. Social media is perceived as a safe environment for female Saudi students to interact with other students and their teachers, and thereby enhance their learning performance, without contravening cultural or religious ideology. Furthermore, a high frequency of use of social media by women in the KSA may also promote freedom of expression, in a cultural environment where such freedom may be suppressed (BBC, 2014; Kutbi, 2014).

The magnitudes of the path coefficients for the endogenous variables in the SM-LP model require consideration in the context of implications for educational practice. Based on the relative values of $R^2$ to reflect the effect sizes (Hair et al., 2014), the social media stimulated interactivity between peers and teachers explained a substantial proportion of the variance in Active
Collaborative Learning ($R^2 = 72.5\%$) but a smaller proportion of the variance in Engagement ($R^2 = 59.6\%$). Consequently, there is room for improvement for educators at KAU to devise more interactive activities, based on the use of social media that may help improve the students’ level of sustained involvement in learning. Although an ambitious goal, this recommendation is consistent with the conclusion of Chao et al. (2011) that, in order to develop an interactive social media based learning environment, it is not only important to build a community of actively collaborating users, it is also necessary to leverage social media technologies to enhance the level of student engagement.

5. Conclusions and recommendations for future research

The validation and evaluation of the SM-LP model indicated that a high frequency of social media usage by female Saudi undergraduate students may promote interactivity, active collaborative learning, and engagement, and may ultimately result in improved learning performance. Increasing the frequency of usage of social media may help improve the quality of the Arab/Islamic sex-segregated education system. The limitation of model is that it was operationalized using cross-sectional survey data, based on the perceptions of students. Consequently, the model did not prove the existence of a causal relationship between social media usage and learning performance. Further studies, using an experimental research design, are required to determine the extent to which enhanced learning performance (e.g., improved grades for activities, tests, and examinations) may be directly or indirectly linked to the high frequency of use of social media. Furthermore, because this study focused only on female Saudi students, the question of whether the SM-LP model would generate similar predictions for male Saudi students’ needs to be addressed. Al-Sharki and Hashim (2016) found that the female students at KAU had a stronger inclination toward usage of social media for learning compared to their male counterparts, suggesting that the SM-LP model might generate significantly different outcomes for male students.

The overall conclusion is that the SM-LP model demonstrated a very strong acknowledgement and endorsement of the use of social media as an effective learning tool by female Saudi undergraduates in a sex-segregated educational system. The SM-LP model predicted that female Saudi students perceived that they could potentially improve their learning performance, through using social media. The extent to which the SM-LP model is relevant to other educational systems, outside the KSA, needs to be evaluated. Replication of the SM-LP model based on survey data collected at other universities would allow for meaningful intercultural and international comparisons.

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Perceived Effectiveness of Social Media as an English Teaching Tool

Abdulrahman Alsaied


Jackson, C. (2011). Your students love social media ... and so can you. Teaching Tolerance, 39, 38-41.


ACL = Active Cooperative Learning; ENG = Engagement; IWP = Interaction with Peers; IWT = Interaction with Teachers; LOU = Level of Use; LP = Learning Performance

Figure 1. Social Media - Learning Performance (SM-LP) model
ACL = Active Cooperative Learning; ENG = Engagement; IWP = Interaction with Peers; IWT = Interaction with Teachers; LOU = Level of Use; LP = Learning Performance

Figure 2. Social Media-Learning Performance (SM-LP) model operationalized by PLS-SEM

Table 1
Items with 5-point scales used to measure the latent variables in the SM-LP model

| LEVEL OF USE (LOU) | Communication: I like to use social media for communicating with friends and family  
|                   | Education: I like to use social media for education 
|                   | Experience: Experience using social media 
|                   | Familiarity: I am familiar with the use of social media  
|                   | Frequency: I frequently use social media  
| INTERACTIVITY WITH PEERS (IWP): | IWP1: Using social media facilitates my interactions with other students,  
|                       | IWP2: Using social media gives me the opportunity to enhance my feeling of belonging to my student community |
Perceived Effectiveness of Social Media as an English Learning Tool

IWP3: Using social media facilitates me to learn English with other students
IWP4: Using social media facilitates exchange of information between students.

**INTERACTIVITY WITH TEACHERS (IWT)**
IWT1: Using social media facilitates my interactions with the teachers
IWT2: Using social media gives me the opportunity to obtain all the information that I need from the teachers
IWT3: Using social media helps teachers to improve the learning experience of students
IWT4: Using social media provides teachers with an opportunity to provide feedback to students

**ACTIVE COOPERATIVE LEARNING (ACL)**
ACL1: Using social media helps me to actively collaborate with others in my learning experience.
ACL2: Using social media allows me to create my own learning experience with other students
ACL3: Using social media allows me to share my learning experience with other students
ACL4: Using social media gives me freedom to participate in my own learning experience.

**ENGAGEMENT (ENG):**
ENG1: Using social media makes learning more interesting
ENG2: Using social media makes me feel that I am engaged in a learning community
ENG3: Using social media improves my personal relationships with others
ENG4: I am very satisfied with my overall experience of using social media

**LEARNING PERFORMANCE (LP)**
LP1: Using social media helps me to better understand the English language
LP2: Using social media helps me to improve my learning in class
LP3: Using social media helps me to improve my performance in activities and examinations
LP4: My learning performance would not be so good if I do not use social media
LP5: I am not facing any problems in using social media for learning

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**Table 2**

*Factor loading coefficients for the 26 items in the measurement model*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>LOU</th>
<th>ACL</th>
<th>ENG</th>
<th>IP</th>
<th>IT</th>
<th>LP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>.417</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>.487</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td>.408</td>
<td>.550</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>.466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>.500</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>.284</td>
<td>.205</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>.253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiarity</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>.300</td>
<td>.291</td>
<td>.286</td>
<td>.282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>.708</td>
<td>.352</td>
<td>.373</td>
<td>.398</td>
<td>.377</td>
<td>.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACL1</td>
<td>.536</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>.717</td>
<td>.698</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note: Highlighted factor loadings refer to items reflecting each of the latent variables

Table 3

Quality criteria for the measurement model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent Variable</th>
<th>Average Variance Explained (AVE %)</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active Collaborative Learning</td>
<td>79.3%</td>
<td>.939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>70.4%</td>
<td>.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction with Peers</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction with Teachers</td>
<td>68.4%</td>
<td>.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Performance</td>
<td>65.9%</td>
<td>.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Use</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>.812</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Effect of the Academic Attainment of ESL Teachers on Evaluation of ESL Learners’ Errors: Educational Degree-Based Study

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Abstract
This paper analyzes reactions and evaluations of 70 participants, native and non-native speakers of English to 32 errors written by learners of English as a second language, ESL. It investigates the effect of the academic attainment of ESL teachers on the evaluation of ESL error seriousness. The educational attainment of teachers, both native and non-native, include the B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees. Participants in the study include 34 non-native Palestinian ESL teachers, 26 English native speaking ESL teachers, and 10 English native speakers who are not teachers. Errors in this study are taken from compositions written by Arab-Palestinian students. Eight error categories including prepositions, concord, word order, plural, pronouns, spelling, vocabulary, and verb form are used. Four correct sentences are also included. All participants for the study had to underline errors and evaluate them by indicating the points from 0-5 they would deduct for each error; 5 indicates very serious errors; 0 is for error-free sentences; “1” is for errors which can easily be excused; “2”, “3”, and “4” are means to show intermediate degrees of seriousness. Results of the study show that the three academic groups differ in their evaluation of errors. Whereas the Ph.D. groups are the most lenient, the M.A. groups are the least tolerant. The non-teachers are the most tolerant of all groups.

Keywords: Educational attainment and ESL error evaluation, English native speakers' vs. non-natives' ESL error evaluation, error gravity,

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Introduction: The Study
Interest in ESL teachers’ perceptions and reactions to learners’ errors began in the 1970s and increased in the 80s with a number of publications e.g. (James, 1977), (Hughes & Lascaratou 1982), (Davies, 1983), (Van, Meyer, & Lorenz, 1984), and (Shoerey, 1986). As a field in second language research, it is categorized under the topic of “error gravity”. Error gravity looks into evaluations to errors committed by ESL learners. Judges are given erroneous sentences that are taken from English language learners’ writings and are asked to judge the seriousness of those errors.

Correcting ESL learners’ writing is possibly the hardest task teachers have to do because such tasks are subjective for both teachers and learners. This subjectivity is quite often distressing to learners who get a grade without receiving guidelines showing the rationale for that grade. Correction is upsetting to teachers as well. Teachers depend on their experience in evaluating learners’ errors. It seems that teachers have inner criteria that help them evaluate their students’ errors. These criteria appear to be organized in a way that errors of different language aspects and categories are evaluated differently. Van, Meyer, & Lorenz (1984) state, “ESL writing instructors face the chronic dilemma of deciding how much to emphasize structured and mechanical correctness in relation to instruction in other areas such as content and organization” (p.427).

Interest in this research stems from (1) the interest to compare and contrast between Arab-Palestinian teachers’ perceptions and those of teachers from other linguistic backgrounds, namely English teachers, to see if Palestinian teachers share a global sensitivity for judging and evaluating ESL written errors, (2) the concern to know if the evaluators’ academic attainment, including B.A., M.A., and Ph.D., plays a role in the evaluations process and the perceptions the educated groups have about error categories; the researcher has not come across any academic-degree-based study in this field, (3) the fact that no study about error gravity has been conducted in the Arab World, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, and (4) the curiosity to compare between on-teacher English native speakers vs. English native and non-native Palestinian ESL teachers. It tries to answer the following questions:

1. Are there differences in the evaluation process between native and non-native speakers? If yes, what are these differences?
2. Are there education-based differences in the evaluation process between native and non-native Palestinian ESL teachers? If yes, what are these differences?
3. Are there degree-based differences in the evaluation process between the B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. groups, native and non-native? If yes, what are these differences?
4. Are there differences in the evaluation process between native groups, teacher and non-teacher? If yes, what are these differences?
5. What are the most and least irritating ESL errors to these different groups?
6. Which group is the most tolerant and which is the least lenient?

Literature Review
Errors are often inevitable outcomes in a second language learning environment. Brown (1987, p. 169) states, “Human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of
errors”. Errors are studied from different perspectives. Whereas they are seen as a matter of bad learning and negative transfer and interference of the first language, a view deeply rooted in the behavioristic school e.g. (Skinner, 1957) and (Lado, 1957), errors are considered systematic, logical, and justifiable by cognitive linguists e.g. (Chomsky, 1965, 1968) and (Dulay & Burt, 1973). James (1998: 1) states that error analysis is a major component of core linguistics; he defines error analysis as “the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language”. Ludvig (1982) states that the aim of error studies has changed in scope and analysis over the years. While some studies e.g. (Richards, 1997), (Richards & Sampson, 1997), (Corder, 1971, 1997), (Selinker, 1992), and (James, 1998) look into the types of errors and the frequency of their occurrence in an effort to advance understanding about learners’ linguistic processes and communicative strategies, other scholars e.g. (James, 1977), (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982), (Davies, 1983), (Van, Meyer, & Lorenz, 1984), and (Shoerey, 1986) investigate native speakers’ reactions, evaluations, and rankings of ESL errors to determine which errors are tolerable and acceptable and which cause intolerance and irritation. By doing so, concentration shifts from learner-focused approaches to research focusing on native speakers’ and ESL teachers’ reactions to learners’ language errors.

How are errors defined and what determines whether a certain structure is erroneous or not? Brown (1987, p. 170) differentiates between a mistake and an error; “a mistake is a performance error that is either a random guess or a slip, in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly” and error as “a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker”. Brown, however, claims that it is not always easy to differentiate between mistakes and errors. Ferris (2014, p. 3) defines error as “morphological, syntactic, and lexical forms that deviate from rules of the target language, violating the expectations of literate adult native speakers”. Tran-Thi-Chau (1975) states that errors are determined by “tests of acceptability or non-acceptability by native speakers”. (p. 41)

Researchers e.g. (James, 1977), (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982), (Davies, 1983), (Van, Meyer, & Lorenz, 1984), and (Shoerey, 1986) look into errors from a different perspective: they try to investigate how teachers and speakers of a language perceive different language errors and if these evaluators have some sort of error categorization. These researchers compare between native and non-native teachers’ evaluations of ESL written errors. Interestingly, they find the same results which are non-native English language teachers’ intolerance of ESL learners’ errors compared to native English teachers’ leniency. Another finding is that whereas non-native teachers seek accuracy, native teachers mark for comprehensibility. It is worth mentioning that research in error evaluation has also been investigated in different languages. e.g. (Politser, 1978) and (Delisle, 1982): German; (Guntermann, 1978) and (Chastain, 1980): Spanish; (Piazza, 1980) and (Ensiz, 1982): French. They all, however, have one common goal: “investigating evaluations to learners’ errors”.

This study is carried out to see if findings of this study are consistent with other studies. However, this research goes a step further. It investigates the role of the teachers’ academic attainment in the evaluation process. Three groups of different academic attainments participate in this study. These groups include teachers with B.A., M.A., and
Ph.D. degrees. Academic attainment is researched to investigate if it plays any role in the evaluation process. If yes, what is it? How does each group perceive errors? Ten non-teacher English native participants also take part in the study. The aim of their involvement is to look into the perceptions and evaluations of people outside the academic community.

The Study Material
The data for this study are taken from compositions written by Arab-Palestinian learners of English as a second language. Errors to be evaluated in this study are of the same error categories used in Hughes and Lascaratou’s(1982) study; reasons for the use of the same error categories is to make comparisons and contrasts between our findings and those of other researchers. Thirty-two sentences of eight error categories including prepositions, concord, word order, plural, pronouns, spelling, vocabulary, and verb form are used; four sentences of each category are included. Four correct sentences are also included. Sentences used in the study are presented in the appendix.

Methodology
The erroneous sentences are given to evaluators who are asked to evaluate the seriousness of errors using a scale from (0-5) by indicating the points they would deduct for each error. “0” is for error-free sentences and “5” is for errors considered very serious. “1” is for errors which could easily be excused. “2”, “3”, and “4” are means to show intermediate degrees of seriousness. The second method is post-research interviews with some participants. Interviews are conducted to give deeper insights about evaluations.

Participants
Participants in the study consist of three groups: English native ESL teachers, non-native Palestinian ESL teachers, and non-teacher English native speakers. The educational attainment for the academic groups include B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees. Participants are divided as follows:

1. Thirty-four non-native Palestinian ESL teachers. These include10B.A., 12M.A., and 12Ph.D. The native language for the non-native Palestinian group is Arabic. This group will be referred to as non-native Palestinian teachers and non-native teachers.
2. Twenty-six English native speaking ESL teachers including 10B.A., 8 M.A., and 8Ph.D. This group will be referred to as English teachers and native teachers.
3. Ten non-teacher English native speakers. This group will be referred to as non-teacher natives.

Data Analysis
Data analyses confirm previous results found by(James, 1977), (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982), (Davies, 1983), and (Shoerey, 1986) in that non-native teachers in general are less tolerant of errors and deduct more points than native speaking teachers. The teacher groups, native and non-native, also deduct significantly more points than the non-teacher group. See table 1 for total points and averages of deduction. Total points refer to the overall number of points deducted for a certain error category and average refers to the number of points deducted by each individual participant for a certain error category.
Table 1
Total points deducted by Palestinian teachers, English teachers, and non-teacher natives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judges</th>
<th>No. of Judges</th>
<th>Total Points Deducted</th>
<th>Deduction Average per Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Palestinians teachers</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3368</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native teachers</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2352</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No-teacher natives</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>72.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The maximum number of points a judge can deduct is 180 and the lowest is 0. Non-native-Palestinian teachers deduct more points than native teachers. The total points deducted by the 34 non-native Palestinian teachers are 3368 with an average of 99.1 points per teacher; 99.1 out of the 180 points a judge can deduct. Native teachers have deducted a total of 2352 points with an average of 90.4 per native teacher. However, a marked difference in the average of deduction can be seen between the non-teacher natives and the teacher groups, particularly the Palestinian ESL teachers. The ten non-teacher participants deduct a total of 722 points with a deduction average of 72.2 per each non-teacher native.

Results of this study lend support to other studies of the same interest; native groups are more tolerant than non-natives. This raises a number of questions. Why are native speakers more lenient towards errors by ESL learners? Why are non-teacher native speakers the most tolerant of all groups? What role does the educational attainment play in error evaluation? Is there a similar trend between the different educational groups or do they differ?

Palestinian teachers pay the most attention to grammatical rules and accuracy. They rank concord first, verb form second, and spelling third. These categories, noticeably concord and verb form, are grammar-based aspects that are learned through rules. Rules are either right or wrong; there is no space for in-between grammaticality. Spelling is also definite. One teacher said, “They [learners] write the way they like; many write the way they pronounce words believing that spelling fully corresponds to pronunciation.” Table 2 shows total points deducted and ranking of errors by all study participants.

Table 2
Ranking of error categories for Palestinian teachers, native teachers, and non-teacher natives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error Category</th>
<th>Palestinian Teachers</th>
<th>Native Teachers</th>
<th>Non-Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Points</td>
<td>Error Rank</td>
<td>Total Points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concord</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb form</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Palestinian teachers seem to know the grammatical rules more than the other linguistic aspects. To understand this, we need to consider the English language educational ecology of these teachers; the educational background for the Palestinian teachers included in this study is grammar-based.

Prepositions rank last in error categories; they actually rank the least serious for all Palestinian participants. Van, Meyer, and Lorenz (1984, p. 432) state that prepositions are idiosyncratic; they add that prepositions, pronouns, and subject-verb agreement are less rule-governed and less likely to interfere with comprehension. This may interpret why prepositions are not regarded irritating. Prepositions do not cause communication breakdown the way vocabulary does; students incorrectly add, delete, or replace them. Some participants, namely Palestinian teachers, look at sentences belonging to the preposition error category as either error-free or mistakenly replace correct prepositions by wrong ones. Disagreement among native speakers over the use of prepositions could also be noticed. For example, the sentence “The boy went off in a faint”, which is deliberately copied from (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982), marks disagreement among participants including native speakers. Some native speakers consider it right; others consider it serious. When non-native ESL teachers are asked about the category of prepositions, the following responses are obtained, “I get confused as to which preposition to use; though I may not know the exact correct preposition, I can still manage and I can put my message across”, “Sometimes, more than one preposition can be used in the same sentence and in both cases the meaning is correct.”, “We have them in Arabic; so I usually go back to Arabic when using them; they are not a problem for me.” In fact, the four preposition erroneous sentences in the study are literal translations from Arabic.

Looking at table 2, one can see the relative closeness in evaluation between native teachers and non-teacher natives. For example, the former group regard vocabulary as the most serious. The latter group rank the same category, vocabulary, second. Non-native Palestinian teachers, however, rank vocabulary sixth. This supports (Shoerey, 1986) who also finds lexical errors as more serious by native speakers than by non-native teachers. A possible interpretation for non-natives’ ranking of vocabulary as tolerable is that non-native teachers’ inventory of vocabulary will still be lacking regardless of efforts put to bring it to a better state. Vocabulary is by far among the hardest aspects for non-natives to attain in the sense that the number of vocabulary items in a language is more than can be easily attained. Regardless of the number of vocabulary items a learner knows, there will always be words that are not part of the learner’s system. A non-native Palestinian teacher commented, “I’m not a dictionary; my mind is not a dictionary.” Another one asked, “Am I an encyclopedia to know all the words of the English language?” It seems that when a learner knows a word that serves him/her well and helps him/her put their messages across, that learner will not feel the need to learn other synonyms that would serve the same function. This, however, is opposite to grammar, concord and verb forms, in which

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>302</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>248</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>73</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3370</td>
<td>2352</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>722</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Preposition rank last in error categories; they actually rank the least serious for all Palestinian participants. Van, Meyer, and Lorenz (1984, p. 432) state that prepositions are idiosyncratic; they add that prepositions, pronouns, and subject-verb agreement are less rule-governed and less likely to interfere with comprehension. This may interpret why prepositions are not regarded irritating. Prepositions do not cause communication breakdown the way vocabulary does; students incorrectly add, delete, or replace them. Some participants, namely Palestinian teachers, look at sentences belonging to the preposition error category as either error-free or mistakenly replace correct prepositions by wrong ones. Disagreement among native speakers over the use of prepositions could also be noticed. For example, the sentence “The boy went off in a faint”, which is deliberately copied from (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982), marks disagreement among participants including native speakers. Some native speakers consider it right; others consider it serious. When non-native ESL teachers are asked about the category of prepositions, the following responses are obtained, “I get confused as to which preposition to use; though I may not know the exact correct preposition, I can still manage and I can put my message across”, “Sometimes, more than one preposition can be used in the same sentence and in both cases the meaning is correct.”, “We have them in Arabic; so I usually go back to Arabic when using them; they are not a problem for me.” In fact, the four preposition erroneous sentences in the study are literal translations from Arabic.

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definite grammatical rules are learned. Knowing these limited rules will be easier than knowing an endless number of vocabulary items.

**Differences and Similarities between This Study and Other Studies**

Data analysis of this study confirms (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982) findings regarding spelling. It has found that non-teacher natives consider spelling as the most serious and rank it first with a total deduction of 101 points. This, however, contradicts (Shoerey, 1986) findings regarding the same category. Evaluators in the former study rank spelling last. The current research, however, shares Shoerey’s findings that lexical errors are judged as more serious by native groups than by non-natives. In fact, results of this study show that both native groups consider lexical errors among the two most serious. English native teachers rank vocabulary errors first and non-teachers rank it second. An opposite evaluation of vocabulary can be noticed among non-native Palestinian teachers who rank vocabulary sixth, a result that lends support to (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982) whose study rank vocabulary fifth. To Palestinians, the use of a certain vocabulary item that does not give the intended meaning but reflects a semi-synonymous meaning in a given context is considered good enough e.g. tell vs. speak.

**Evaluation in Relation to Educational Attainment**

This part of the study analyzes data from the academic attainment perspective of the Palestinian and native ESL teachers. Educational attainment considered in the study include teachers who hold B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees. Non-teacher natives are excluded from this section. Table 3 shows the numbers of participants, Palestinian and native, and their educational attainment.

**Table 3**

*Numbers of participants included and their educational attainment.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B.A. Teachers</th>
<th>M.A. Teachers</th>
<th>Ph.D. Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Palestinian</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>Palestinian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking back at table 2, one can see that the three Palestinian academic groups rank concord as the most serious, verb form ranked second, and spelling third. Native teachers, however, rank vocabulary, concord, and pronouns respectively as the most intolerable errors. Both consider preposition errors as the least irritating.

**B.A.: Palestinian vs. Native**

Palestinian B.A. teachers rank concord as the most serious, verb form and spelling come second and third respectively. Native B.A. teachers, however, judge vocabulary as the most serious error, plural second, and pronouns third. Both B.A. groups rank word order sixth. Table 4 shows ranking of errors by B.A. groups, Palestinian and native.

**Table 4**

*Ranking of errors by B.A. teachers, Palestinian and native.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error Category</th>
<th>B.A Palestinian Teachers</th>
<th>B.A Native Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Points Deducted</td>
<td>Degree of Seriousness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Whereas Palestinian B.A. teachers deduct a total of 972 points, native teachers of the same educational attainment deduct 900 points with an average of 97.2 and 90 points per each B.A. teacher for Palestinians and natives respectively.

**M.A.: Palestinian vs. Native**
The researcher thought that the M.A. group would be more tolerant than the B.A. assuming that the higher the educational attainment, the more lenient the evaluator would be. Data analysis, however, shows the opposite. M.A. teachers, Palestinian and native, are less tolerant of errors than B.A. teachers. Palestinian M.A. teachers regard verb form as the most serious, plural and concord ranked second and third respectively. Native teachers like all other native groups are more tolerant of learners’ errors than non-native Palestinian teachers. Native M.A. teachers rank concord first, vocabulary second, and spelling third. Both M.A. groups judge prepositions to be the least serious. Table 5 shows ranking of errors by M.A. groups, Palestinian and native.

**Table 5**  
*Ranking of errors by M.A. teachers, Palestinian and native.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error Category</th>
<th>M.A Palestinian Teachers</th>
<th>M.A Native Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Points Deducted</td>
<td>Degree of Seriousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb form</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concord</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1264</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>105.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 shows that 1264 points are deducted by M.A. Palestinian teachers with an average of 105.3 points per teacher compared to a total deduction of 812 points for native teachers with a deduction average of 101.5 per teacher.

When we compare non-native teachers, M.A. and B.A together, it seems that these teachers share a similar perception of the seriousness of grammatical errors e.g. concord and verb form. Whereas Palestinian M.A. teachers rank verb form as number one serious error, Palestinian B.A. teachers rank it second. The former place concord third and the latter rank it first. Both groups judge preposition errors as the least serious.

Differences, however, exist between the two with regard to point deduction. Palestinian B.As. are more lenient than M.A. teachers with a deduction average of 97.2 for B.A. and 105.3 for M.A. Why is that? A possible explanation for this is that B.A. teachers are closer to students in terms of knowledge. B.A. teachers’ proficiency, namely Palestinians, is not sophisticated nor highly concentrated. Teachers themselves may not have adequate mastery of the English language. Evidence for this can be obtained from the fact that some Palestinian B.A. teachers have failed to spot out errors in some of the sentences given. They have either unnoticed errors or underlined correct parts as erroneous. A non-native B.A. teacher commented, “Honestly, I didn’t know if I did well or not.” Another one said, “Can I ask about some of the sentences? I want to know. I couldn’t figure out correct from incorrect sentences.” A point to bear in mind is that these teachers are strict in grammatical errors.

A possible interpretation for M.A. teachers’ stricter judgment might be due to proficiency differences between teachers and learners. They are the most to complain about errors. It seems that all kinds of errors irritate them. Teachers probably have high expectations for students. But as students do not meet those expectations, their errors are judged strictly. When Palestinian M.A. teachers are asked about errors, their answers reflect their intolerance. They responded by saying, “Who doesn’t know subject-verb agreement?”; “How can someone use the past after to infinitive?” It seems that errors are irritating to the MA group. A non-native M.A. Palestinian teacher commented, “What’s wrong is wrong; you can’t regard a certain error as more acceptable than another.” This lends support to Albrechtsen, Henrikse,&Faerch (1980,p. 394) who claim that studies looking into the hierarchical arrangement of errors are fruitless and ineffective because “all errors are equally irritating… irritation is directly predictable from the number of errors regardless of the error type or other linguistic aspects”.

**Ph.D.: Palestinian vs. Native**

Ph.D. teachers, Palestinian and native, are the most tolerant of errors with more leniency by the native than the Palestinian. Results show that 1132 points compared to 640 points are deducted by Ph.D. Palestinian and Ph.D. native teachers respectively with a deduction average of 94.3 and 80 per each Ph.D. for both groups respectively. Table 6 shows ranking of errors by Ph.D. groups, Palestinian and native.
Table 6
Ranking of errors by Ph.D. teachers, Palestinian and native.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error Category</th>
<th>Ph.D. Palestinian Teachers</th>
<th>Ph.D. Native Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Points Deducted</td>
<td>Degree of Seriousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concord</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb form</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1132</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>94.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data analysis shows closeness in evaluation between the two Ph.D.-teacher groups, native and Palestinian. Both groups rank the categories of pronouns, spelling, vocabulary and concord as the most serious. Palestinian Ph.D.s rank pronouns as the most serious to be followed by spelling and vocabulary. In fact, this is the only non-native educated group that ranks lexical errors among the serious errors. Native Ph.D.s rank spelling as the most serious; concord ranks second; they deduct the same amount of points for pronouns and vocabulary, which gives them the third rank. Both Ph.D. groups give verb form the same rank, fifth. Worthy of mention is that Palestinians rank concord fourth, a ranking away from the other Palestinian academic groups. This ranking reflects a less grammar-based evaluation than that of the Palestinian B.A. and M.A. teachers. The two Ph.D. groups seem to focus on intelligibility and communication.

When asked about how they perceive errors, one respondent said; “There are mistakes that make communication unintelligible if not impossible and at the same time other mistakes can be overlooked as they don’t cause a breakdown in communication. You need to be understanding in this regard. If a learner can put his message across with minor errors, this is Ok.” Another one said, “As time goes by, you start to have your own philosophy which is you can’t make perfect of each learner you come across. Learners are of different kinds; some are good, others are slow or even fossilized. You need to deal with them from this perspective and accept your students with the abilities they have, so you look at their errors from the same perspective [acceptance].” A third commented, “A good learner is a good learner; but you can’t have outstanding learners all the time. You need to accommodate your expectations to what you actually have; if you are to be very strict and seek perfection, no learner will pass and many will get frustrated; so you accept what you have and behave accordingly”.

Conclusion
This study looks into judgments and evaluations of three groups consisting of 34 non-native Palestinians ESL teachers, 26 ESL English native teachers and 10 non-teacher
English native speakers to 32 ESL learners’ written errors. Findings of this study are consistent with and confirm other studies e.g. (James, 1977), (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982), (Davies, 1983), and (Shoerey, 1986), which find that native speakers, both teachers and non-teachers, are more tolerant of errors than non-native teachers.

The most lenient group is the non-teacher natives whose main interest seems merely communication. They focus on intelligibility of messages conveyed rather than grammaticality. The Palestinian teachers are the strictest; they focus on the grammatical accuracy of the learners’ output. To Palestinian teachers, grammatical errors like verb form and concord are considered more serious than other errors e.g. prepositions and vocabulary. Perhaps, this is because grammaticality is basic and definitive. Verb form and concord reflect grammar basicness and violating a fundamental grammatical rule is very serious to them.

Native teachers, however, take an intermediate position between the two other groups, Palestinian teachers and non-teacher natives. Native ESL teachers seem to be interested in communication and intelligibility, but at the same time, they emphasize the basicness of rules, though to a lesser extent than Palestinians; intelligibility of communication is important and for it to be effective, attention must be given to both grammatical rules and the interaction process. Native teachers prove to be more tolerant of these errors than non-native Palestinian teachers. This can be attributed to the native speakers’ better knowledge and mastery of the language. They know more vocabulary and have better mastery of the different linguistic structures and aspects, skills that very few non-native teachers can attain. Native speakers’ tacit knowledge enables them to manipulate language aspects and to be more accepting of language forms that may not be acceptable or possibly ambiguous and puzzling to non-natives in general.

In this study, an additional dimension to error gravity studies is introduced. It is the evaluation of errors in relation to the academic attainment of judges. This study compares evaluations of native and non-native Palestinian ESL teachers in relation to their educational degrees. Error evaluations in relation to evaluators’ educational attainment show that Ph.Ds., native and Palestinian, are the most lenient of all educated groups, with more tolerance by native teachers than by non-natives. What is irritating to other groups is tolerable to this group. Perhaps, this is because their degrees equip them with more proficiency and wider knowledge of the various language aspects. In fact, it is in this educational group that the most marked similarity in evaluation between native and Palestinian teachers is noticed. They regard errors hindering intelligibility and comprehensibility e.g. vocabulary as more serious than errors associated with grammatical rules.

B.A. teachers rank second regarding tolerance of errors; native B.As. show more leniency than Palestinians with the same degree. Teachers with the B.A. degree, namely Palestinians, concentrate on basicness of rules rather than on intelligibility and communication. To Palestinian B.As, tolerance of errors other than the grammatical e.g. verb form and concord is perhaps because of their linguistic insecurity and insufficient knowledge in other language aspects e.g. vocabulary.
Expectations were that M.A. teachers would be more lenient than B.A. teachers, results, however, come opposite to these expectations. Analyses of error evaluations for native and Palestinian M.A. teachers show that these teachers are the strictest in evaluating ESL learners’ errors. Interestingly, native M.A. teachers show the same trend of leniency as the other native teachers; they judge errors less rigidly than Palestinian M.A. teachers.

Implication and Contribution of the Study
Even though, this study is limited in scope as it only considers written errors that are both limited in category and confined to the sentence level and even though it does not provide direct and decisive applications to the teaching/learning process and to error analysis, it still gives insight into the field as the findings of the study remain consistent:
1. Judgments have error hierarchies.
2. There are differences in evaluators’ judgments.
3. Native speakers, ESL teachers and non-teachers, are more tolerant than non-natives Palestinian teachers in the evaluation of ESL errors.
4. The non-teacher native group is the most tolerant.
5. The academic attainment seems to play a role in the evaluation process and the ranking of errors.

About the Author:
Wael Abdeen is a Palestinian researcher who works in Birzeit University-Palestine, Department of the English Language and Literature. Research interests are English language learning and teaching, linguistics, and sociolinguistics.

References


**Appendix**

*Questionnaire items used in the study*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Questionnaire items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Verb form</td>
<td>Fruit like apples and bananas <em>don’t be eaten</em> by cats and dogs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>The players play sometimes football in the local yard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pronoun</td>
<td>The book on the desk in the back is <em>mine book</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>The <em>wether</em> was very hot when we arrived in the afternoon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>Nobody noticed them cross the street.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Concord</td>
<td>In the hospital, one of patients <em>were</em> not fine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>The people liked the <em>informations</em> in the newspaper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>We could not say anything because we were not good <em>in</em> English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>The high speed <em>occurs</em> terrible accidents all over the world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>She didn’t know what to do but she finally <em>shosed</em> the red one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>I’d rather stay home than go to work because of the rain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>We ate a very delicious <em>male</em> in the new restaurant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Verb form</td>
<td>I <em>calling</em> all the time, but nobody answered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Pronoun</td>
<td>The man who <em>he</em> drives the bus to the city is not fast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>She added to the water <em>some sugar</em> to make it sweet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Concord</td>
<td>The little birds and their mother <em>was</em> swimming in the river.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Many young and old people nowadays live alone <em>in</em> themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>The news <em>were</em> good because he was safe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>The young woman didn’t <em>ecepct</em> to win the money.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Verb form</td>
<td>In the early morning, my father <em>is goes</em> to work by bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Pronoun</td>
<td>I like my school because <em>she</em> is big and near my house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>The guides <em>tell</em> many languages like English, French, and Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Concord</td>
<td>My friend is still young, but he <em>smoke</em> all the time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>The boy went off in a faint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>We didn’t know <em>why should everybody</em> leave the bus in a hurry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Pronoun</td>
<td>Pronouns are easy to learn because <em>its</em> number is small.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>The little girls were afraid <em>from</em> the dog in the park.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>My uncle wanted to fix the <em>bart</em> that didn’t work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>The <em>mouses</em> were bigger than the cats in the zoo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Verb form</td>
<td>The baby <em>cans</em> speak any word you want.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>The <em>affection</em> of pollution is bad for our health.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>The doctor ordered that he take his medicine on time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>A good example <em>on</em> a stop consonant is /d/.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Concord</td>
<td>There <em>is</em> not many sounds that are nasal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>I met my two uncles in the mall <em>who live in America</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>The house was full of beautiful furnishings.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Effect of Technology Enhanced Language Learning on EFL Reading Comprehension at Tertiary Level

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Abstract
The study investigated the impact of the affordance of computer assisted language learning (CALL) and mobile assisted language learning (MALL) on EFL reading comprehension at tertiary level. Pre-formed intact groups were used to conduct this quasi-experimental study. It used a pretest and post-test control group design. The participants were 122 first year university students. Computer-based reading comprehension exercises were used as intervention that lasted for six weeks. Vocabulary was pre-taught through WhatsApp. Post-test results of the reading comprehension achievement test revealed that the treatment group outperformed their counterparts in the control group. The results indicate the significance of technology incorporation in language learning process. The study shows the effective use of technology in EFL reading instruction. It works best when integrated in the instructional scheme. Results of the study also suggest that freely available technological resources can be used to create a conducive reading environment. The study needs to be replicated with bigger sample and longer period of intervention for more accurate results.

Keywords: Computer-based instructional materials, EFL reading comprehension, Hot Potatoes, Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL), WhatsApp

1. Introduction
Reading is a fundamental skill for academic success. Tertiary level students need to read vast amount of information to achieve their academic goals (Wright, Fugett, & Caputa, 2013). English as a foreign language (EFL) reading process is very complex as it entails interplay of multifarious factors and absence or presence of any one of these factors can spell success or failure. Students in Saudi universities are found lacking in language skills which are necessary for sustained performance in their pursuit of various disciplines (Khan, 2011). Limited exposure to English texts, lack of motivation and teacher-centered pedagogical practices are some of factors that have resulted in unsatisfactory performance of Saudi students in all language skills (Elyas & Picard, 2010; Morris, 2011). Another challenge for EFL reading in Saudi context is that reading has never been a skill of choice in Saudi culture because it is an oral culture and not a literate one (Zaharna, 1995). Therefore, there is a need to improve EFL reading practices in Saudi Arabia. Modern technology in form of computers and mobile phones has shown promise in language teaching and learning process (Bush, 2008; Chapelle, 2010; Slavin, Cheung, Groff, & Lake, 2008). Among other possibilities of the use of computers as instructional tools, use of computer authoring tools can be an important step in integrating technology in language classrooms. Use of these tools has been proved effective in EFL reading instruction (Davies, Walker, Rendall, & Hewer, 2011; Sadeghi & Soleimani, 2015). Likewise, mobile language learning (MALL) has also gained popularity in the past two decades. However, no study has been carried out in Saudi context to investigate the effect of these authoring tools on EFL reading comprehension and impact of MALL on vocabulary learning of tertiary level students. There is a gap in literature and the present study aims to fill it.

2. Literature Review
2.1. EFL/ESL Theory and Reading
This section reviews some of the theoretical perspectives on ESL/EFL reading before looking at the studies conducted in use of technology for promoting reading comprehension. ESL theory has been in a state of flux (Taber, 2006) in the best part of the preceding century. Different methods were proposed and discarded in quick succession. Krashen (1981), by propounding his Second Language Acquisition theory, tried to reconcile the competing methods through his fifth hypothesis that is the input hypothesis. According to this hypothesis he asserted that any method could be used for language acquisition as long as it ensures maximum comprehensible input in a low affective filter (Dulay & Burt, 1978; Krashen, 1981) environment. This view is strengthened in the light of brain research. Brain scans indicate that there is no specialized center in the brain to control reading process and areas that control it seem to be spread across brain which means that bits of information during the reading activity need to cross synaptic gaps. Signal in these gaps is carried by a chemical called dopamine and low filter environment helps in release of more dopamine (Willis, 2008). Repeated Reading (RR) technique put forward by Joshua Cohen (2011) has also been found helpful. Free voluntary reading (FVR) (Krashen, 2011) sometimes referred to as sustained silent reading (SSR) has been identified as the best approach to reading. Readers need to have access to diverse reading materials. It is important that they should be able to choose reading materials that interest them and that are in their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978) or (i+1) as Krashen (1982) puts it. Internet can be immensely helpful in doing that.
Schema theory approaches the problem of reading from another angle. It asserts that during reading an interaction among reader, writer, text and reader’s previous knowledge takes place. This connection with previous knowledge, called activation of schemata by schema theorists, has been identified as decisive factor in the success of reading comprehension (Bartlett & Bartlett, 1995; Rydland, Aukrust, & Fulland, 2012). Literature supports construct of this theory as the learners’ performance improved when materials related to their previous knowledge were presented to them (Boulware-Goorden, Carreker, Thornhill, & Joshi, 2007).

Dual coding theory (DCT) advocates that human cognition is divided into two subsystems called ‘logogens and imagens’ where the former handles language and the latter handles concrete objects. Activation and development of these subsystems have been identified as a causative variable for successful cognition (Clark & Paivio, 1991; Sadoski, Paivio, & Goetz, 1991). Eight times higher recall is reported for vocabulary presented with pictures (Clark & Paivio, 1991). Simple view of reading comprehension, as propounded in (Hoover & Gough, 1990) looks at reading as interaction of decoding and linguistic comprehension in overlapping loops. The present study tried to incorporate some of the elements of these theories to create a technology assisted EFL reading environment conducive for comprehension.

2.2. Technology and EFL Learning

Phenomenal advances in technology in the second half of the last century in the fields of computers and telecommunication (Warschauer, 2000) have made tools available for the educators to assist them in the teaching and learning process (Azizinezhad & Hashemi, 2013; Idrus & Ismail, 2013). They can design pedagogically informed tasks (Chapelle, 2010; Garrett, 2009; Warschauer & Healey, 1998) based on these affordances (Harrington, 2010) to help create a learning environment (Murray, 2008) that is characterized by appropriate difficulty levels (Cameron, 1989; Pearson, 2007), feedback (Chickering & Ehrmann, 1996) and link to previous knowledge, interactivity (Chan et al., 2006), conduciveness, innovation (Chapelle, 2001) and positivity (Eaton, 2011; Li, 2013). Hypermedia has capability to help create such an environment (Ghasemi, Hashemi, & Bardine, 2011; Nassaji, 2003; Ollerenshaw, Aidman, & Kidd, 1997; Son, 2008). Teachers need training and continuous technical support in employing these capabilities to the maximum advantage of the learners (Ghasemi et al., 2011; Gilâkjâni & Leong, 2012; Hashemi & Azizinezhad, 2011; Hsu, 2009; Johnson, Perry, & Shamir, 2010; Romano, 2003). Research into teachers’ attitudes and perceptions towards instructional technology has reported encouraging results (Güneyli, Özgür, Zeki, & Örnek, 2009; Yunus, Nordin, Salehi, Embi, & Mahamod, 2013). Technology on its own offers no magical solutions (Biancarosa & Griffiths, 2012; Kenning, 2007) and its success depends upon how teachers are prepared to use it (Balajthy, 2007; Romano, 2003). Two meta-analysis studies, (Zhao, 2003) based on nine studies and (C. Kulik & Kulik, 1991) involving 248 studies, reported significantly large effect sizes in favour technology use. The above cited literature leaves a little doubt that technology can play an important role in language learning. In the following section literature is reviewed in relation with technology as a lever to promote reading comprehension.

2.3. Technology-Assisted Reading Comprehension

Readers, while interacting with a text for the purpose of comprehending (Carroll, 1971) it, employ different strategies (Basaraba, Yovanoff, Alonzo, & Tindal, 2013; Birch, 2014; Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Zhang, 2008). They encounter immense difficulties in relating the information to
their previous knowledge (Ulmer et al., 2002) and dealing with phonetic aspects (Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2009) of the language. A meta-analysis of eighty-four studies by Slavin et al. (2008) spanning three decades and involving over sixty thousand participants reported significantly large mean effect size in favour of technology assistance. Another meta-analysis involving 40,000 participants in 33 studies (Slavin et al., 2008) reported positive findings in favor of mix-method approach which highlights the assistive nature of technology in teaching learning context. Three other meta-analysis (J. A. Kulik, 2003), (Soe, Koki, & Chang, 2000) and (Taylor, 2006) based on twenty-seven, seventeen and eighteen studies on role of technology respectively, also reported positive findings in favour of use of technology. Evaluation of different computer-based reading assistance programs, such as “computer-assisted reciprocal early English reading (CAREER) (Lan, Sung, & Chang, 2009), “computer assisted strategy teaching and learning environment (CASTLE) (Sung, Chang, & Huang, 2008), digital reading annotation system (DRAS) (C. M. Chen, Wang, & Chen, 2014), web based applications such as ABRA and ePEARL (Lysenko & Abrami, 2014) and Second Life (Burgess, Price, & Caverly, 2012), all reported positive findings that suggest their efficacy in improving reading comprehension. Similar positive gains were reported by Ponce, Lopez, and Mayer (2012) and Behjat, Yamini, and Bagheri (2012) when a computer program for reading comprehension instruction was used as an integral part of curriculum. The reading texts were coupled with graphics and highlighting. The impact of hypertext on reading comprehension was found positive because of its ability to present text in multimodal ways (Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Juan & Madrid, 2009; Montelongo & Herter, 2010). However, it has been emphasized that to save learners from losing their way in the maze of annotations in a hypertext environment, they must be trained to navigate through the text (Park & Kim, 2011; Walsh, Asha, & Sprainger, 2007). Computer-assisted cloze practice helps to promote reading comprehension (Rodrigues & Martins, 2008; Tabatabaei, 2012). It has also been found beneficial in silent reading approach (Joshua Cohen, 2011) and in both intensive and extensive reading approaches (C. N. Chen, Chen, Chen, & Wey, 2013; Lin, 2014). Feedback is an important aspect of learning process. Computers have been found valuable tools to provide instant and incessant feedback (Murphy, 2010; Potocki, Ecalle, & Magnan, 2013). Researchers have explored the potential of computers in keeping record of the choices of strategies made by readers while interacting with the text. It might give teachers clues to the critical areas where help is needed so they might plan their instruction accordingly (Huang, Chern, & Lin, 2009; Liu, Chen, & Chang, 2010). Shift from paper reading to screen reading also has been a concern of the educators. Numerous studies were conducted to evaluate how reading from screen might affect reading comprehension. There seems to be a consensus that it makes no difference to reading comprehension whether readers read on paper or screen (Kerr & Symons, 2006; Sahin, 2011; Sun, Shieh, & Huang, 2013; Wright et al., 2013). These findings favour digital reading in an indirect way because the digital texts can be presented with multiple annotations which are readily accessible. This feature of digital texts gives it an immense advantage over paper texts.

To conclude this review it can be safely stated that technology offers viable option of promoting reading comprehension. But computer intervention is not as straightforward as it might seem as there are issues surrounding it such as level of implementation, designing of tasks, context, cost, training and last but not the least its role in the teaching learning process. The present study was conducted in view of the unique context of Saudi Arabia hinted upon in the introduction. It evaluated the impact of a technology assisted intervention on reading comprehension of EFL students at a university.
3. Methodology

A quasi experimental pretest post-test control group design was used in this study. The participants were pretested before the commencement of intervention and a post-test was administered at the end of intervention period which spanned six weeks. Pre-formed intact groups of students participated in the study (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 1993).

4. Research Questions

The present study tried to answer the following research questions.

a. Does technology enhanced language input have an effect on reading comprehension skill of students on Preparatory Year Program (PYP) at university level?

b. Is technology enhanced language input gender neutral in its effect on reading comprehension of students on PYP at university level?

c.

5. Participants

The participants were one hundred twenty-two students enrolled on PYP at a public university in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. They aged between 19 and 22 years. Half of the participants were from Males’ Campus and another half was from Females’ Campus. All of them had been studying EFL at secondary schools for seven and a half year. They came from surrounding villages as well as nearby cities of Jeddah and Makkah, about 150 km from the campus. They were registered as regular students on PYP; a two semester course in other subjects and English language. All first year students are given a placement test upon their registration. On the basis of placement test results, they are assigned to different sections to form mixed-ability groups. These students have similar ability level and prior to university learning experiences at schools. The English course is 6 credit hours. They attend English classes 18 hours a week, five days a week. The study was conducted during the first half of second semester.

6. Treatment and Procedure

The treatment was given to only experimental group. The reading texts were taken from the English course book New Headways Plus Intermediate student book (Soars, Soars, & Wheeldon, 2014). First ten passages from that book were used during the intervention period for reading practice. Cloze type exercises and comprehension exercises were created based on these text passages with the help of a text manipulation tool called Hot Potatoes. This is an authoring tools suite which can create different types of interactive exercises. The exercises thus created can be shared online or on CDs for use on individual personal computers (PCs). Decision of not publishing the exercises online was taken because of three reasons. Firstly, available university infrastructure was in the process of development at the time of the study so technically it was not possible to publish the exercises online. Secondly, treatment was given as part of the course schedule and not as a homework. Thirdly, it was felt that materials given as supplement do not engage students because of low stakes. Therefore, some of the potential benefits of these activities are not fully realized. The exercises were created with the help of Hot Potatoes version 6 which was downloaded from https://hotpot.uvic.ca/. Choice of this suite was made because of its user friendly interface and its free of cost availability (Cafolla & Knee, 1999). Reading practice with this type of exercises has been found helpful in reading comprehension (Irshad & Ghani, 2011; Rodrigues & Martins, 2008; Tabatabaei, 2012; Zoi, Bellou, & Mikropoulos, 2011). Apart from these exercises glossed vocabulary cards were presented as part of intervention. The
glossed vocabulary cards were presented along with reading comprehension exercises as vocabulary pre teaching activity. These cards, which had L1 and L2 translation, a sample sentence and a relevant picture, were also sent to students on their mobile phones through a web application WhatsApp. The students were taken into language laboratory twice a week for sessions of one and half hour. They were trained to use the material. First they reviewed vocabulary which was also sent to their mobile phones prior to the session in the lab. Then they proceeded to practice reading with the help of cloze exercises. The exercises were presented in an increasing level of complexity which is in line with Bloom’s revised taxonomy (Forehand, 2010). Screenshots of these activities are presented in (Figure 1).

(Figure 1) shows a level one exercise where every twentieth word is gaped. The students were required to fill the gaps using a drop down menu or from a list at the top. After the completion of task the students were asked to press ‘check’ button at the bottom of the page which displayed the obtained score. The option of instant feedback is valuable as it keeps learners engaged and focused (Murphy, 2010).
Level two exercise as presented in (Figure 2) was a little more demanding. The students needed to type in the gaped words. ‘Hint’ option was provided as a scaffold. However, to discourage them to look for too much help from this feature some marks were deducted upon every use of the option.

Third level exercises were even more complex as shown in (Figure 3). To improve their reading fluency (Birch, 2014; Hirsch, 2003) feature of time constraint was added. The timer shown in the figure was set according to the difficulty level of the text. Students were required to choose from a drop menu the correct option. These exercises were followed by two quizzes. First quiz was a free practice but second one was timed.

Exercise shown in (Figure 4) was presented alongside multiple choice questions. To discourage blind guessing the exercise had an important feature that the options for each question were automatically shuffled every time the page reloaded. Multiple choice tasks like these are found useful in improving reading comprehension (Milton, 2009).
Last activity as presented in (Figure 5) was similar to previous one but it had new questions and it was timed as well. The students were set the target of achieving 80% score on each exercise before moving on to the next level.

On the other hand, control group was taught same texts through traditional methods. These methods, typically in Saudi Arabia, are more teacher centered (Elyas & Picard, 2010). Students are first given a pre-reading activity prescribed in the course book to connect to the topic. New vocabulary is pre-taught through use of whiteboard and accompanied by teacher led drills. Students are given some time to read the text. Then they are introduced to the reading comprehension questions which is followed by the second reading. At the end they are given a short quiz as a productive activity which is marked by the teacher and returned the following day.

7. Data Collection Instrument

Data collection instrument was an achievement test which was developed by the researcher. In the absence of an appropriate instrument it is recommended to make one (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker, 2013; Brislin, 1986). Its preparation comprised three steps. Firstly, thirty multiple choice items (Basoglu & Akdemir, 2010; Milton, 2009) were written. Secondly, help was solicited from ten expert EFL teachers who had vast experience in teaching and testing. It was revised to incorporate the suggestions of the experts. Ten items were dropped and the final test had twenty items. Thirdly, it was piloted on 31 students whose proficiency (Fraenkel et al., 1993) in English was at the similar level as the subjects of the study. The test was given twice to the same group with a break of two weeks. The results of pilot study (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001) are presented below in detail.

8. Pilot Study

Since the study used a researcher developed instrument it had to be pilot tested. To ensure its reliability and validity it was thoroughly tested. In this section the results of this analysis are reported.
Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Pilot Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Test</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.68</td>
<td>3.911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Test</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9.29</td>
<td>3.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As described in previous section the test was administered twice. Table 1 shows the mean score of the group \( (N = 31) \) was 7.68 when the test was administered first time \( (M = 7.68) \), equal to 38.4 % of the full score of 20 marks. Minimum score was 1, equivalent to about 5 % of full score and maximum score was 16, which is 80 % of the full score. Standard deviation was 3.91 \( (SD = 3.91) \). The students produced better scores when the test was given again after two weeks. The mean score of the group was 9.29 \( (M = 9.29) \) which is 46.5 % of the full score of 20 marks. Minimum score was 4, equivalent to 20 % of full score and maximum score was 18, which is 90% of the full score. Standard deviation was 3.90 \( (SD = 3.90) \). Better performance in the second attempt may be attributed to the fact that it was their second attempt to do the same test in two weeks. Higher standard deviation indicated that the group was a mixed-ability group.

Table 2
Pearson Correlation Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First Test</th>
<th>Second Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Test</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.985**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Test</td>
<td>.985**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient presented in table 2 was calculated to ensure the consistency and reliability of the test. A positive correlation between the two test scores, \( r = 0.923, n = 31, p = 0.000, p<0.05 \) was found.
Figure 6. Scatter chart of pilot study

A scatterplot as shown in (Figure 6) summarizes the results. It depicts a strong, positive correlation between two test scores. Because of MCQ format where 1 credit was allocated for each correct answer and 0 for wrong answer the result lent itself to be analyzed through Kuder and Richardson Formula 20 test. The results were $\rho_{KR20} = 0.710$. It confirmed that test was reliable. The study went ahead after assessing the instrument to the next phase. Results of the pretest and post-test are reported below.

9. Results and Discussion

9.1. Pretest Results

The study used pretest post-test control group design. So the pretest was given before the start of intervention to see whether the experimental and comparison groups were at the same level of proficiency or not. Participants were in four groups, two groups from males and two from females. Two groups, one group each from males ($N = 31$) and females ($N = 30$), were assigned to experimental condition. Two groups, one group each from males ($N = 30$) and females ($N = 31$), were used as comparison group.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of Pretest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>Students ID</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Comprehension Score</td>
<td>Comparison Group</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td>1.803</td>
<td>.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>1.577</td>
<td>.202</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As presented in table 4 mean score of comparison group ($N = 61$) was 7.02 ($M = 7.02$) which was 35.1 % of the maximum score of 20 marks. Standard deviation was 1.80 ($SD = 1.80$) and standard error of means was 0.23 ($SEM = 0.23$). Mean score of experimental group ($N = 61$) on the other hand was 7.54 ($M = 7.54$) which was 37.7 % of the maximum score of 20 marks. Standard deviation was 1.57 ($SD = 1.57$) and standard error of means was 0.20 ($SEM = 0.20$). Standard deviation is a measure of dispersion of scores from mean score.
As shown in (Figure 7) the scores of experimental group and comparison groups were almost similar. However, there was a small numerical difference in the mean scores of two groups. Independent samples t-test was run to see whether the difference was statistically significant. The results are presented in table 5.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Comprehension Score</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td>-1.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-1.711</td>
<td>117.908</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levene’s test associated with the equality of variances was run to evaluate differences in variances. The results show ($p = .796$, with $\alpha = 0.05$) which confirms the homogeneity of variances. Independent samples t-test with ($\alpha = 0.05$) returned the $p$ value of 0.90 ($p = 0.90$) which indicate that difference between the mean scores of experimental group and comparison group was not statistically significant. The result was very important for the study as it authenticated the assumption that two groups were at the same proficiency level of language prior to commencement of the study. It provided the bench mark from which the differences in the performances of the experimental group and comparison group at the conclusion of intervention were measured. Post-test was administered at the end of intervention period. The results are presented below.
9.2. Post-test Results

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of the Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Comprehension Group</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>9.39</td>
<td>1.584</td>
<td>.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>10.25</td>
<td>1.312</td>
<td>.168</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows the mean score for the comparison group (N = 61) was 9.39 (M = 9.39) which is 46.9% of maximum score of 20 marks. Standard deviation was 1.58 (SD = 1.58) and standard error mean was 0.20 (SEM = 0.20). Experimental group (N = 61) had a mean score of 10.25 (M = 10.25) which is 51.2% of maximum score of 20 marks. Standard deviation was 1.31 (SD = 1.31) and standard mean error was 0.16 (SEM = 0.16).

Figure 8. Graph of post-test scores

Graph in (Figure 8) shows the mean scores of two groups. Experimental group registered better scores as compared to comparison group. As depicted in (Figure 8) there was a numerical difference in the scores of the groups. Levene’s test was done to verify assumption of equal variances. Independent sample t-test was run to see if the mean difference was significant. Results are presented in table 7.

Table 7

Inferential Statistics of Post-test Scores
Levene’s test associated with the equality of variances was performed to see whether the group variances were equal or not. The results show \((p = .156, \alpha = 0.05)\) which confirms the assumption that variances were equal. In t-test the value of \(p\) was 0.002 \((p = 0.002, \alpha = 0.05)\). The \(p\) value is less than 0.05 \((p = 0.002, \alpha = 0.05)\) which means that the difference between the mean scores of comparison and experimental groups was statistically significant. Cohen’s \(d\) for effect size was estimated at \((d = 0.59)\) which according to (Jacob Cohen, 1992) suggests a medium to large effect size. Therefore, in the light of this result, null hypothesis \((H_0)\) technology enhanced language input has no effect on reading comprehension of students on PYP at university level is rejected. The alternate hypothesis \((H_1)\), technology enhanced language input has no effect on reading comprehension of students on PYP at university level, is accepted.

The results of this study were similar to the study by Tabatabaei (2012). In this study 80 EFL students took part. The treatment included practice with cloze type exercises for reading comprehension. The study lasted for five weeks. Findings of the study revealed that practice with cloze type exercises helped the experimental group. Like the experimental group in the present study their performance was better than the students in control group. The results are also in line with the meta-analysis by Soe et al. (2000) in which computer-assisted reading comprehension instruction was found valuable across 17 studies that were included. It can be argued that computer-based exercises helped the participants in the present study because the exercises were approached in an environment that was stress free. It allowed the subjects to work on their own pace. It also freed precious teacher time which was used to help those students who needed help the most.

Is technology enhanced language input gender neutral in its effect on reading comprehension of students on Preparatory Year Program (PYP) at university level? It was the second question in the study. The post-test scores of males’ experimental group and females’ experimental group were compared. The results are presented in table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8</th>
<th>Descriptive Statistics of Treatment Groups</th>
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<tr>
<td>Group Statistics</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Students ID</td>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>Posttest Comprehension Score Boys Experimental Group</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Comprehension Score Girls Experimental Group</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the post-test of boys’ and girls’ experimental groups are presented in table 8. Boys’ experimental group \((N = 30)\) had a mean score of 10.33 \((M = 10.33)\). Standard deviation was 1.34 \((SD = 1.34)\). Standard mean error was 0.24 \((SEM = 0.24)\). Girls’ experimental group \((N = 31)\) showed a mean score of 10.16 \((M = 10.16)\). Standard deviation was 1.29 \((SD = 1.29)\). Standard mean error was 0.23 \((SEM = 0.23)\).
(Figure 9) displays the performance of both groups in the post-test which was quite similar. Difference in mean score was very small. However t-test was conducted to ascertain that it was statistically significant or not. Table 9 presents the results of the inferential statistical measures.

Table 9
**Inferential Statistics on the Pretest Scores of Boys’ and Girls’ Experimental Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Comprehension</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>0.569</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levene’s test was associated with equivalence of variances. The results indicated ($p = 0.569$, with $\alpha = 0.05$) which verifies the assumption that variances were equal. In t-test the value of $p$ was 0.613 ($p = 0.613$, $\alpha = 0.05$). The $p$ value is greater than 0.05 ($p = 0.613$, $\alpha = 0.05$) which means that the difference between two experimental groups’ mean score was statistically not significant. The results confirm the null hypothesis that technology enhanced language input is gender neutral. It is concluded that intervention seemed beneficial for both genders. No study could be located that exclusively investigated the question of gender neutrality.

However, the results of the gender neutrality can be compared with the results of Motallebzadeh and Ganjali (2011). The subjects of that study were all female and they were taught EFL vocabulary through mobile phones which like the present study resulted in the improved reading comprehension and vocabulary learning of the control group. Similarly, the study by Underwood, McCaffrey, and Underwood (1990) reported no significant difference in the performance of the participants on the basis of gender when they worked separately on a cloze type task presented in computer-assisted environment. However, the study reported differences in performance when the subjects worked on the task in mixed gender groups. It is
pertinent to note that in the context of the present study the participants worked on the tasks segregated gender wise because of gender segregation laws in the Kingdom.

To sum up the model created with the affordances of computer and mobile phone helped the participants to overcome anxiety related to foreign language learning. Once affective filter could be pushed down, an environment was created that allowed reading process to proceed smoothly. Also the pre-teaching of vocabulary through WhatsApp proved valuable as the students were introduced to the new vocabulary long before they reported for reading lessons. This multi-modal and multiple exposure to target vocabulary seemed to help improve their reading comprehension.

10. Implications

Pedagogical implications of the study are that well planned and well-designed tasks presented in a low filter environment do promote not only language learning but can also promote love for learning process. Technology cannot produce miracles which was suggested in early euphoric claims about it but its potential as assistant to the process of learning has been proved yet again. Teachers need training in use of technology that is easily available in improving “what they do the best”(Romano, 2003) that is teaching.

Implications for the administrators are that they need to encourage teachers to use available technology instead of spending resources on fancy systems which the software publishers tout as ultimate answer to all teaching learning problems.

The study has important social implications. The kind of intervention used in the study can be used for distance learning courses. It can help dispensation of knowledge over great distances circumventing the issues related to infrastructure and issues related to social and religious traditions. Used innovatively the technique has the promise of changing the very way people learn.

11. Limitations

Like all other investigations in the field of humanities where subjects are real students the present study has some limitations. Firstly, a true experiment could not be done because the administrative constraints disallowed random sampling and pre-formed groups of students had to be used. A randomized sample could have yielded more reliable results. Secondly, sample size was small and restricted to one campus. Thirdly, it was conducted at one location. Fourthly, it used a researcher developed instrument for data collection because no standardized instrument compatible with the context of the study could be located. The instrument was piloted but piloting over a bigger number of students might help to further refine it. There was a possibility of contamination as the vocabulary was sent to students on their mobile phones and the reading exercises were also made available to them on a CD for practice at home. They could easily share those with students in the comparison group. Although they were explicitly told not to do that but there was no mechanism to ensure compliance.

12. Future Research

The study might be replicated with bigger and if possible randomized sample. Data collection instrument may be piloted more extensively. Efforts may be made to develop
standardized instruments for this type of studies. Research is needed in identifying critical vocabulary for pre-teaching. The model used in study may be applied online to study its efficacy in distance learning environments. Ways of incorporating other skills like writing and listening may be explored.

13. Conclusion

The present study was undertaken to evaluate the use of technology in instruction of reading comprehension at a public university. Reading comprehension is a problematic and complex skill to acquire. We cannot be sure how exactly a reader, with his/her unique knowledge base, interacts with a text. There seem to be no single measure good enough to tell us the extent one understands or comprehends a text. The present study was conducted on the assumption that technology enhanced language input has the promise of delivering valuable help in softening EFL reading comprehension challenge. The literature reviewed presented enough evidence in support of this assumption. A model of intervention was created by using freely available technical resources. The tasks were delivered in a low filter environment; in the language lab and on the mobile phones of the learners. The findings of the study were encouraging. They are in line with a growing body of evidence that such interventions have potential to promote learners’ EFL reading comprehension.

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References


The Acquisition of Do-Support in Negation and Interrogatives by Adult Arab Learners of English: A preliminary study

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Abstract
This preliminary study investigates the acquisition of do-support in negation and interrogatives by adult Arab learners of English. The main question is to identify how Arabic language influences the acquisition of do-support. The influence of L2 proficiency level in the acquisition of do-support is also addressed. The study is conducted within the perspective of Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis and Differential Markedness Hypothesis. Do-support as a marked feature of English has received little or no attention in previous work on the acquisition of English as a second language by adult Arab learners. This study seeks to fill that gap by documenting the acquisition of do-support in negation and interrogatives. To address these aims, a written production task, a multiple-choice task and a semi-structured interview were administered to 10 adult Arab learners of low and advanced English proficiency levels. The findings indicate that the role of Arabic is noted. While not the source of errors, it acts as a strategy that adult Arab learners use to dealing with limited L2 knowledge and the markedness of do-support, which is the main source of difficulty shown by adult Arab learners. The role of learners’ L1 is selective according to the learners’ perception of what is difficult or not. Moreover, a significant relationship was found between L2 proficiency level and the mastery of do-support in that high-proficiency learners outperform low-proficiency learners. It is recommended that future research examine the acquisition and markedness of do-support in the interlanguage of Arabic-speaking children.

Key words: Arabic influence, do-support, L2 proficiency level, markedness

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1. Introduction

The acquisition of a second language has been a topic of intense debate in the history of language acquisition. Learners’ mother tongue has been one of the factors that has attracted much interest since most work on second language acquisition has assumed the primacy of the L1 influence (Ilomaki, 2005). The standard assumption during the 1950s and 1960s was that learners’ mother language influenced the acquisition of the L2, positively, if L1 and L2 were similar, or negatively, if they were not (Saville-Troike, 2006). This phenomenon was known as L1 transfer and since then it has occupied one of the major areas of language acquisition. However, few have made explicit statements about its precise role. Different terms have been used to refer to the notion of transfer. Dulay et al. (1982) for instance, uses the term "interlingual errors" while Kellerman & Sharwood-Smith (1986) argue in favor of the substitution of "transfer" by "crosslinguistic influence". As for Odlin (1989), transfer refers to the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been obviously, and perhaps imperfectly, acquired. Moreover, Brown (2007, p. 117) views transfer as “the interaction of previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge with the present learning event to facilitate a new language learning task”. According to this definition, L1 transfer has been seen as one of the strategies that L2 learners use in their process of L2 acquisition. In this way a new scope has been opened for the influence of L1 since the focus is no longer on whether L1 plays a role in L2 acquisition but, on how, where, why and what to transfer (Schumann, 1988).

Ravem (1978) studies children’s L2 production of negatives and interrogatives and concludes that there are clear examples of transfer and children consider it as one of their processing strategies. Moreover, two of the learning strategies used by L2 learners, transfer and overgeneralization, include reliance on existing knowledge to make learning easier (Taylor, 1975). These strategies can be differentiated, with L1 reliant on transfer and L2 exclusively influenced by overgeneralization. Taylor’s results indicate that learners who know less of L2 are more reliant on transfer from L1. The amount and type of language transfer are influenced by a number of popularly held factors. For example, in a study conducted by Ringbom (1987), language distance is revealed to influence language transfer; in the early stages of acquisition, L1 influence is greater than at later stages; at lower levels of proficiency, L1 influence is stronger than at advanced levels.

Different existing theories take different stances on the role of language transfer on the acquisition of L2. One of these theories is Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis (FTFA) (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994, 1996), which holds that the first language has a greater effect in the initial states of L2 acquisition and the acquisition of L2 functional categories and features is possible from the beginning even though such functional features are not presented in L2 learners’ mother language. It postulates that the first stage of L2 acquisition is the final stage of L1 acquisition process (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994). L2 learners tend to transfer what is available in their L1. In this regard, the L1 features that are not instantiated in L2 challenge the L2 learners towards reformulating their hypotheses about the target language. L2 learners in this case resort to what is allowed by Universal Grammar (UG) when they have to restructure the relevant features along with the available input. Accordingly, L2 learners’ performance at every stage of the interlanguage is constrained by UG, which indicates that all errors that L2 learners produce fall within the limits of UG properties. Furthermore, L2
learners at later stages of the interlanguage become more proficient because of the increase in the input that they receive. Overall, the three stages of interlanguage are supposed to be driven by UG. Importantly, FT/FA assumes a gradual convergence on L2 properties as Learners with lower L2 proficiency perform worse than learners with higher proficiency. We will consider the L1 transfer in initial stage and the influence of proficiency level on full attainment of English do-support.

Another theory underlying L1 transfer is Differential Markedness Hypothesis (DMH) (Eckman, 1977) which seeks to link L1 transfer with the degree of markedness of the L2 feature(s). Unlike contrastive analysis, differential markedness hypothesis tries to predict the likelihood of L1 transfer based not only on the differences and their negative influence, but also on whether these differences are marked or unmarked. The degree of difficulty in learning or acquiring L2 structures linked to the degree of markedness, for example, an L2 structure that is less frequent than an L1 structure will be difficult to learn and the possibility of transfer is greater in this case.

Consequently, a structure or a language property is considered marked if it is less usual and frequent across languages (typological markedness). In addition, markedness is applied to different concepts, for example, it is employed to differentiate between simplicity/complexity. The marked feature is more complex than less marked one. In frequency contexts, marked features tend to occur more frequently than less marked (Maier, 2010). Within the perspective of UG, marked feature is part of the periphery rather than core grammar and consequently its acquisition needs more evidence than that of less marked (Maier, 2010). In the acquisitional hierarchy, on the other hand, “the structures that are acquired first are less marked than those that are acquired later” (Maier, 2010, p. 38).According to Givón (1991, p. 337), "the marked category tends to be cognitively more complex—in terms of attention, mental effort or processing time—than the unmarked one".

In addition, the notion of markedness can be applied within a particular language or among languages and the kind of evidence that can be used in support of DMH “indicates that markedness can predict the relative degree of difficulty associated with the learning of various TL structures” (Eckman, 2008, p.7). In this connection, Eckman (1977) proposed the Markedness Differential Hypothesis as follow:

(a) Those areas of the target language that differ from the native language and are more marked than the native language will be difficult.

(b) The relative degree of difficulty of the areas of the target language those are more marked than the native language will correspond to the relative degree of markedness.

(c) Those areas of the target language that are different from the native language, but are not more marked than the native language will not be difficult. (p. 321)

What follows immediately from this hypothesis is that not all L1 and L2 differences will cause equal difficulty. L2 learners may transfer the unmarked features of their L1 in the case that the target features they are acquiring are marked ones. Moreover, L2 features that are distinct or unavailable in L1 will be learnt with less difficulty if they are unmarked.
DO-SUPPORT

The variation between English and Arabic in the ways of expressing sentential negation and interrogatives (yes-no and wh-questions) poses a great challenge to Arab learners of English in that English is more marked than Arabic. Arabic, in featuring negation and inversion, does not need that type of do-support available in English. English makes extensive use of a feature known as do-support since it is impossible for the English thematic verb to emerge from its head position of the verb phrase (VP) to carry the tense affix in the tense phrase (TP) or the complementizer phrase (CP) as is required in certain constructions including negation and interrogatives.

In present-day English, thematic verbs that were originally located in the VP lost the property of moving from its position as the head of the VP to the head position T (Tense) of the TP (Radford, 2006). Because of this historic change in the verb movement system, the need for do-support appeared. This appearance took place over the course of Middle English, with the very earliest uses appearing in the beginning of the 15th century. The frequency of ‘do’ rose continuously until sometime after the 18th century, and ‘do’ has become obligatory in these contexts (Ecay, 2015). In negative sentences, the tense affix in TP is no longer strong enough to attract the thematic verb to raise to the T position of the TP. In addition, the presence of negation phrase (NegP) that intervenes between VP and TP blocks such movement. As a result, this unattached tense affix must be hosted to a proper host and the only remaining possible satisfactory candidate is the application of the phonetic process ‘do-support’ (Radford, 2006). In interrogatives, on the other hand, a verbal element must move to the head position C of the CP attracted by the strong feature of C, and since thematic verbs must remain in situ, a proper element manifested as do-support must first host the unattached tense affix in TP and move from there to occupy the C position of the CP (Radford, 2006).

Accordingly, do-support is an English phenomenon where the dummy auxiliary verb ‘do’ appears bearing tense and agreement morphology in certain environments: do appears in the presence of sentential negation, T-to-C movement, emphasis and VP-ellipsis when there is no auxiliary verb functions as a tense-bearer in these environments (Ecay, 2015). Moreover, unlike other auxiliaries that are classified as having universal status, ‘do’ is classified as a language-specific property of English (Culicover, 2008). Its VP complement must be [-AUX] and since the operation of do-support is a phonetic and for syntactic reasons and contributes nothing to the semantic meaning of the statement, ‘do’ does not have any intrinsic meaning in contrast to other auxiliary verbs (Jung Jo, 2004). However, the auxiliary ‘do’ shares some features with other auxiliary verbs. For example, it is sensitive to NICE properties (negation, inversion, code, emphasis) and it shares lack of finite forms with modal auxiliaries. Thus, auxiliary ‘do’ has received attention in studies examining early auxiliary system acquisition, negation and question formation to determine what syntactic knowledge is accessible at the early stages of the acquisition process.

2. Previous L2 findings

A direct investigation of English do-support property has been very limited. The majority of studies indicate the difficulty with do-support as a unique structure that requires the acquisition of other features such as agreement and tense. Some studies document the late acquisition of do-support compared to other types of auxiliaries such as ‘be’ and models. Limited studies also
show the earlier appearance of do-support in context of negation than in interrogatives. The amount of literature on the acquisition of ‘do’ by children whether they are native or L2 learners, is fair. A number of studies research do-support in interrogatives. For example, Stromswold (1990) observes cases of auxiliary-less, doubled marking questions. The number of errors in yes-no questions and wh-questions are high and the majority of these errors are with do-support and inversion. The inversion errors with the auxiliary ‘do’ override inversion errors with other auxiliaries. Stromswold assumes that the difficulty with the application of the rule of do-support is the major source of such errors. Stromswold claims that if UG is unable to direct L2 learners’ acquisition, late acquisition is expected. Two studies, (Hadley, 1993) and (Hadley and Rice, 1996) are conducted to find out whether the acquisition and development of the auxiliary system is influenced by the three syntactic factors: Chomsky’s minimalist program (1995), which involves an underlying phrase structure underlying the base-generation site; complexity of morphological paradigm; and language – specific status versus universal status. One of the main findings is that the acquisition of model auxiliaries (can and will) is less difficult than ‘be’ and ‘do’. In addition, compared to ‘be’ and ‘do’, these modals may be generated at a faster rate.

Likewise, the findings of Santelmannet.al (2002) study of yes/no question formation involving English-speaking children show a large percentage of errors with auxiliaries and features of tense and agreement. They add that the problem is not with the operation of subject-verb inversion but with auxiliaries and their features. In addition, the fact that children have no pervasive difficulties with questions, but do have problems with features of English that are language specific, formed the basis of the hypothesis developed by Santelmann et al. (2002)

Haznedar (2003) documents a similar result, where the appearance of inflection was missing early, but developed gradually. In the early stages of acquisition, the majority of errors are of the types: the missing of ‘do’ and ‘be’ in questions, lack of inversion which predominated in wh-questions than in yes-no questions. Moreover, Rowland et.al (2005) investigates whether children have more problems with the language-specific property ‘do-support’ than they do with other auxiliaries. They argue that ‘do’ as an auxiliary is more marked than the auxiliary of ‘be’ in questions. Such assumption underlies the hypothesis that the language-specific properties of ‘do’ would result in additional difficulty for this auxiliary type as compared to the auxiliary ‘be’. However, the data shows no significant differences in overt marking between ‘do’/modals and ‘be’ and the rate of errors with do-support in both types of questions, yes-no and wh-questions, is equal. Rowland (2007) comes to the same conclusion in his study. The percentage of errors with do-support in both types of questions is very high, but the t-test displays no significant differences in the rate of errors across the two types of questions. In contrast, the effect of the type of auxiliary is found to be effective in the study of Rowland & Theakston (2009). They indicate that models are correctly produced significantly more often than ‘does’ as predicated by Santelmann et al. (2002). Children have a greater tendency to produce double marking errors than inversion errors and the high proportion of using ‘do’ in yes-no questions does not indicate that learners’ use of the 3S form ‘does’ is highly accurate.

Similarly, the acquisition of do-support by adult L2 learners has been examined, but the majority of these studies researched it partially. Bhatt &Hancin-Bhatt (2002) address the acquisition of CP by 125 Hindi learners of English aged between 11 and 18. They find that the
The Acquisition of Do-Support in Negation

application of do-support is acquired after the rule of auxiliary inversion (AUX inversion). Regarding the acquisition of Aux-to-Comp movement, the study exhibits that it emerges earlier in yes-no questions than in wh-questions. Furthermore, Maier (2010) studies the acquisition of interrogatives by 31 adolescent German learners of English as a second language. She detects the late appearance of do-support. L2 learners have problems with do-support since it is not available in their L1. The participants perform poorly in Interrogatives requiring do-support and they avoid producing structures that require do-support compared to structures that do not require it. Moreover, the influence of L2 learners’ mother tongue is obvious, especially in case of contexts with do support; however, the L2 learners progressed fast as long as there are similarities between L1 and L2 such as cop inversion (inversion of subject and copula verb) and aux inversion (inversion of subject and auxiliary).

In line with this, the acquisition of English interrogatives by 25 Omani adult language learners is researched by Umale (2011). The researcher points out that learner’s L1 (Arabic) plays a role especially in the contexts that require do-support and L2 learners use ‘do’ to form and test hypotheses in questions. Within the perspective of the Processability theory, Candry (2013) considers the stages of do-support acquisition in three types of constructions in which ‘do’ appears. The production of 16 native speakers of Belgian Dutch aged between 11 and 15 years old is significantly different cross the three groups. L2 learners in group 1 apply the rule of do-support in negation but not in inversion and codes. However, they are still unable to produce it correctly particularly in case of negative sentences, in which the 3rd person singular is required. They incline to use the Dutch structure instead. The command over do-support in negation is also proved in group 2. In addition, group 2 exhibits the rule of do-fronting that is applied in yes-no questions but not do-2nd that is required to form wh-inversion. Learners in group 2 show an accurate use of the 3rd person singular form ‘does’. In contrast, do-support in negation, yes-no inversion and wh-inversion seems to be acquired fully by learners in group 3. The researcher concludes that the majority of informants who have not had formal instruction are unable to apply do-support appropriately. On the other hand, informants who have received formal instruction seem to acquire do-support at different pace.

Several studies, on the other hand, have addressed the acquisition of do-support in negation. For example, Irvine (2005) contends that his informant who is a beginning-level Mexican adult ESL learner, starts to employ ‘don’t +v’ form in level B and level C of his acquisition process more often, but he continues to use it as unanalyzed formulaic unit as he used to do in Level A. The use of ‘no’ with a verb without a subject is the overriding form of negation in Level A, even though some instances of ‘don’t’ are manifested, but as a chunk. Accordingly, Irvine suggests that her informant’s L1 influences his production as he tends to transfer the structure of his native language particularly at early stages of his acquisition process.

Perales et.al (2009) studies the acquisition of sentential negation by 78 bilingual (Spanish/Basque) learners of English, who are divided into three groups (ages four, eight and eleven) depending on when they began to learn English in an effort to determine whether or not functional categories are present or absent, whether cognitive strategies are employed rather than UG-driven, and whether the order of the functional projections NegP and TP are transferred. The findings indicate that there are differences between syntactic representation of functional categories development and the system of inflection. The presence of ‘no+v’ structure dominates
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the production of groups 1 and 2. Such structure reflects learners’ L1 structure, but the researchers argue that the learners’ interlanguage system is still driven by UG. Regarding the production of unanalyzed ‘do’, there are no significant differences among the groups, whereas the analyzed ‘do’ appears only in the production of group 3. Group 1 and 2 observe the presence of ‘do’ but fail to inflect it correctly. Furthermore, the proportion of the structure ‘v (aux) +not’ is very high which indicates that such structure emerges early compared to the emergence of the auxiliary ‘do’. Overall, the findings show that L2 learners do not reset the order of the projections NegP<TP, yet older learners outperform younger in terms of morphosyntax of English negation. An interview two years later reveals no significant differences in the performance of group 1 and 3 while group 2 exhibits more instances of analyzed ‘do’.

Comparably in Perales(2010), the performance of 77 bilingual (Spanish/Basque)L2 learners of English is compared to that of L1 acquirers to find out if negative sentences containing the auxiliary ‘do’ in L1 and L2 English exhibit the same deep syntactic representation. The analysis of the interview with L2 learners indicates that the non-agreeing ‘do’ is very productive especially in using ‘don’t’ instead of ‘doesn’t’. The cases of non-agreeing and agreeing ‘do’ coexist in the grammar of the same learners. The rate of non-agreeing errors is higher in the case of L2 learners in comparison of L1 children. This kind of non-inflection errors can be understood since ‘don’t’ is considered less marked than ‘doesn’t’. According to the researcher, L2 learners are incapable to recover from this stage of lack of inflection with ‘do’, unlike L1 children. Even though the vast majority of errors with ‘do’ are of the lack of agreement kind, the learners in both groups commit other errors of the kind ‘doesn’t = isn’t’, which is more productive in case of L1 children and double marking error in which ‘didn’t’ is followed by the past form of the verb, which is only committed by L2 learners. Generally, the process of ‘do’ acquisition in L1 and L2 is dissimilar. L1 children are capable to converge on the target grammar eventually, but this is not the case of L2 learners who incline to treat ‘do’ as an independent preverbal marker of negation.

Bohnacker (2013) revises his longitudinal study of a bilingual girl, Katla, a daughter of Icelandic parents who lived in England, and documents the acquisition of do-support as follow:

i. 1; 0–1; 11: No DO
ii. 2; 0–2; 11: DO for negation but nothing else
iii. 3; 0–3; 6: DO for negation, questions, ellipsis, emphasis oversupplied in affirmative declaratives
iv. 3;7–4; 7: DO for negation, questions, ellipsis, and emphasis. (P. 14)

The study, which lasts for over 3 years, embodies data collected spontaneously in a natural context. The data from age 2 to 3 reveals that in contexts like prohibitions and threats, 'do' is used as unanalyzed frozen form but not as a productive auxiliary 'do'. Emphasis is formed by shouting while yes-no questions are formed by rising intonation or clipping. Moreover, wh-questions are constructed by fronting the wh-word but no ‘do’ is used. The appearance of other auxiliaries like 'be ' and ‘have’ in obligatory contexts is target like compared to ‘do’. From age 3 to 3; 6, 'do' appears in constructions like emphasis, questions and ellipsis. Nevertheless, Katla does not inflect 'do' correctly especially in third person singular and past tense. The most important finding is the emergence of do-support first in negation other than contexts like questions. The delayed acquisition of do-support in contexts other than negation has also been

Yazdfazeli & Maleckzadeh (2014) analyze the production of 15 Persian high school students in elementary level and 16 university students in intermediate level to find out if they follow a universal order of learning negation, the influence of their proficiency level in the acquisition process and if there is a difference in the use of negation in their comprehension and production. For the elementary group, ‘don’t is the prevalent answer in the multiple choice test (50%) but it is analyzed only in 5% of the answers, while ‘not’ is more common than ‘don’t’ in the writing test. In contrast, 40% of the intermediate students’ answers on the multiple choice test is the option of unanalyzed ‘don’t’, yet the percentage of analyzed ‘don’t’ increases five times compared to group 1. On the contrary, ‘not’ comprises 20% of intermediate students’ responses. In the writing test, the intermediate group’s uses of analyzed ‘do’ increases, while the rate of ‘no’ and ‘not’ declined in comparison with the elementary group. In sum, the use of unanalyzed ‘don’t’ is the most productive form which indicates, according to the researchers, that Persian learners follow their own order and this could be a result of the influence of their L1 structure.

The influence of Arabic is investigated in the acquisition of negation by Eisouh (2011). The study also aims at exploring whether L2 learners commit developmental errors similar to those produced by L1 children. The participants are low and low intermediate levels of English at the University of Jordan. Double-marking, alternating do-support and omission of auxiliary are the types of errors that are observed with do-support. Alternating do-support is documented as the most common type. For example, ‘he didn’t eats’ and ‘they doesn't study English’. Moreover, L2 learners in all level continue to produce errors with ‘did not + verb’. While students of English 102’s performance are better than those of English 99 and 101, they keep the third singular person-s along with ‘does not’. The data reveals that the knowledge of do-support has been acquired, but learners in the three groups are not sensitive to its properties as a carrier of tense and agreement features. Such finding is consistent with that of Perales et.al (2009), Perales (2010 and Yazdfazeli & Maleckzadeh (2014). In conclusion, the influence of native language is documented and this is compatible with Perales et.al (2009) and Yazdfazeli & Maleckzadeh (2014).

To sum up, three conclusions can be drawn from the above studies: 1) L1 and L2 learners’ acquisition of ‘do’ appears late with a number of difficulties, including wrong inflection and auxiliary less inversion especially in wh-questions. 2) The influence of L1 is evident; however, some of these difficulties that L2 learners exhibit are similar to those experienced by L1 learners. 3) do-support seems to appear earlier in negation than interrogatives and other contexts.

3. Methodology

Research Objectives

The initial objective of this present pilot study was to investigate the acquisition of do-support in negation and interrogatives by adult Arab learners of English. Specifically the following objectives were discussed.
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1. To investigate how the acquisition of Do-support is influenced by Arabic language among Arab learners of English.
2. To find out if there is a relationship between adult Arab Learners’ proficiency level and their mastery of do-support

Research Questions

The research questions underlying this study are:
1. How does Arabic language influence the acquisition of do-support by adult Arab learners? Do adult Arab learners’ responses reflect their L1 structure?
2. Is there a relationship between Learners’ proficiency level and their mastery of do-support?

Research Sample

The participants were first year undergraduate Arab learners from different majors at Mutah University in Jordan. According to their scores in the placement test employed at the university, learners were divided into two proficiency levels: the pre-intermediate group (who got 50% and below) and the advanced group (who got 80% and above). The pre-intermediate group was studying English 99 as a remedial course at the time of the study while the advanced group was studying English 102 as an elective course. The participation was voluntary and unpaid.

Research Instrument

The instruments used were a written production task (WPT), a multiple-choice task (MCT) and a semi-structured interview. Both tasks involved 45 items equally distributed among negation, yes-no inversion and wh-inversion. All the items were randomized. In each context 5 items out of 15 required the use of do-support while the remaining 10 items involved auxiliaries including ‘be’ and ‘have’. In the multiple choice task, participants had to choose only one option that was supposed to be the more syntactically correct one. In the written production task, participants had to produce negative sentences, yes-no questions and wh-questions using the given sentences. The semi-structured interview consisted of open-ended and closed-ended questions concerning Arabic influence and the difficulty do-support constructions over other auxiliaries of ‘be’ and ‘have’.

Research Procedures

The participants were conveniently selected from those who studied English 99 and 102. The instructions of the two tasks were given in Arabic and the participants were made aware that the results were completely confidential and their participation was voluntary. In the first session, participants received the written production task. Each production was considered correct if it was grammatically appropriate. The multiple-choice task took place in the next session. Participants’ production in the two tasks was then transcribed and coded for scoring and statistical analysis. The multiple-choice task was followed by an immediate semi-structured interview. The participants of the interviews were chosen intentionality and the numbers are determined according to the availability of the students and according to the number of students who volunteered in this research sample. The Interviews involved seven questions. The participants’ answers in the interview were audio recorded and were analyzed using content analysis.
Results and Discussion

In this section, the results of the two tasks and the semi-structured interview are presented and discussed according to the study main questions as follow:

Q1: How does Arabic language influence the acquisition of Do-Support by adult Arab learners? Do adult Arab learners’ responses reflect their L1 structure?

Depending on learners’ answers to the interview questions and the two tasks, we can predict that Arabic is employed as a learning strategy rather than being used as a source of production or errors except in the context of wh-questions and some cases of pre-verbal negation and verb inversion. Moreover, the interview data illustrates that 40% of L2 learners in the pre-intermediate group confirmed the influence of Arabic when there was inadequate knowledge of the English structure while 40% of participants in the pre-intermediate group asserted that they used Arabic only to translate the given sentences and questions as a strategy of facilitating their task. In contrast, 20% of learners in the pre-intermediate group denied any influence of Arabic in their performance.

Adult Arab learners in the pre-intermediate group explained their reliance on Arabic as a strategy they tended to utilize because they did not have the sufficient knowledge of English structures. They inclined to compare what is available in their L1 and L2 and tried to figure out similarities to produce. However, it is obvious from their answers that the influence of Arabic is crucial in case of wh-inversion because the Arabic structure in this case is less marked and consequently less difficult and needs less time to process than that of English. The following are some examples of their answers:

- I applied the Arabic structure because I did not know the English structure and Arabic structure is easier than that of English.
- I applied the same order because it is easier.

L1 transfer in wh-inversion gives evidence to the DMH predictions in that L2 learners show a tendency to transfer what is unmarked in their L1 if the L2 structure or feature is marked. Additionally, the noticeable percentage of the error “pre-verbal negation” (e.g. the movie no lasted two hours) that was detected in their production on the negativesentences in both tasks may reflect their L1 structure. In other words, learners’ Arabic background may evoke this kind of error. However, such type of error does not follow directly from L1 transfer since it has been documented in the production of children and L2 learners of other languages (e.g. Irvine, 2005, Perales et.al, 2009 and Yazdifazeli & Maleckzadeh, 2014), suggesting that it could be a developmental error rather than a transfer error.

The results of both tasks show that Arabic influence in the case of inversion was more effective than that of negation. The error of the type ‘no inversion (omission of do-support), which comprised the highest percentage, and the error of the type ‘verb inverted’ (e.g. ‘suggested the waiter pasta to Maria?’), reproduce what is present in the Arabic question structure. Furthermore, the findings indicate that Adult Arab learners with low proficiency level linked the use of ‘do’ with negation. They considered it a negative marker rather than an auxiliary verb which is inserted under T for feature-checking purposes. Although the pre-intermediate group perceived the presence of ‘do’ and reset their grammar to suit that of English, they were unable
to use it correctly and used ‘do’ in forming hypotheses and testing them. They fluctuated between unanalyzed ‘do’ and analyzed one, but generally non target forms are more frequent.

Overall, the data from the pre-intermediate group partially supports the claim of FTFA in that the first state of L2 acquisition is characterized by the use of L1 grammar; in contrast, it supports FTFA all errors that L2 learners produce fall within the limits of UG properties. The errors of the type verb inverted, no do-support in questions, double marking, pre-verbal and post-verbal negation could be induced by Arabic grammar, though the fact that such errors have been reported in the interlanguage of L2 learners from different language backgrounds, signifies that the structural difficulty of certain features and structures might be universal for all L2 learners. Furthermore, the rates of these errors in the contexts of do-support were higher than in the contexts of ‘be’ and ‘have’, indicating that DMH is upheld since marked features attract more L1 transfer and cause more difficulty than unmarked ones.

On the other hand, the advanced group, in responding to the interview questions disregarded any reliance on the Arabic grammar. Psychotypology, as one of the constraints on language transfer, plays an influential role in the case of advanced group’s interlanguage system. Advanced group participants’ perception of how Arabic is distant from English put an end to its influence with the exception of one participant who acknowledged the use of Arabic structure in the production of wh-inversion, pointing out that English wh-inversion involve more syntactic operations and accordingly more time to process than the corresponding Arabic structure. The learner’s deviation from the L2 target structure does not imply that do-support is not incorporated in his interlanguage system or the L2 grammar is not fully shaped, but it reflects a strategy of communication he prefers. Furthermore, another participant displayed a variable use of inflection system in contexts of do-support. The presence or absence of tense feature in Arabic might not be the main factor initiating such inconsistency in supplying the inflection since this pattern of performance holds for L2 learners from a variety of L1 backgrounds.

In sum, the advanced group’s performance is consistent with the prediction of FTFA proposal. The final state of L2 acquisition as result of increased L2 input exhibits convergence on L2 grammar, but the difficulty of certain L2 structures (e.g. do-support and inflection system) could be “a cause of effect on suppliance of overt morphology and not on underlying representation” (White, 2003,p.129).

Q 2: Is there a relationship between learners’ proficiency level and their mastery of Do-support?

To answer this question, first we calculated the performance (right answer ratio) of each group (pre-intermediate group, advanced group) in both multiple-choice and written production task. The ratios are shown in Tables (1) and (2).

Table 1. The right answer ratio for the advanced group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Do-support</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multiple- choice</td>
<td>Written production</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negation</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes-No questions</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wh-questions</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. The right answer ratio for the pre-intermediate group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Do-support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multiple-choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negation</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes-No questions</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wh-questions</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in tables (1) and (2) above, the effect of proficiency level as predicted by FTFA is very prevalent. The advanced group’s performance overrides that of pre-intermediate group. In other words, although the two groups seem to have perceived the presence of the auxiliary ‘do’, only the learners in the advanced group showed signs of convergence on L2 norms. Moreover, to find out whether these differences in the performance of the two groups are significant or not, an independent sample t-test was employed as the statistical mean for the data analysis purpose. The result reveals that there are statistically significant differences between the pre-intermediate and the advance group in favour of the advance group where the Sig value for do-support in the multiple choice task is .001, which is less than α (0.05), while the Sig value for do-support in the written production task is .007, which is also less than α (0.05).

Conclusion
The findings of the two tasks show that do-support as a unique characteristic of English language is troublesome for adult Arab L2 learners of English in the pre-intermediate group. Some problems were encountered with the interpretation of the data obtained from the advanced group. The performance of participant number 4 in the advanced group was somehow problematic. She seemed to acquire the rule of do-support but she failed to show native-like sensitivity to inflection. In addition, participant number 2 appeared to create his own system concerning wh-inversion, neglecting the grammar of English because of the difficulty of such structure compared to that of Arabic. Furthermore, the development trend in the acquisition of do-support outplays that of L1 transfer demonstrating that the difficulties adult Arab learners have with the three contexts might be the result of the complexity of do-support as a marked feature. However, in most cases, it can be noted that do-support appears earlier than the development of inflection. The overall findings are partially consistent with FTFA, but they are fully consistent with DMH.

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Efficacy of ESP in EFL Context: A Case Study of Saudi Arabia

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Abstract
The essence of English for Specific Purpose (ESP) is to provide a strong foundation of English required for specific professional disciplines, and the Preparatory Year Programme (PYP) in Saudi universities are designed to achieve the desired proficiency level required for various professional disciplines. The present study aims to delineate the efficacy of ESP vis-à-vis the PYP with special reference to Najran University. It intends to investigate whether PYP students’ English proficiency conforms to ESP standards by analysing teachers’ feedback and expert opinions. The research design makes methodological triangulation using both qualitative (interviews) and quantitative (questionnaire) methods. Forty teachers of PYP, teaching various courses of English, Najran University were randomly selected to elicit their feedback and opinion on various aspects of students’ linguistic proficiency vis-à-vis ESP standards. The questionnaire consisted of eleven questions using Likert’s 5 scales (Strongly Agree, Agree, Can’t Say, Disagree, Strongly Disagree). Semi-structured interviews were also used to acquire detailed perceptions of the teachers. Ten teachers were interviewed with four questions pertaining to the relevant research area. Based on the data analysis, it is observed that most of the students at PYP have language proficiency to learn ESP, but not up to the desired level. There is a need to enhance learners’ proficiency level required for various professional disciplines. In the end, this study offers some remedial measures and suggestions aiming not only to raise the compatibility of ESP in the context of PYP in Saudi Arabia, but also to inject more ESP-oriented materials in the curriculum.

Keywords: EFL, ESP, ESP materials, professional disciplines, PYP

1. Introduction

In today’s globalized world, the significance of English has grown immensely. This significance has increased manifold in countries where English enjoys the status of English as a foreign language (EFL). It is no longer confined to academic circles only, but has expanded itself to commerce, business and personal communication of the people in the EFL-context countries. Communications, both academic and non-academic, and sharing of ideas are overwhelmingly done through the medium of English in the present global scenario. This is a consequence of the fact that this language has the highest and the most effective penetration among all countries of the globe; overwhelming majority of these countries being EFL specific. Since the English language is a storehouse of world knowledge, it has been chosen as the medium of instruction for higher studies in general in many regions of the world including the Gulf countries (Crystal, 2003). Saudi Arabia is no exception to this rule. It has provided a primary status to the English language in all its institutions of higher education. Following the example of global trend, colleges and universities in Saudi Arabia are opting English as the medium of instruction. The stature of English as the chosen language of academics and research has greatly influenced higher learning contexts in Saudi Arabia, particularly professional disciplines such as medicine, engineering, computer sciences etc. This has highly enhanced the scope for ESP in professional courses of specific disciplines. ESP courses require a particular level of language proficiency. The PYP is intended to enhance and elevate Saudi learners’ language proficiency so that they are compatible with ESP standards in their professional disciplines.

The specific necessities of various fields and professions have led to the evolution of ESP. The demand for ESP is growing rapidly, particularly in EFL settings where English is used for instructional purposes. In view of the greater demand for English in academic, vocational and professional fields, colleges and universities in Saudi Arabia are now offering an amalgamation of courses focusing on diverse subject areas for students to choose from. They aim to cater to various student needs and wants, hoping to enhance English language proficiency required for all professional disciplines. They also attempt to familiarize students with content area knowledge and skills specialized in each field in order to meet students’ futuristic career needs. To make learners ‘global professionals’, they need to be equipped with English language proficiency to access the content areas of professional disciplines such as medicine, engineering, computer sciences etc. That’s precisely the reason why an increasing number of colleges and universities in Saudi Arabia have been endeavouring to strengthen English proficiency level of their students. To that end, the ESP approach seems to provide a promising futuristic alternative.

In Saudi Arabia, the success of the ESP approach is dependent on the success of the PYP. The concept of the PYP is to achieve the desired proficiency level required for various professional courses such as medicine, engineering, computer sciences etc. Thus, PYP courses are designed to bridge the gap and elevate the students’ language proficiency from current to the desired level required for various ESP-specific courses. The efficacy of ESP is critically linked to the desired effectiveness of linguistic proficiency imparted in the PYP’s. The present research endeavours to explore whether or not PYP, Najran University has achieved the desired results by analysing the teachers’ feedback and expert opinions on students’ English proficiency required for ESP.
2. Research Objectives
This research intends to:
1. Analyze teachers’ opinion and perception on PYP students’ language proficiency required for various professional courses i.e. ESP.
2. Offer pragmatic suggestions to improve ESP materials vis-à-vis PYP to enhance the efficacy of ESP in Saudi Arabia.

3. Literature Review
ESP came into being to fulfill the specific needs and sustainable competency of the learners who need English to have access to medicine, engineering and other related disciplines. ESP, as argued by practitioners, has its driving and defining characteristic stance leading to focus on the learners’ specific objectives. ESP has always been with needs analysis and preparing learners to converse effectively in the tasks prescribed by their field of study or work situation. It prepares learners use English as a foreign language in communicating and cooperating with foreign partners in the professional field and real-life situations. According to Helsvig (2012), ESP aims at developing students' communication skills based on the learners’ professional field of specialization. It includes specialized programs which are designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialized field of science, work or technology. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define ESP as "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p.19). Widdowson (1981) states that the well-defined specifications, which are based on the needs of the learners, can be used to determine the content of a language programme.

Hutchinson & Waters (1992) argue that if learners, sponsors, and teachers know why learners need English, that awareness will have an influence on what will be accepted as reasonable content in the language course and what potential can be exploited. It is worth mentioning here that a specific programme requires a specific approach with some special terminologies/vocabulary words which, in turn, help learners understand the texts of a specific discipline of professional studies. For instance, Fredericks (1996) says that "the primary purpose of an ESP language training programme should be to provide optimal learning opportunities for all students through recognition of and provision for each individual's unique patterns of growth and development" (p.1). In addition, Waters (1977) claims that:

what is involved in an ESP programme could be said to have two main facets: a. adding an 'overlay' of the English particularly associated with the study of science; and b. teaching communicative skills in this English and in the stock of general English already acquired." (p. 41-42)

With the globalization of trade and economy and international communication in various fields, the demand for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is expanding, especially in countries where English is taught as a foreign language. Kandeel (2003) conducted a study on ESP at UNRWA vocational centers. The project began with an analysis of needs for ESP in both the Jordanian and the UAE labor markets. From that analysis, came the unexpected observations that it is most often not the lack of technical English that is holding the graduates back, but rather their limited communicative abilities especially in a specified professional discipline. As we know that linguists of communicative language teaching also recognized that many learners
needed English in order to use it in specific occupational or educational settings. For them it would be more efficient to teach them the specific kinds of language and communicative skills needed for particular roles, (e.g., that of nurse, engineer, flight attendant, pilot, biologist, etc.) rather than just to concentrate on more general English. This led to the discipline of needs analysis – the utilization of perception, studies, interviews, circumstance investigation and investigation of dialect tests gathered in different occasions – so as to decide the sorts of correspondence learners would need to master if they were in specific occupational or instructive parts and the dialect components of specific settings. The focus of needs analysis is to determine the specific characteristics of a language when it is used for specific rather than general purposes (Richards, 2006). So, ESP program does not only mean to provide students with a number of relevant words and terms in their fields and specializations, but also:

1. Present pre-set skill training in a well-framed format for a specific time and target.
2. Provide the learners with staged activities for practice and communicative interaction to enforce and fix to learn in a specific and concise way.
3. Provide the learners and teachers with different vocabulary words to be taught and practiced.

Robinson (1980) mentions that an ESP course is purposeful and aimed at the successful performance of occupational or educational roles. ESP is considered as a significant area in language teaching field which was in reality teaching languages towards learner’s needs in order to economize the instruction of the language and for the optimization of the learning process (Farhady, 2005). According to Belcher (2004), ESP is an attempt to help learners accomplish their academic and occupational needs and goals. ESP originated to fulfil the demand the learners around the world who need to learn English to have access to science, technology, and economic resources (Alharby, 2005). Douglas (2000) emphasizes in his book on the integration of both language skills and language components for teaching, learning and yet testing the specific purpose language ability of a learner. In spite of this, the difference between what is known as General English and Specific English is to a great extent clear, that is, the former is general-learning process, and the latter is (focused) centred-learning process. This can be made clearer with quoting Basturkmen (2006), who claims that “whereas General English Language teaching tends to set out from point A toward an often pretty indeterminate destination, setting sail through largely unchartered waters, whereas ESP aims to speed learners through to a known destination” (p. 9). Concerning the differences between the ESP and the general English Hutchinson et al. (1987:53) state "simply in theory nothing, in practice a great deal". The difference between ESP and General English is not a matter of the “existence” of a need; it is rather the “awareness” of a need. The work that has been done in the field of ESP has generally followed the assumption that if a group of learners English language needs can be accurately specified, then this identification can be used to determine the content of a language program that will meet these needs (Munby, 1978). According to the University of Winnipeg (2016) ESP programs differ from general English language courses because it has the following characteristics:

1. Designed to meet the specific needs of the learners.
2. Related to content (themes and topics) to particular disciplines or occupations.
3. Use authentic work-specific documents and materials.
4. Promote cultural awareness and seeks to improve intercultural competency.
5. Deliver intermediate and advanced level language training.

Fiorito (2005) elaborates deeply on the difference between the ESP and the general English; he states that the most important difference lies in the learners and their purposes for learning English. ESP students are usually adults who already have some acquaintance with English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions. An ESP program is therefore built on an assessment of purposes and needs and the functions for which English is required. Fiorito (2005) mentions also both the language and instructions as other fields of differences between the ESP and the general English. He states that ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subjects varying from accounting or computer science to tourism and business management. The ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world (or wishes); instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners. However, English as a second language (ESL) and ESP diverge not only in the nature of the learner, but also in the aim of instruction. In fact, as general rule while in ESL all four language skills; listening, reading, speaking, and writing, are stressed equally, in ESP it is a needs analysis that determines which language skills are most needed by the students, and the syllabus is designed accordingly. An ESP program, might, for example, emphasize the development of reading skills in students who are preparing for graduate work in business administration; or it might promote the development of spoken skills in students who are studying English in order to become tourist guides (Fiorito, 2005). Anthony (1997) notes that, it is not clear where ESP courses and general English courses begin; numerous non-specialist ESL instructors use an ESP approach in that their syllabi are based on analysis of learner needs and their own personal specialist knowledge of using English for real communication. Philip Skeldon, as cited in Tomlinson (2008), believes that ESP is ‘a parlous state and is being abandoned by many tertiary institutions, like Sultan Qaboos University found that “the English teachers seemed to learn a lot of science, but the students didn’t seem to learn much English’, (p.72). He argues that teachers whatever were the situations they still can offer help for types of learners and to whatsoever purposes they need. Heredia (2000) states that ESP is a branch of teaching English as a Second Language according to the needs of the learners and similar to this is the syllabus which must address the specific needs of the learners.

Agreeing to all that have been mentioned above about the ESP, Tharp-Wiesauer (2002) adds that “the needs of the learners may be assessed at many levels and functions, including fluency, learning styles, occupation, and how the target language will be used… the ESP curriculum is then designed to best fit the learners” (p.3). According to Robinson (1980), as cited in Dehrab (2002) “an ESP… course is purposeful and is aimed at satisfying the specific needs of the student with ultimate goal of learners’ successful performance of the occupational and educational roles” (p. 68).

The objectives of ESP or ESP-oriented courses at the PYP’s in Saudi universities aim to bridge the gap of students’ language proficiency with their English requirement level in different professional courses they join. The present study, while investigating the efficacy of ESP in an EFL context like Saudi Arabia, highlights that PYP students’ future professional disciplines like medicine, dentistry, computer science, business management, engineering etc. need English proficiency level to cope with the latest development in every field of professional disciplines.
they aspire to join. They may not need to speak fluently, learn the linguistics of English language or the high level of such language. Instead, they need the basics of this language, though, reading and comprehending what they read, write reports for their experiments etc. As defined earlier, ESP approach is the main tool to define learners’ needs in a specific field because the awareness is more recognizable in a specific target situation representing a “real-life-situation”. In short, the following may be stated as the objectives of ESP courses for the PYPs in Saudi universities:

- To reveal subject-specific language use,
- To enhance professional knowledge, and
- To foster linguistic awareness among PYP students.

4. Context of the Study

This study was conducted in the second semester of the academic year 2015-2016 at PYP, Department of English, Najran University, Saudi Arabia. In the first semester, students are taught skills like listening, speaking, reading and writing, as courses of Level 1. The students who successfully complete the program are promoted to Level 2. In the second semester i.e. Level 2, they are taught ESP-oriented courses like general English and technical writing. The present study was conducted on Level 2 so that the efficacy of ESP-oriented courses of PYP can be analysed in terms of linguistic proficiency of the students. For this purpose, the present research analyses teachers’ feedback and expert opinions on students’ English proficiency required for ESP. In addition, semi-structured interviews were also used to elicit in-depth and detailed perceptions of the teachers in the relevant field. Calhoun (2002) describes action research as studying what’s happening in a school, deciding if improvement in instruction is needed, examining the effects of what was tried, and then beginning the process again. A similar process was followed in the present study. The crux of this process was a sincere effort to enhance the linguistic proficiency of Saudi EFL learners so that they are compatible with ESP standards. The current study provides some suggestions on how to improve language proficiency in PYP vis-à-vis ESP courses.

5. Research Methodology

In any research study, research methodology is of paramount importance as claimed by many writers on this concerned field (e.g. Oppenheim, 1992; Bell, 1998; Sarantakos, 2005; Punch, 2005; Seidman, 2006; Dornyei, 2007). As far as the current research is concerned, it was rationalized that the mixed method of interview and questionnaire survey is a suitable research method. Thus, the present study makes methodological triangulation as far as research design is concerned, using both qualitative and quantitative methods by employing two instruments, namely interview and questionnaire, in order to illustrate the extent to which methodological triangulation could potentially strengthen both the reliability and validity of the study, and also to confirm the emerging findings. Cohen et al. (2005) define methodological triangulation as the use of two or more methods of data collection to study the same phenomena. The present study uses methodological triangulation to analyse PYP teachers’ opinions on the effectiveness and compatibility of Saudi students’ English proficiency required for ESP.

5.1 Pilot Study

Nunan and Bailey (2009) assert that “The concept of piloting a questionnaire (or any other data collection procedure) is like a dress rehearsal in the theatre. By administering the
questionnaire before the actual data collection, you can locate any unclear items, misnumbered
items, confusing instructions and so on” (p. 145 ). Thus, the main objective of the present pilot
study was to prepare for the process of the main data collection. To ensure the validity of the
survey and the interviews, it was first piloted by ten EFL instructors teaching ESP or ESP-
oriented courses for at least five years. Their opinion and feedback was instrumental in
modifying some items. The survey was also given to five Assistant Professors and Associate
Professors to examine its validity. Some of the items in the questionnaire were modified
or added as per their suggestions so as to ensure the content validity. Similarly, the interview
questions were also discussed with the experts and adequate modifications were made
accordingly.

5.2 Participants
For the present study, forty teachers of PYP, teaching various ESP or ESP-oriented
courses, Najran University were randomly selected to elicit their feedback and opinion on
various aspects of students’ linguistic proficiency vis-à-vis ESP standards. Interviews were also
conducted of ten teachers with four questions pertaining to the relevant research area. The
interview is one of the most effective research instruments. In the current study, it was utilized to
explore the research area in depth and thoroughly acquire detailed and comprehensive
information from the ten participants.

5.3 Tools
The questionnaire is one of the most popular and commonly used instruments of research
in social sciences, especially in English Language Teaching / Applied Linguistics. It is one of the
best tool for collecting written information, and also one of the simplest techniques through
which a researcher can elicit a wide range of information from the respondents. Therefore,
Questionnaire was used as a means to elicit teachers’ opinion and perception on various aspects
of students’ linguistic proficiency vis-à-vis ESP standards (See Appendix A). The questionnaire
consisted of eleven questions using Likert scale of agreement ( ranging from 1 which means
‘Strongly Agree’, 4 ‘Agree’, 3 ‘Can’t Say’, 2 ‘Disagree’, 1 ‘Strongly Disagree’). In addition,
semi-structured interviews (See Appendix B) were also used to acquire in-depth and detailed
perceptions of the teachers. Ten teachers were interviewed with four questions pertaining to the
relevant research area of the present study.

5.4 Procedures
Forty five questionnaires, containing ten statements and one rating scale question, were
randomly distributed among teachers of the PYP teaching various ESP or ESP-oriented courses.
40 questionnaires which were given serious attention by the participants were finally selected for
the study. Incomplete questionnaires or the ones with the same values against each item were not
included in the study. The participants were first described the importance of the present study
and was then provided with adequate time for their responses. These responses were analysed to
find out the issues regarding students’ language proficiency in the context of ESP input required
for various professional courses such as medicine, engineering, computer sciences etc., thereby
providing a meticulous insight into its compatibility level.

Semi-structured interviews were also conducted in the present study for in-depth and
detailed responses of the participants. Ten teachers, having at least 5 years’ experience in the
relevant courses, were interviewed in a comfortable and suitable environment. Each interviewee was interviewed individually for 30 to 40 minutes. Teachers were interviewed after the questionnaire survey, as the survey could then be used to illustrate or clarify issues noted in the questionnaire survey. The process of transcribing the transcripts was done immediately after each interview to ensure that the researchers had the huge advantage of remembering the non-verbal cues that immensely enhance the verbal interaction of the interviews.

6. Data Analysis and Findings

In this section, we present an overview of data analysis of the questionnaire and interview questions along with the findings of this research. The data analysis has been divided into two parts: the first part will contain a comprehensive analysis on the responses of the questionnaire and the second part will be a detailed analysis of the interviews.

6.1 Analysis of Teachers’ Questionnaire

Q1: Students have enough language proficiency to learn ESP.

From the responses to the question 1 (Figure 1), it can be seen that 70 per cent of the respondents agree that students have enough language proficiency to learn ESP. 20 per cent of the respondents decided not to comment, while 10 per cent respondents disagree with the question statement.

![Preference Scales](Image)

Preference Scales

*Figure 1. Percentage responses of teachers for question 1*

Q2: ESP meets students learning needs.

From the responses to the question 2 (Figure 2), it is noted that 40 per cent of the respondents agree that ESP meets students learning needs. 30 per cent of the respondents did choose the option “can’t say”, while 30 per cent respondents disagree with the question statement.
Q3: Students understand ESP vocabulary words needed for X major.

From the responses to the question 3 (Figure 3), it can be extracted that 50 per cent of the respondents agree that students understand ESP vocabulary words needed for X major. 40 per cent of the respondents disagree followed by 10 per cent respondents who chose to go with "can’t say".
**Q4: ESP enhances students LSRW (listening, speaking, reading, writing) ability.**

From the responses to the question 4 (Figure 4), it can be seen that 90 per cent of the respondents agree that ESP enhances students LSRW (listening, speaking, reading, writing) ability, while 10 per cent respondents disagree with the question statement.

![Preference Scales](image)

*Figure 4. Percentage responses of teachers for question 4*

**Q5: Students submit assignments with no/less linguistic ambiguity.**

From the responses to the question 5 (Figure 5), it can be extracted that only 30 per cent of the respondents agree that students submit assignments with no/less linguistic ambiguity. Major chunks voice in disagreement and say that 60 per cent students submit assignments with linguistic ambiguity followed by 10 per cent respondent who “strongly disagree” with the statement.

![Preference Scales](image)

*Figure 5. Percentage responses of teachers for question 5*
**Q6: Students need ESP vocabulary in PYP.**

From the responses to the question 6 (Figure 6), it can be extracted that 30 per cent of the respondents strongly agree that students need ESP vocabulary in PYP. 60 per cent of the respondents agree to the question statement, while 10 per cent of the respondents voiced as “can’t say”.

![Preference Scales](image)

*Figure 6. Percentage responses of teachers for question 6*

**Q7: ESP motivates students to engage in related/required activities required for X major.**

From the responses to the question 7 (Figure 7), it can be noted that 10 per cent of the respondents strongly agree that ESP motivates students to engage in related/required activities required for X major. 50 per cent of the respondents agree to the question statement. 20 per cent of the respondents voiced as “can’t say”, while 20 per cent respondents disagree with the question statement.

![Preference Scales](image)

*Figure 7. Percentage responses of teachers for question 7*
**Q8: ESP helps students understand major subjects/courses other than English.**

From the responses to the question 8 (Figure 8), it can be underlined that 10 per cent of the respondents strongly agree that ESP helps students understand major subjects/courses other than English/ESP. 40 per cent of the respondents agree to the question statement. 20 per cent of the respondents voiced as “can’t say”, while 30 per cent respondents disagree with the question statement.

![Preference Scales](image1)

*Figure 8. Percentage responses of teachers for question 8*

**Q9: ESP helps students’ develop professional communication skills.**

From the responses to the question 9 (Figure 9), it can be seen that 20 per cent of the respondents strongly agree that ESP helps students’ develop professional communication skills. 40 per cent of the respondents agree to the question statement. 30 per cent of the respondents voiced as “can’t say”, while 10 per cent respondents disagree with the question statement.

![Preference Scales](image2)

*Figure 9. Percentage responses of teachers for question 9*
Q10: ESP motivates students learn English.

From the responses to the question 10 (Figure 10), it can be seen that 20 per cent of the respondents strongly agree that ESP motivates students learn English. 50 per cent of the respondents agree to the question statement. 20 per cent of the respondents voiced as “can’t say”, while 10 per cent respondents disagree with the question statement.

![Preference Scales](image)

*Figure 10. Percentage responses of teachers for question 10*

11: Rate (on a scale of 1-5) the students ESP proficiency. (Scale: 5 Strongest, 1 weakest)

From the responses to the question 11 (Figure 11), it can be observed that only 10 per cent of the respondents rated students ESP proficiency as “strong”. 70 per cent respondents rated students ESP proficiency as “weak” followed by 20 per cent respondents who rated students ESP proficiency as “weakest”.

![Rating Scales](image)

*Figure 11. Percentage responses of teachers for question 11*
6.2 Analysis of the Interviews

There were four interview questions which were asked to the interviewees i.e. 10 teachers teaching in the PYP, Najran University to elicit their in-depth and detailed perceptions in the relevant research area. The researchers asked questions regarding basic and pragmatic segments of learning and teaching EFL in the context of Saudi Arabia in general and Najran University in particular, to evaluate its efficacy in language proficiency required in the context of ESP. The following is the analysis of the interview questions.

Q1. Mention some common learning difficulties students face.

Responses of Q1 (Figure 12 and the following paragraph) are categorized in 5 broad categories. Four categories (Vocabulary, Pronunciation, Motivation & Interest, Knowledge & Comprehension) are presented and analyzed in the figure while the last category (named “Others”) is discussed in the following paragraph since it has got miscellaneous responses.

Four teachers were of the view that the students have problems in vocabulary. Two teachers were of the view that the students have problems in pronunciation. Another two teachers observed that the problems are related to motivation & interest, while two other teachers opined that the problems are in the segment of knowledge & comprehension.

In the exclusive category of ‘Others’, there were miscellaneous responses. There was a range of opinions of teachers regarding the students’ difficulties in the areas of writing, speaking,
mother tongue interference, spelling, and lack of exposure. These areas need to be focused both by students as well as teachers in order to minimize the problems.

**Q2. Mention some pedagogical (teaching) problems teachers face.**

Responses of Q2 (Figure 13 and the following paragraph) are categorized in 5 broad categories. Four categories (Comprehension, Poor background & Exposure, Motivation & Interest, Minimum Use of English & Lack of Practice) are presented and analyzed in the figure while the last category (named “Others”) is discussed in the following paragraph since it has got miscellaneous responses.

Three respondents were of the view that the teachers face problems in teaching comprehension, two teachers were of the view that the teachers face problems because of students’ poor background and exposure of the language. Another four teachers observed that the problems are related to motivation and interest of the students, while another one teacher relates the teaching problems to the students’ minimum use of English and lack of practice.

*Figure 13. Number-wise responses of teachers for question 2*

In the category of ‘Others’, there were miscellaneous responses. This segment has a whole range of opinions regarding pedagogical problems faced by teachers like inadequate materials, learning inertia, heterogeneous classroom etc. These segments need to be taken into serious consideration by the teachers to address the issues.

3. **Suggestions for improving students’ general language proficiency.**

Responses of Q3 (Figure 14 and the following paragraph) are categorized in 5 broad categories. Four categories (Motivating Students, More ESP Specific Contents based on real-life Situations, More Practice & Tests, More Exposure to Students) are presented and analyzed in the
figure while the last category (named “Others”) is discussed in the following paragraph since it has got miscellaneous responses.

For improving students’ general language proficiency, two teachers were of the opinion that students should be adequately motivated. Three other teachers were of the view that there should be more ESP-based content with real-life situations. Another three teachers emphasized the need of more practice & tests for the students. Two other teachers focused on the necessity of more exposure in the language for the students.

In the category of ‘Others’, there were again miscellaneous responses. There were a wide variety of opinions like providing students with descriptive writing, maximum use of IT to avoid boredom and making learning interesting, organizing various literary activities. Teachers should consummately focus on these suggestions as it can go a long way in enhancing their teaching credentials.

Q4. Remedies for improving course specific language proficiency.

Responses of Q4 (Figure 15 and the following paragraph) are categorized in 5 broad categories. Four categories (Strategies, ESP courses, Course Selection, Interesting & Easy Activities) are presented and analyzed in the figure while the last category (named “Others”) is discussed in the following paragraph since it has got miscellaneous responses.

For improving course specific language proficiency, two teachers focused on the need of adopting appropriate teaching strategies that suit the level of the students. One teacher emphasized the need of improving ESP-specific contents. Three other teachers focused on the various pros and cons of course selection. Yet four teachers’ opinion was that there should be
various interesting and fun activities for the students to enhance their course specific language proficiency.

![Figure 15. Number-wise responses of teachers for question 4](image)

In the last, but not the least category of “Others”, there were obviously miscellaneous responses. Again there were mixed variety of responses like collective decision regarding course compiling, wide range of relevant internet access etc.

**Conclusion and Suggestions**

Based on the findings, it can be observed that most of the students at PYP have language proficiency to learn ESP, but still there is a need to raise learners proficiency level required for various professional disciplines. The idea that ESP meets students learning needs was not very clear and, according to researchers, requires more discussion and research. On one hand, this research, in agreement with the findings, suggests stake holders to incorporate more ESP orientations in PYP English curriculum to boost students ESP vocabulary needed for their professional career, and on the other hand, the researchers agree that ESP enhances students’ macro skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. PYP Students’ assignments with language and communication issues have no exception, since other academic departments have been witnessing the same and less ESP orientation simply cannot be blamed for. Of course, a review of the PYP English curriculum is required to suggest that students need more ESP based themes to overcome the language and communication issues. The following concepts need further research at a wider level to propose the tangible results:

- ESP motivates students to engage in related/required activities required for X major.
- ESP helps students understand major subjects/courses other than English/ESP.
- ESP helps students’ develop professional communication skills.
- ESP motivates students learn English.
In conclusion, this study offers a plethora of suggestions to put into practice aiming not only to enhance the compatibility of ESP vis-à-vis PYP programmes but also to bring along better results in the futuristic perspective of PYPs in Saudi Universities in general and Najran University in particular. Relevant vocabulary from scientific and professional disciplines should be inducted. Students should be familiar with the major vocabulary of their respective discipline. Students should be engaged more in speaking activities to provide them with better exposure. To sustain students’ interest, motivational and interesting learning instructions should be ensured. Students should also be given more practice on exercises which invigorate critical thinking and comprehension. Notices and announcements, pertaining to students, should be written in English. Students-centred approach should be used in teaching. ESP orientations and the curriculum should be enhanced based on real life situations. Standard assessment practice should be adapted, like class quizzes with grades. Fun games should be played in the classroom, i.e. language games. The materials should be selected and graded, from easy to difficult. In-service teacher training sessions should be frequent. Innovative teaching methods should be used which motivates students.

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References
Efficacy of ESP in EFL Context: A Case Study of Saudi Arabia


Efficacy of ESP in EFL Context: A Case Study of Saudi Arabia

 Nazim & Hazarika

and the social sciences (3rd Ed). Teachers College Press.


APPENDIX A: TEACHERS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Scale: 5= Strongly agree, 4= agree, 3= Can’t say, 2= disagree, 1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongest, 4= Strong, 3= Neutral, 2= Weak, 1= Weakest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Students have enough language proficiency to learn ESP.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ESP meets students learning needs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students understand ESP vocabulary words needed for X major.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>ESP enhances students LSRW (listening, speaking, reading, writing) ability.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students submit assignments with no/less linguistic ambiguity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Students need ESP vocabulary in PYP.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>ESP motivates students to engage in related/required activities required for X major.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ESP helps students understand major subjects/courses other than English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>ESP helps students’ develop professional communication skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>ESP motivates students learn English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Rate (on a scale of 1-5) the students ESP proficiency.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APPENDIX B : INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Mention some common learning difficulties students face.
   1. ______________________ 2. ________________________ 3. ______________________
   4. ______________________ 5. Others ______________________

2. Mention some pedagogical (teaching) problems teachers face.
   1. ______________________ 2. ________________________ 3. ______________________
   4. ______________________ 5. Others ______________________

   11. ______________________ 2. ________________________ 3. ______________________
   4. ______________________ 5. Others ______________________

4. Remedies for improving course specific language proficiency.
   1. ______________________ 2. ________________________ 3. ______________________
   4. ______________________ 5. Others ______________________
The Effects of Motivation and Other Factors on Second Language Acquisition: A Case Study on Achieving Advanced Oral Proficiency in English

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Abstract:
This paper is based on a case study of Raya, a Palestinian Arab undergraduate student, at the University of Jordan, who has achieved level B1 according to The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in listening and reading comprehension (‘accomplished’) and CEFR level B2 (‘superior’) in language form and meaning in English according to the TOEFL Junior Exam. Based on multiple data sources (i.e. interviews, observation, questionnaires and document analysis), the study aims to highlight how Raya's multiple identities as a language learner, avid film watcher, YouTube user and online gamer, and a (non) member of a target language community have contributed to her oral proficiency in English. The study also aims to emphasize some personal attributes that Raya has as a language learner in order to uncover the factors which have assisted or hampered her acquisition of English. The main finding of the case study is that Raya's English language proficiency has been enriched because of two overriding factors: firstly, integrative motivation (i.e. her love of English) highlighted through her immersion in the target language by her online identity, films and social interaction; and, secondly, instrumental motivation (i.e. using the language as a means to academic and professional advancement) in the sense she realized English was a way of helping her to achieve her goal of leaving her hometown and studying abroad. It is hoped that this study will inspire and inform both language learners and educators alike, as to some of the steps to success in acquiring proficiency in English or any other language.

Key Words: advanced speaker, integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, learning styles, second language acquisition

Introduction
The fact that some language learners (in retrospect generally only a small number) achieve native-like proficiency while most do not, has been the subject of much debate in the existing literature such as the work of Leaver and Shekhtman (2002) and Byrnes (2006). Perhaps, due to this limited number of learners who achieve such proficiency, there is actually very little research about them and how they have come to be proficient in the target language. More specifically, research is sparse on how the personal and linguistic profiles of learners who achieve such high proficiency have assisted or hampered their second language acquisition is sparse.

In order to gain some insight into second language oral proficiency, the researchers report on the results from a case study of Raya, a Palestinian Arab undergraduate student (of one of the researchers) at The University of Jordan, Amman, who has achieved level B1 (‘accomplished’) according to The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in listening and reading comprehension and CEFR level B2 (‘superior’) in language form and meaning in English according to the TOEFL Junior Exam. According to the Educational Testing Service (2016), these tests are “intended for students ages 11+ [and] are an objective and reliable measure of […] students' English communication skills.” (p.1). A learner who scores between 845-900, i.e. ‘superior’ “consistently demonstrates comprehension of complex written and spoken materials, drawing on knowledge of complex language structures and vocabulary” (Educational Testing Service, 2016, p.1). A learner who scores between 785–840, i.e. ‘accomplished’ “often demonstrates comprehension of complex written and spoken materials, drawing on knowledge of complex language structures and vocabulary” (Educational Testing Service, 2016, p.1).

This study aims to emphasize some personal attributes that Raya has as a language learner and her personal relationship with the target language community in order to uncover the factors which have assisted or hampered her acquisition of English. In doing so, the researchers hope to shed some light on Raya's linguistic journey in order to show other language learners as well as educators how sometimes, against all the odds, one can achieve language proficiency, especially when motivation (both integrative and instrumental) has a major role to play. Throughout the paper, Raya's interview comments and questionnaire responses will be referred to in exemplifying the factors behind her successful language proficiency. Reference will also be made to the comments of outside observers of Raya, namely her university lecturers, as further support to the claims posited.

Communicative Competence and Second Language Proficiency
As the knowledge of second language learning began to increase significantly in the 1970s, so did the realization that “no single research finding and no single method of language teaching would usher in an era of universal success in teaching a second language”(Kroll & De Groot, 2005, p.132). It was also recognized that despite particular methods or techniques of teaching, some individuals appear to be more successful than others with regard to second language acquisition (Kroll &De Groot, 2005, p.132). It was at this point, that the recognition of individual variation occurred with the conclusion that “certain people appeared to be endowed with abilities to succeed [whereas] others lacked those abilities” (Krol & De Groot, 2005, p.132).
Another influential study by Naiman et al. (1996), aimed to uncover whether there was a relationship between the personal characteristics of learners with high proficiency, as opposed to those who had been less successful in attempting to learn a second language. As Samimy (2008) notes, "the study revealed that good language learners differ from less successful counterparts in terms of their motivation, intellectual abilities, personality and learning preferences" (p.402). Motivation or "orientations" as Donnyeyi (2001b) and Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) refer to them, are often identified as two basic types, namely: instrumental and integrative (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) both of which were acknowledged by Raya in accelerating her language proficiency. As Kroll, J. and De Groot, (2005) argue:

The instrumental side of the dichotomy refers to acquiring the language as a means for attaining instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical material, translation and so forth. The integrative side describes learners who wish to integrate themselves into the culture of the second language group and become involved in social interchange in that group.(p.170)

More specifically, Naiman et al.(1996) discovered that good adult language learners appear to employ five strategies, which can also be applied to Raya, namely:

a) actively involve themselves in a language learning task; b) develop or exploit an awareness of language as a system; c) develop or exploit an awareness of language as a means of communication and interaction; d) realize initially or with time that they must cope with the affective demands made upon them by language learning and succeed in doing so; and e) constantly revise their L2 system. (pp.30-33)

Lightbown and Spada (2006) further discuss the linguistic process of language acquisition by examining learner characteristics that either have a positive or negative effect on individuals' proficiency. Variables included in their analysis were "intelligence, aptitude, learning styles, personality, motivation and attitudes, identity and ethnic group affiliation, learner beliefs, and age of acquisition" (Samimy, 2008, p.402). However, it is also recognized that such studies may be problematic since certain variables are not always directly observable or measurable, self-report questionnaires may not always be reliable and it cannot be assumed on face value that two variables such as motivation and language proficiency have a causal relationship. Nevertheless, in saying so, the importance of such research should not be underestimated for its benefits to researchers, educators and language learners alike in achieving a better understanding of the process of human learning in general and second language acquisition in particular (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, pp.56-57).

Whereas previous studies focused on high proficiency learners' personality traits or learning strategies, Norton and Toohey (2001) examined the relationships language learners have with the target language communities and whether this has any effect (positive or negative) on their language acquisition. It was found that "both adult and child learners were successful in gaining access to a target language community by relying on social resources" (Samimy, 2008, p.403). They did this by employing the assistance of "community or extra-community allies" (Norton & Toohey, 2002, p.318). Such allies enabled the learners to "negotiate their identities from stigmatized identities (ESL immigrant and ESL learner) to empowered identities (multi-
lingual resource and nice little girl)” (Samimy, 2008, p.403). They conclude that we should also “pay attention to social practices in the contexts in which individuals learn L2s” (Norton & Toohey, 2002, p.318), and not just the individual characteristics of good language learners (Samimy, 2008, p.403). The American male ‘Mark’ in Samimy's study (2008) who is highly proficient in Arabic, although feeling "that there were some personal factors which might hinder his easy access to the target language communities" (p.410), still has 'allies' in the form of native Arabic speaking friends, lecturers and colleagues. This is in contrast to Raya, who in fact has no 'allies', and as explained below, was in effect shunned by a section of the target language community (in this case, online). Hence it is significant that Raya achieved proficiency without the direct help of native speakers.

Given the characteristics of good language learners mentioned above, the aspect of Raya’s language proficiency which most struck the researchers after interacting and observing her, was her ‘fluency’. Fluency, as argued by theorists such as Faerch et al (1984, p.168), is a component of communicative competence which Carter and Nunan (2001) define as “the ability to use language appropriate to the social context in order to accomplish one’s goals” (p.219). Fluency also refers to “speakers’ ability to make use of whatever linguistic and pragmatic competence they have” (Faerch et al. 1984, p.168). A component of fluency is ‘strategic’ competence (especially important for foreign language learners) which is the ability to “cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the communicative channel open” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p.25). As Kroll and De Groot (2008) suggest “an eloquent speaker possesses and uses a sophisticated strategic competence” (p.220). Bachman (1990) goes further to argue that strategic competence is in fact a separate entity of communicative language ability, serving an “executive function of making the final decision” (p.87), whether it be “wording, phrasing, and other productive and receptive means for negotiating meaning” (Kroll & De Groot, 2005, p.221).

The theory behind communicative competence was born as a contrast to the traditional Chomskyan view (1965), which presented an idealized perspective of language, defining it as an abstract system with universal features. In response to Chomsky’s viewpoint, later works by theorists such as Hymes (1972) concluded that language could not be viewed as strictly an abstract phenomenon but rather as a social phenomenon, and they stressed the importance of an individual’s ability to employ speech appropriately in a variety of social contexts (See McCarthy, 2001, pp.45-46). Hymes, supported by the earlier work of Campbell and Wales (1970, pp.246-60), believes that linguistic competence was only one component of language competence. He defined communicative competence as a combination of grammatical competence and sociolinguistic/pragmatic competence (see McCarthy, 2001, pp.45-46). According to Hymes, the language user should have “the ability to produce utterances which are not so much grammatical, but more importantly, appropriate to the context in which they are made” (as cited in McLaughlin, 2001, p.1).

Later work by Canale and Swain (1980) aimed to provide a more comprehensive theoretical framework of communicative competence, with the aim of developing a set of effective guidelines for communicative approaches to second language teaching methodologies and more valid and reliable assessment instruments (p.1). They view communicative competence as a sub-component of a more general language competence, consisting of four components, namely: linguistic/grammatical competence; sociolinguistic competence; discourse competence;
and, strategic competence. They also suggested that if emphasis in the EFL classroom was placed on successfully conveyed messages rather than on grammaticality and the appropriateness of one’s utterances, then this would encourage the development of more effective communicative skills (1980, p.3). As is the case with Raya, although she was not provided with such a communicative environment within the school classroom, as discussed below, this obstacle was overcome in her extra-curricular lessons at AMIDEAST (America-MidEast), where she was given the opportunity to use English more freely.

For the purpose of the present study, focus was placed on a combination of both knowledge and performance, termed by Canale and Swain (1980) as ‘communicative performance’, or “the realization of competencies and their interaction in the actual production and comprehension of utterances” (p.6). Therefore, we have classified performance as a reflection (to a certain extent) of a learners’ competence. In light of Faerch et al’s (1984) definition of fluency competence stated above, Raya was observed for the extent to which she could use the language freely and spontaneously, in a comprehensible fashion. Observing Raya in her 'Oral Skills' lectures gave the researchers the opportunity to assess her language competence more effectively through performance. However, we recognize that the data collected of Raya’s performance cannot be viewed as wholly conclusive.

Method

The Participant

Raya is an 18-year-old Palestinian Arab female. She was born and raised in the Palestinian city of Hebron and has come to read for her undergraduate degree in English Language and Literature at The University of Jordan, after being awarded a scholarship for her high average of 97.9%. This is Raya's first time abroad and hence, the majority of her second language acquisition took place back home in Palestine. What is enthralling about Raya's story, along with the fact that she is still so young, is that she does not attribute her language proficiency to her schooling in anyway, but rather to what she herself has done to improve her English. As she says in her own words:

What helped me become excellent in English is my will and passion towards the language. This gave me motivation to work hard on myself; I couldn't find anyone to help me so I started looking for [other] ways that were available around me. (email statement, 7/4/16)

Approach

This is a single-case study; a methodological approach defined by Cresswell (2007, p.73) as:

A qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g. observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes.

Following the work of Samimy (2008), the researchers chose to do an intrinsic case study (Stake, 2003, p.136-137), because the interest of this study lies in investigating and hence increasing
one's understanding of a particular case, i.e. Raya as an advanced language learner. As Stake (2003) suggests, the rationale behind studying a single case is that by reading "experimental and contextual accounts by case researchers, we can increase both propositional and experimental knowledge" (p.145). That is, by studying individuals such as Raya, we gain an understanding of how a certain learner may achieve proficiency and whether such findings can be generalized to other cases. Optimally, we strive to establish whether there is something to learn from such individual success or failure to better our understanding of the second language learning process. A purposeful convenient sampling strategy was used in which in "a researcher selects individuals and sites for study because they can purposely inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study" (Creswell, 2007, p.35). Furthermore, learners like Raya with such high proficiency are hard to come by, especially those as young as she is, since apart from government testing records, lists of such learners are not widely available (Leaver & Atwell, 2002, p. 279).

There is no doubt there are other learners like Raya with a similar proficiency, but she is perhaps one of the few who is very eloquent about her experiences of second language acquisition and is happy to share her experience with other language learners and educators. Furthermore, Raya's story can be considered somewhat unique given everything she has gone through to get to this stage. Against all the odds, coming from war-torn Hebron and a lack of educational resources, Raya managed not only to be awarded a highly competitive scholarship to study in Jordan, but also to achieve native like proficiency in just seven years, when her second language journey began. As Raya describes it:

I made a promise [to myself] that I will achieve my dreams and do what I want in my life, and here I am, a freshmen at the University of Jordan, studying English language and literature. Isn't it amazing how people can achieve their dreams if they have the will and patience?! (email statement, 7/4/16)

The researchers utilized several methods (for validity and reliability purposes) as outlined by Merriam (1998) and as followed by Samimy (2008) in his case study of 'Mark’, a white American graduate student who achieved high proficiency in Arabic. The first was through accumulating various sources of data, as discussed in the next section. The second was in the form of a 'member check', by requesting Raya to give her responses to a draft version of the paper to ensure that our analysis and elucidation is precise and credible. Finally, the third method was that of a review by asking an expert in the field to assess whether our interpretations accurately reflect the collected data; the latter two of which were both met with positive feedback.

**Data Collection**

Data were collected over a period of two months between March and April 2016, from various sources. These included personal interviews, observations of Raya in her 'Oral Skills' lectures, follow-up questions and correspondence via email and telephone, Raya's responses to a learning styles checklist and identification of the styles and strategies she uses when learning English as well as interviews with Raya's English lecturers. Following the procedures outlined in Samimy's (2008) study, the questions raised with Raya were aimed at assessing how her personal characteristics as well as learning styles and strategies as a learner with high proficiency, correspond to those outlined in the study by Leaver and Atwell (2002). Questions included were...
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(taken from Samimy, 2008, p.406): 1) How do you assess your current proficiency in English?; 2) How did you score in formal educational exams, specifically in English?; 3) Have you studied English formally and if so when and where?; 4) How would you characterize the teaching methodology?; 5) Why did you decide to study English?; and, 6) Have you been to English speaking countries and if so when, where and for how long? In addition, the researchers discussed with Raya her relationships with English speaking communities. Questions included, 1) How do you think the social practices in your environment constrain or facilitate your access to English? and, 2) Have you experienced marginalization that has limited your opportunities to engage in communication with English speaking communities?

Data Analysis
After identifying Raya's characteristics as an English language learner, the constant comparative method by Glaser and Strauss (1967) was employed, comparing the data with that of Samimy's (2008) study, by identifying similarities and differences between the two sets of data, as well as attempting to account for the possible sources of differences.

Findings
Similar to Samimy's study (2008), analysis of the data reveals that Raya has at least three separate but closely related identities: Raya as a language learner; Raya as an avid film watcher and internet user (YouTube watcher and online gamer); and, Raya as a non-member of the target language community.

Raya as a Language Learner
Raya feels strongly that her school education did not have a positive effect on her language proficiency in English, expressing that her teachers did not help her; that they had "funny accents and only taught what was in the book - word for word" (interview, 9/3/16), with little or no opportunity to practice the 'living language' as it were. Similar sentiments were expressed in a study by Jasser et al. (2005) who found that most of the respondents who had high English writing proficiency felt they had not acquired the language through formal classroom instruction but rather, through communication with native speakers and living in a native speaking environment (p.49). In this sense, Raya’s linguistic journey is even more unique, given the fact that she had no access to the latter two. She also feels that teachers were not interested in benefiting students, although this did not affect her attitude towards the language itself. She reflects:

I never really had problems with my English grades in school. I used to study what was in my book carefully then I would do well in my exams. I used to always long for English exams; I thought they were fun! (email statement, 7/4/16)

In 2013, Raya took the TOEFL Junior Exam, scoring 805 from a total of 900. As a result, and because of her high marks in school, she was awarded a two year micro English scholarship from the American Council to go to AMIDEAST extra-curricular classes in English. This opportunity she felt improved not only her proficiency level in English, but also her personality. She states:

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I used to attend the Amideast lectures after school. It was an English communication class. I learned many things there; they taught us how to debate and write and present good speeches and stories. They also taught us how to be leaders by giving us some leadership classes. They gave us books which talked about many things, for example, some success stories of American people. (email statement, 7/4/16)

In 2014, after completing her scholarship, Raya took the test again, scoring 820 from 900, as well as receiving a certificate of achievement from the American Consulate of Jerusalem. At 16 years of age, Raya decided that her dream was to study English Language and Literature at The University of Jordan, and after scoring 97.9% in her Tawjihi (final 12th grade) exams, was awarded a scholarship. Raya's dream had come true; she was not only able to get out of the "box" (interview 23/3/16) she felt she was in (living in Palestine), but also to study English which she loves. Raya believes that her success comes from her own hard work. Her strong motivation is what has helped her to achieve, as well as the support provided by important figures in her life such as her mother. Raya feels she has further improved since coming to Jordan. She does all the same things she did while she was in Palestine, but now she also has the opportunity to use English with others face to face in her everyday life, as well as study it formally. Raya's English lecturers also recognize her dedication, one of whom states:

She is a good listener as she tries to understand what is said by paying attention to what I say (unlike many others who might be involved in side conversations with their neighbors). I never had to draw attention to her to stop talking [unlike] other students in class. (email statement 15/4/16)

Raya views her language learning experience humbly by saying "I'm still a freshman; I've still got so much to learn" (interview 23/3/16) and feels learning English is like "climbing a ladder" (interview 23/3/16) with always the next step to climb; the next goal to achieve. In observing Raya in her Oral Skills lectures, she showed confidence and fluency when conversing with peers and the lecturer. She also has an American accent which is very native-like and employs a number of different cognitive, metacognitive, compensatory and avoidance strategies in studying English. For example, she uses repetition (i.e. imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.) As Raya states "whenever I learn something new, I try to write it down and repeat it every day. I try to always remember what I have learnt, and if I forget I try to go back to my notes" (interview, 9/3/16). One of Raya's English lecturers confirms this by mentioning "she is a good note-taker as she jots down what is new to her, especially expressions outside the textbook material" (email statement 15/4/16). She further uses inferencing (i.e. using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.) As evidence, Raya comments "whenever I read a text or listen to someone speaking, if there's a word I don't know I try to [guess] what it means from the context [whether it be] spoken or written" (interview, 9/3/16). This is reinforced by one of her English lecturers who suggests:

She attempts to make associations between what she learns in class (such as vocabulary, language functions and forms, new expressions or grammatical rules, etc.) and what she knows already. That is, she makes use of newly learned material unlike most of her peers who really do not apply what they
learn in class much. In other words, one of her learning strategies seems to be reinforcing what she learns through immediate usage in class. (email statement 15/4/16)

Raya also mentioned 'directed attention' (i.e. the decision to attend to language tasks in general); 'self-management' (i.e. an awareness of the conditions that help one learn better and arranging for the presence of such conditions); 'self-monitoring' (i.e. correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary); 'self evaluation' (i.e. checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy); and, 'translation'; (i.e. using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language). For the latter cognitive strategy, Raya uses 'Google Translation' to save and translate words, phrases and idioms from English into Arabic to refer back to at a later date. As one of her English lecturers points out, "whenever I introduce new vocabulary items or some useful expressions which are new to her, she tries to make sure or check her understanding by asking me to repeat what I have said" (email statement 15/4/16). She also employs 'appeal for help' which can include asking for aid from the interlocutor either directly or indirectly, and 'stalling' or 'time gaining' strategies (i.e. fillers or gestures for example) and 'topic abandonment' (i.e. leaving or changing the topic at hand due to difficulty to express oneself). Raya states, "I don't like silence in conversations. I try to always use gap fillers when I speak, or I might just go on to different subjects" (interview, 9/3/16). In addition, Raya identified 'prefabricated patterns' which refer to using memorized stock phrases, affirming "I try to memorize specific sentences to use them when needed" (interview, 9/3/16).

Her responses to the learning styles checklist reveal that Raya is self-confident and has low inhibitions about learning English, as well as intrinsic motivation (i.e. she wants to learn English because of what she can personally gain from it). She also likes to learn from her mistakes as well as finding ways to continue learning language outside the classroom. Interestingly, Raya does not like to take risks, stating "I only use the language I know because I like to give a good impression to the people I talk to" ('member check', 14/4/16), attempting to only using language that she is certain is correct. Raya also stated that she does not like to work in groups, but rather alone. This is because she feels other language learners her age are normally of a lower proficiency than her. In a sense, she doesn't trust them to get the 'job done', although she feels this is not a good personality trait since she puts a lot of pressure on herself to do everything alone. However, this trait of Raya's personality exemplifies that she has high self-esteem and self-efficacy, i.e. belief in her own capabilities to successfully perform a particular activity (Kroll, J. & De Groot, 2005, p.154).

Raya as an Avid Film Watcher, YouTube Watcher and Online Gamer
In addition to shedding light on Raya’s experiences and identity as a language learner, it is also essential to portray Raya’s online identity since the two roles seem to have an effect on each other. Raya's experience as a language learner began when she was between 10 and 11 years old. Born and raised in Hebron, Raya remembers how her mother loved English and always had the American film channels on. Moreover, her mother instilled the concept of the importance of learning English, and bettering oneself in Raya. With the constant influx of English films in the house, English gradually became a part of Raya's daily life and as a teenager she became consciously interested in the language, using the internet and setting up a Facebook account with a desire to know more about English and talk to native speakers. Since Raya had made a
conscious decision to become more proficient in English, she thought about the best way to go about it, coming to the conclusion that writing emails in English would be helpful and so began to use 'Pen Friends Club', an online site for people to send emails to each other from all over the world. Raya initially contacted native speakers, but nobody replied. She then tried contacting individuals of other nationalities which proved more fruitful, leading to a friendship with an Egyptian girl which has until now, lasted four years. They not only write emails in English but also communicate through voice messages and Facebook. As Raya states:

I decided I should actually use the language, so I used the online chatting websites, and I sent some emails to people from different countries; some of them replied and some didn't. I ended up chatting with people who weren't native speakers, but at least I was able to talk and express myself. (email statement, 7/4/16)

However, feeling that this had been a failure, Raya stopped using the Pen Friends Club and began to look for something else to improve her English proficiency. Her real goal was to communicate with native speakers and as a result she looked to online gaming. She had been online gaming for two years anyway, but now actively decided to use it as a means to contact native speakers. However, when Raya tried to contact her fellow players beyond the realm of the game itself she felt that there weren't any native speakers who wanted to befriend her.

In Hebron the internet was the only outlet for Raya, at times feeling her life was actually the virtual life she lived online. Feeling hopeless after not achieving her goals through pen friends or online gaming, Raya decided that if she couldn't communicate with native speakers, she could at least listen to them, as she had once done with her mother when watching American films and hence at this point, she turned her attention to YouTube. On YouTube, Raya began to listen to vlogs (video blogs) by two New Yorkers which she felt were helpful for improving her English proficiency since they were easy to understand and at the same time, were by native speakers. Here, Raya's strategy was to imitate the vloggers both in accent and speech, even if it meant talking to herself. Until today, as a strategy after listening to YouTube vlogs, Raya not only imitates the speakers she hears, but also consciously thinks back to mistakes she has made and corrects herself, making a mental note not to make the same error again. Much like the average native speaker, Raya finds it difficult to describe the language, but she knows how to use it, i.e. has a feel for it. In fact, Raya mentions that she finds it embarrassing when lecturers ask her grammatical questions since she finds it difficult to use the correct terminology even though she knows the answer.

**Raya as a Non Member of the Target Language Community**

In assessing what the dominating factors in either facilitating or hindering an advanced learner’s access to the target language are, as Samimy (2008) suggests, it is perhaps the social practices of a given community which provide us with the answers. Just as Mark in Samimy’s (2008) study mentions “creating an Arabic bubble in which he immerses himself all day long” (p.409) which has become almost an obsession, Raya too immerses herself in English as much as she can. This might be at university in her lectures conversing with her lecturers and peers, online watching YouTube, connecting with others on Facebook or via email, watching American films, and talking with her siblings or even if no one else is around, to herself.
Yet, actually communicating with native speakers of English has proved somewhat problematic for Raya. In fact, the day one of the researchers met Raya, was the first time she had ever had a face to face conversation with a native speaker. It is not that Raya hasn’t tried to communicate with native speakers of English, but more a case of being shunned by those she had attempted to contact. Since she was limited to contact with native speakers online, she somewhat ‘hit a brick wall’ so to speak and hence, settled for the next best thing; listening to and imitating native speakers and talking to other non-native speakers in English. But this obstacle hasn’t deterred Raya. In having achieved her goal of studying at The University of Jordan, Raya is now looking to the future. She dreams of going to a native English speaking country and surrounding herself with native speakers, with the hope of improving her English further.

Discussion
Some of the findings in the present study confirm those from earlier studies on good and advanced language learners especially those of Samimy (2008), as well as others such as Naiman et al. (1978), Norton and Toohey (2001) and Leaver and Atwell (2002). Using the data collected from Samimy’s (2008) case study, Table 1 represents the general characteristics of Raya and Mark, illustrating the similarities and differences between the two individuals. Only two of the eight general characteristics are shared by Raya and Mark. Neither have any personal ties with the TL country and both know French, although Mark has reading knowledge of French whereas Raya describes herself as just a ‘beginner’. In contrast, Mark was 39 at the time of Samimy's study while Raya was only 18 at the time of the present study. Furthermore, Mark lived in the TL countries, conversing and interacting with native speakers for a significant amount of time, “acquiring the target language and culture in context” (Samimy, 2008, p. 411). On the other hand, the first time Raya left Palestine was when she came to study in Jordan, and she has never been to a native English speaking country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant's Characteristics</th>
<th>Raya</th>
<th>Mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>18 years old</td>
<td>39 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning method</td>
<td>Both non communicative and communicative methods</td>
<td>Proficiency method (a communicative method)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lived in the TL countries</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal ties to the TL countries</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual/multilingual background</td>
<td>Yes, mother knows some English and siblings have a high proficiency in English</td>
<td>No, monolingual family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current position related to the TL</td>
<td>Undergraduate English Language and Literature student</td>
<td>Graduate teaching associate in Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other L2s studied</td>
<td>A little French</td>
<td>Reading knowledge of French</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: TL (target language), L2 (second language) / table taken from Samimy, 2008, p.411
At the time of Samimy’s study, Mark was a graduate teaching associate in Arabic, whereas Raya is an undergraduate student in English Language and Literature. Interestingly, Mark learnt Arabic through the ‘Proficiency Method’ (a communicative method) which he describes as an “intensive learning environment” (Samimy, 2008, p.407). Raya in contrast, describes her learning experience at school as straight from the book, with no interaction or communicative element involved, although her classes at AMIDEAST proved to be more unrestrained. Furthermore, while Mark comes from a completely monolingual family, Raya’s mother does know some English and is very keen on her children acquiring and communicating with each other in it (similar to two thirds of the participants in Leaver & Atwell’s 2002 study). Raya’s siblings also have high proficiency in English, one of whom is currently attending AMIDEAST classes after also being granted a scholarship. As Raya puts it, “they are following my footsteps and I think they are going to be even better than me” (interview, 23/3/16).

**Conclusion**

Existing literature signifies that there is sparse documentation regarding the linguistic journeys of second language learners who acquire superior proficiency and what makes them unique from those who do not. What is it about such individuals which makes them special? Here, we must account for both motivation and the learning strategies used and how they are combined to produce a successful formula for language acquisition, whether that learner be exposed to the target language community or not. In addition to examining previous studies on highly proficient language learners, the present study explored the seven year linguistic and personal trajectory of a Palestinian Arab undergraduate student, Raya, at The University of Jordan, who has achieved native like fluency in English. The study revealed that motivation can be a powerful tool in linguistic enhancement, in spite of a lack of social networks within the given target language community. In Raya’s case, a mixture of both instrumental and integrative motivation ensured her success as well as a combination of different learning strategies, good work ethic and a supportive family. When contact with the target language community is missing, as Samimy (2008) suggests “it therefore necessitates a language learner to create an environment which enhances current proficiency in a given situation” (p.43) as is evident in Raya’s case.

More recently, there has been an expansion in the research of advanced language learner needs and innovative approaches to helping them continue to grow in their second language acquisition. However, the extent to which such approaches are effective still remains to be seen. The uniqueness of Raya’s language experience is that against all odds she still managed to achieve native like proficiency without the help of allies or mentors, in contrast to previous studies such as Samimy (2008) and Norton and Hooney (2002). Lastly, as both Samimy (2008) and Leaver and Atwell (2002) suggest, there is still much to be learnt from the linguistic journeys of second language learners like Raya. Educators can use such cases to facilitate the language acquisition of other individuals, by closely examining how native-like proficiency is achieved. Stories like Raya’s are inspiring to all of us in general and other language learners in the same position in particular, because they reveal to us, that whatever the situation one faces, 'where there's a will there's a way', and Raya has certainly found it. In her own words:

My advice to all learners out there is to never give up your dreams and never back down. You might need time and patience, but you should always keep in
mind that every cloud has a silver lining, so work hard [...] to reach the top and leave your fingerprint on this big beautiful world!(email statement, 7/4/16)

Notes
1. Raya did not wish to remain anonymous.
2. AMIDEAST (American Mid-east Educational and Training Services INC) is "a leading American non-profit organization engaged in international education, training and development activities in the Middle East and North Africa" (Amideast, 2016 http://www.amideast.org/west-bank-gaza)

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References
The Effects of Motivation and Other Factors


Effects of Task Repetition and EFL Proficiency on English Speech Act Production

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Abstract
Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) studies substantiate the teachability of some aspects of second language (L2) pragmatics. However, there are controversies over the most effective instructional methods. Therefore, following a comparison group design, the present study aims to investigate the relative efficacy of two conditions of output-production task repetition on high- and low-level English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ production of speech acts. The main effects of the instructional conditions, EFL proficiency level, and the potential interaction between them are examined. Two classes of English-major students take speech act lessons involving output-generation task repetition as follows: (1) the implicit task-repetition (ITR) group is provided with visually enhanced input plus a consciousness raising task before repeating the output-generation tasks, and (2) the explicit task-repetition (ETR) group is provided with input plus metapragmatic information before repeating the output-generation tasks. The learners’ speech act production is assessed through a written discourse completion test (WDCT) across a pretest and a posttest. The results demonstrate significant gains for both groups from the pretest to the posttest. Moreover, the ETR group significantly outperforms the ITR group in the posttest. Furthermore, EFL proficiency level is found to have a significant effect on learners’ speech act production, with high-level learners outperforming low-level learners. The results reveal no significant interaction between the effects of instructional condition and EFL proficiency level. Regarding pedagogical implications, the findings attest the efficacy of output-generation task repetition in L2 speech acts instruction, particularly when task repetition is coupled with explicit instruction.

Keywords: EFL proficiency, enhanced input, metapragmatic information, speech acts, task repetition

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Introduction
There is evidence that learners considerably differ from native-speakers in their pragmatic performance (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). ILP research shows that many aspects of pragmatic competence cannot develop sufficiently without some form of instructional intervention (Kasper, 1997). Hence research on ILP, particularly speech acts, has noticeably increased in the last two decades. Early ILP studies attest the teachability of various pragmatic features, including speech acts (e.g., Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Safont, 2003; Wildner-Bassett, 1994). However, later studies explore the effects of different instructional approaches on L2 pragmatic development, particularly comparing explicit and implicit instruction (e.g., Alcòn-Soler, 2005; Eslami & Liu, 2013; F´elix-Brasdefer, 2008; Ghobadi & Fahim, 2009; Takimoto, 2006).

Explicit instruction usually involves direct metapragmatic explanation followed by focused practice. Whereas, implicit instruction withholds metapragmatic explanation and tries to develop learners’ implicit understanding of the target features by using input flood, input enhancement, consciousness-raising tasks, and implicit feedback (Taguchi, 2015). Review of the related literature reveals that some pragmatic features are learnable through implicit instruction (e.g., Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Narita, 2012; Takimoto, 2006). However, ILP research generally supports the superiority of explicit approaches over implicit approaches to pragmatics instruction (e.g., Alcòn-Soler, 2005; F´elix-Brasdefer, 2008; Ghobadi & Fahim, 2009).

Besides the studies examining implicit vs. explicit methods of L2 pragmatics instruction, there are numerous studies investigating L2 pragmatics instruction from other perspectives. For instance, Jernigan (2007) investigates the effects of output-based instructional treatment on adult ESL learners’ L2 pragmatic perception and production using video vignettes. Jernigan’s study reveals that the group engaging in output production makes a significant gain from the pretest to the posttest in a pragmatic appropriecy judgment test. However, no significant progress is found for the group deprived from output production. The results of a WDCT reveal no significant gains for either of the groups. Finally, an oral DCT shows a significant improvement for the group deprived from output production, but not for the group involved in output generation.

In another study, Li (2012) examines the impact of practice on developing accurate and speedy requests in L2 Chinese. He assigns thirty intermediate-level learners to an intensive training group (IT), a regular training group (RT), and a control group. The IT and the RT groups practice the request forms through computerized structured input activities. The IT group practice using the request forms twice as much as the RT group. However, the control group does not receive any practice of the targeted request forms. Li finds that input-based practice enhances accuracy in an oral DCT and speed in a pragmatic listening judgment task.

Drawing on the concept of TBLT, Kim and Taguchi (2015) study the effect of task complexity in the learning of request expressions. They operationalize Task complexity as +/− reasoning. They divide seventy three Korean junior high school students into three groups: simple, complex, and control. The treatment groups perform a pretest, two collaborative tasks, and two posttests, whereas the control group takes only the pretest and the posttests. The researchers audiorecord the learners’ oral interactions during tasks and analyze them by the number of pragmatic-related episodes (PREs). They find that task complexity levels influence the occurrence of PREs, but there is no difference in the quality of task outcome between the
treatment groups. However, the treatment groups perform significantly better than the control group.

Despite the existence of a great number of interventional studies on L2 pragmatics, the potential effect of task repetition on ILP development is an under-researched area. Takimoto (2012) investigates the effects of identical task repetition and task type repetition on EFL learners’ acquisition of request forms. Takimoto applies input processing tasks as treatment. One control group and two treatment groups are employed. The results indicate that the two treatment groups perform better than the control group, and the identical task repetition group demonstrates more improvement in a WDCT and an acceptability judgment test than the task type repetition group.

The Present Study

As Taguchi (2015) contends, there is a wealth of studies in the area of TBLT in L2 instruction, and these can serve as guidelines in designing studies in L2 pragmatics research. Moreover, as Taguchi (2011) maintains “very few studies have aimed at comparing learning success of learners with different proficiency levels” (p. 295). Taking these issues into consideration, the present study is designed to investigate the effects of task repetition on EFL learners’ speech act production across EFL proficiency levels. The study follows a comparison group design, which includes no control group and aims to compare two or more groups with different treatments (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Two instructional conditions are created: output-generation task repetition accompanied by visually enhanced input plus a CR task (ITR condition), and output-generation task repetition accompanied by input plus metapragmatic information (ETR condition).

Based on the purpose of the study, the following research questions (RQs) are formulated:

RQ1: Is there a statistically significant difference between the effects of ITR and ETR conditions on EFL learners’ speech act production ability?
RQ2. Is there a statistically significant difference between low-level and high-level EFL learners in speech act production ability?
RQ3: Is there any statistically significant interaction between the effects of EFL proficiency level and task repetition conditions on EFL learners’ speech act production ability?

Method

Participants

Nineteen native speakers of British English (13 males and six females) and 64 EFL learners (23 males and 41 females) participate in the present study. The native speakers are undergraduate and postgraduate students or university graduates, and their average age is 37.78. The EFL learners are English-major students from three universities in Iran. They have no experience of life in another country, and their average age is 21.2 years old. Their average English proficiency level is judged to be at lower intermediate level, as identified by their OPT mean score (mean = 123.6).
Initially, ten native speakers of British English (seven males and three females), and ten EFL learners (four males and six females) are recruited to take part in the study for situation likelihood investigation and metapragmatic assessment of the initial 36 scenarios, from which 21 are selected to construct the WDCT. Next, nine other native speakers of British English (six males and three females) are asked to complete the WDCT to examine its content validity. Finally, 54 English-major students participate in the experimental phase of the study. These participants are from two intact classes. The two classes are randomly assigned to the ITR group (n = 28) and the ETR group (n = 26).

**Instruments**

Two instruments are employed in this study: the Oxford Placement Test (Allen, 2004) and a WDCT.

*Oxford Placement Test (OPT)*. The OPT comprises a listening section and a grammar section, each consisting of 100 items. According to Allen (2004), the OPT has been calibrated against the levels system of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages; international examinations such as IELTS, TOEIC, and TOEFL; and the Cambridge ESOL Examinations.

*Written discourse completion test (WDCT)*. In order to construct the WDCT, the researchers prepare a pool of 36 scenarios. Some are adapted from the literature (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009; Bataineh & Bataineh, 2006; Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Cheng, 2005; Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986), and some are constructed by the researchers themselves. The prepared scenarios are subjected to situation likelihood investigation and metapragmatic assessment. As the scenarios are judged by the learners’ instructors to be too difficult for some of the learners to comprehend, they are translated into the learners’ native language (i.e., Persian). Following Liu (2007), the researchers check the equivalence of the L1 and L2 versions by means of back translation – that is, the situations are translated into Persian first, and then back to English by another translator. A comparison of the original and the back-translated version reveal consistency in the description of the scenarios.

Based on the results of situation likelihood investigation and metapragmatic assessment, the researchers construct a 21-item WDCT, containing 7 scenarios on each of the three speech acts of thanking, apologizing, and refusing. The scenarios represent various combinations of the three social variables of “power,” “distance,” and “imposition / severity,” as introduced by Brown and Levinson (1987). Then the WDCT is reviewed and revised by a native speaker of British English. To ensure the content validity of this test, the researchers pilot it with another group of native speakers of British English (n = 9). The results of this pilot study indicate that the scenarios in the WDCT elicit the intended speech acts.

This WDCT takes about 40 minutes to complete. The participants’ responses are rated based on a 6-point rating scale developed by Taguchi (2006). Based on this rating scale, each response receives a score from 0 (no performance) to 5 (excellent). This scale evaluates the learners’ responses on the basis of contextual appropriateness and grammatical accuracy.
Regarding the inter-rater reliability of scoring, 30 of the papers are rated by one of the researchers and a native speaker teacher of British English. There is a very high correlation coefficient of .92 between the two sets of scores. Concerning the internal consistency reliability of the WDCT, the analysis of the participants’ pretest scores reveals a Cronbach’s Alpha value of .89, suggesting very good internal consistency reliability.

**Instructional Process**

*Materials.* In this study the participants in both groups are involved in collaborative text creation activities (Ellis, 1997) of writing English conversations and English letters. Eight conversations and two letters for each of the three speech acts are prepared. Some of the conversations and letters are adapted from English language teaching textbooks (Craven, Thaine, & Logan, 2008; Dignen, Flinder, & Sweeney, 2004; Oxenden & Latham-Koenig, 2006; Swan & Walter, 1993) and internet sources (Savetz Publishing, 2010a; Savetz Publishing, 2010b), and some of them are constructed by the researchers themselves.

Each conversation or letter comprises 4 – 7 turns or sentences and includes instances of one of the three speech acts. The conversations and letters are prepared in two formats. The ETR group receives the plain format, and the ITR group receives the visually enhanced format. The visually enhanced format aims at drawing the learners’ attention to the pragmatic strategies associated with the given speech acts. In the visually enhanced format, the clauses containing the pragmatic strategies are bolded and underlined. For example:

David: Did you buy that apartment?
Michael: Not yet. I’m in shortage of 5000 dollars.
David: Don’t worry. I can lend you the money.
Michael: Oh no, I didn’t mean to borrow the money from you.
David: Let me write the check for you. Here you are.
Michael: **Oh, you’re a life saver. Thanks. I’ll never forget it. You really can’t imagine what this means to me.**
David: It’s my pleasure.

Then a scenario is developed based on each conversation or letter. For instance, the scenario description written based on the above conversation is as follows:

**Scenario:** David asks his friend Michael if he bought the apartment he wanted to. Michael says that he is in shortage of $ 5000. David offers to lend him the money, but Michael does not accept it first. David writes the check for him, and Michael thanks him.

The scenarios are translated into Persian, as the English descriptions of some of the scenarios are judged to be difficult for some of the learners to comprehend. In addition to the conversations, letters, and scenarios, the participants in the ETR group are provided with metapragmatic information about the pragmatic strategies associated with the speech acts of thanking, apologizing and refusing. The instructional materials are used only in the class and are collected from the learners to prevent possible treatment diffusion.
Treatment. Before the main tasks in each treatment session, the participants engage in a five-minute warm-up activity, which is a whole-class discussion about the learners’ daily-life experiences of the speech act which is to be presented in that session. Then the materials are used in both groups. The instructions, grammar explanations, and meanings of the new words are presented in Persian to ensure the participants’ understanding. The main treatment tasks are presented as follows:

Step A (approximately 5 minutes): In both groups, a scenario is presented to the learners. The learners are paired up and instructed to write collaboratively a conversation (four to seven turns) or a letter (four to seven sentences) in English based on the scenario. The learners are provided with an answer sheet and are instructed to write the conversations or letters (henceforth text) on it. The teacher monitors the learners to ensure that they understand the scenarios correctly and provides any help they require about lexico-grammatical aspects, but not pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues.

Step B (approximately 5 minutes): After the learners construct their text, the learners in the ETR group receive the plaintext format of the original text, and the learners in the ITR group receive the visually enhanced format. Then the original texts are read aloud and explained by the teacher. In the ETR group, first the lexico-grammatical issues are explained. Then, drawing on the contextual clues, the teacher explains the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of the given speech acts, with a focus on how the social variables of power, distance, and severity determine the choice of speech act strategies and expressions. However, in the ITR group, the teacher presents explanations only about the lexico-grammatical aspects of the text, without any metapragmatic explanation. Instead, the participants are required to read the visually enhanced text and discuss, in pairs, how the given speech act is materialized in the given text (CR). The purpose is to raise the learners’ awareness of speech act realization patterns.

Step C (approximately 3 minutes): Then the learners in the ETR group and ITR group are required to compare their own text with the plaintext format and the visually enhanced format of the text respectively and discover any differences between the two texts. The learners are not allowed to take notes or copy the original text.

Step D (approximately 4 minutes): In both groups, the teacher collects the original texts (i.e., the plaintext format and the visually enhanced format) as well as the texts generated by the participants. Then the learners are required to produce another text about the same scenario, with making any changes they prefer. The learners write down the text on another answer sheet. While the learners in both groups are generating the text for the second time, the teacher monitors them and provides assistance and feedback only about lexico-grammatical issues, but not about pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects.
Two intact classes of English-major students take part in the experimental phase of this study. Before the outset of treatment, the OPT is administered to the participants to check the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of EFL proficiency level. The result of an independent samples t-test reveals no statistically significant difference between the OPT mean scores of the two groups, t (52) = .728, p = .470. The first group (n = 28) is randomly assigned to the ITR condition, the second group (n = 26) is assigned to the ETR condition. Then the WDCT is administered to the participants as the pretest.

Then the groups receive instruction on the three speech acts. The instruction involves six sessions lasting about 90 minutes each. Two sessions are devoted to the instruction of each of the three speech acts of thanking (sessions one and two), apologizing (sessions three and four), and refusing (sessions five and six). As the type of the speech act (thanking, apologizing, and refusing) is not treated as an independent variable in the study, the order in which the three speech acts are presented does not matter. The instruction in both classes is carried out by the first researcher. After the instruction is completed, the WDCT is administered to the participants two days after the last instructional session as the posttest. Then the collected data are analyzed.

Results

Mixed between-within subjects ANOVA is required to examine the effects of group and EFL proficiency level (as two between-groups variables) and time (as a within-groups variable) on the learners’ speech act production and the possible interaction between them.

Regarding the assumptions underlying mixed ANOVA, an insignificant Box’s M statistic shows equality of intercorrelations [Box’s M = 10.45, p = 0.376]; and Levene's test indicates that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met in the pretest (F = 1.38, p =.260) and the posttest (F = 1.45, p =.240). Concerning the assumption of normal distribution of scores, the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test suggest that this assumption is met in the ITR group’s pretest (p = .200) and posttest (p =.200); and in the ETR group’s pretest (p = .200) and posttest (p = .072).

Subsequent to examining the assumptions, mixed ANOVA is performed. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics. As demonstrated in Table 1, the mean scores of the ITR group and ETR group in the posttest are higher than their mean scores in the pretest. Moreover, the mean score of the ETR group is higher than the mean score of the ITR group in the posttest.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>EFL PL</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITR</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>61.00</td>
<td>7.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>71.79</td>
<td>13.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66.39</td>
<td>11.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETR</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>55.14</td>
<td>11.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>71.50</td>
<td>9.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62.69</td>
<td>13.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note. ITR = implicit task-repetition group; ETR = explicit task-repetition group; EFL PL = EFL proficiency level

Table 2
Mixed between-within Subjects ANOVA Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>$\eta^2_p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL PL</td>
<td>4136.24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4136.24</td>
<td>25.271</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>150.86</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>150.86</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>.342</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL PL × Group</td>
<td>35.84</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>35.84</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>3994.57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3994.57</td>
<td>84.625</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time × EFL PL</td>
<td>36.59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36.59</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td>.383</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time × Group</td>
<td>795.61</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>795.61</td>
<td>16.855</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time × EFL PL × Group</td>
<td>71.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>71.50</td>
<td>1.515</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. EFL PL = EFL proficiency level

As demonstrated in Table 2, the mixed ANOVA results reveal a significant effect for EFL proficiency level, time and Time × Group interaction. The Time × Group interaction is also demonstrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Mean Plot Demonstrating Time × Group Interaction

The effects of time and group are interpreted in the light of the significant Time × Group interaction. To this end, paired sample t-test is conducted to examine the significance of the
differences between the pretest and posttest means for each group. The t-tests results reveal that the ETR group makes a statistically significant gain from the pretest to the posttest, \( t(25) = -7.834, p < .001 \), and eta squared statistic (.59) indicates a large effect size, based on the guidelines proposed by Cohen (cited in Pallant, 2013, p. 256). Similarly, in the ITR group, the increase in the mean score from the pretest to the posttest is statistically significant \( t(27) = -4.706, p < .001 \), with a large effect size (.32).

As to the differences between the two groups, an independent samples t-test is run to compare the WDCT mean scores of the two groups in the pretest. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the ETR group (M = 62.69, SD = 13.47) and ITR group (M = 66.39, SD = 11.80) in terms of speech act production at the outset of the study, \( t(52) = 1.08, p = .287 \) (two-tailed), but eta squared (.144) suggests a large effect size. To determine whether the two groups of learners have differences in their ability to produce the speech acts after the treatment, the data collected through the posttest are analyzed through another independent samples t-test. The results reveal that the ETR group (M = 80.54, SD = 8.36) performs significantly better than the ITR group (M = 73.14, SD = 11.47); \( t(52) = -2.43, p = .019 \) (two-tailed), and eta squared (.314) indicates a large effect size. The fact that the two groups are equal in the pretest but perform differently in the posttest can account for Time × Group interaction.

As noted above, the first research question is whether there is a significant difference between the effects of ITR and ETR conditions on learners’ pragmatic production ability. The answer to this research question is positive. The ETR group has a significantly better performance than the ITR group in the posttest although there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the pretest.

The second research question is if there is a significant difference between low-level and high-level learners in terms of speech act production ability. The results of the mixed ANOVA (see Table 2) reveal a significant main effect for EFL proficiency level, \( F = 25.27, p < .001 \). Therefore, it is concluded that there is a significant difference between low-level and high-level learners in terms of speech act production ability. As it is shown in Table 1, the mean score of the high-proficiency group is higher than the mean score of the low-proficiency group in both instructional conditions and in both test times.

The third research question is whether there is any interaction between the effects of EFL proficiency level and task repetition conditions (i.e., group) on EFL learners’ speech act production ability. As it is presented in Table 2, there is no statistically significant interaction between the effects of EFL proficiency and group and/or time. In fact the EFL learners’ performance in the instructional conditions is not moderated by their EFL proficiency level.

**Discussion**

This study explores the main effects on L2 speech act production of two instructional conditions, EFL proficiency level, and the potential interaction between them. Regarding the instructional conditions, the effects of output-generation task repetition accompanied by visually enhanced input plus CR and output-generation task repetition accompanied by input plus metapragmatic information on EFL learners’ speech act production ability are examined. The results demonstrate that the performance of both groups significantly improves from the pretest to the posttests. Furthermore, the ETR condition is found to be significantly more effective than the ITR condition in enhancing the learners’ speech act production ability.
The findings demonstrate the usefulness of output-generation task repetition in L2 pragmatics instruction. The results of this study are in line with the results of previous studies on output-based task repetition (e.g., Ahmadian, 2011; Bygate & Samuda, 2005), which find that task repetition can enhance L2 learners’ production and acquisition. Takimoto (2012) also finds that identical task repetition and task type repetition are both effective in improving L2 learners’ pragmatic competence. Similar to Takimoto (2012), the present study supports the effectiveness of task repetition in L2 pragmatics instruction.

The learners in the present study engage in output-generation tasks. In order for effective learning to take place, learners need to use the newly received language in their own production. As Bygate and Samuda (2005) rightly argue “a common learning and teaching problem is to get learners to integrate knowledge that is available to them into their active language use” (p. 270). The task repetition technique used in this study makes it possible for the learners to apply in their second performance their previously known pragmatic knowledge as well as the new pragmatic knowledge that they acquire through visually enhanced input, or input plus metapragmatic information presented to them after their first performance. Perhaps, the integration of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge into the second performance of the task significantly contributes to the learners’ pragmatic development.

Furthermore, the effectiveness of text creation tasks used in this study can be explained in terms of output hypothesis and the three functions of output (Swain, 1995). (1) The output may cause the learners to notice the gaps in their own pragmatic knowledge. (2) Their first output may enable them to produce pragmatic hypotheses and test them against the input they receive before the second performance of the task. (3) The third function that Swain refers to is the use of metalanguage. In the present study the learners in the ITR group are asked to discuss the underlined and bolded expressions and clauses in the visually enhanced text presented to them. In addition, the learners in the ETR group receive input plus metapragmatic information and engage in metapragmatic discussion in the second performance of the task.

The next point to discuss is the role of explicit versus implicit input in L2 pragmatics instruction. In the ITR group, the participants receive visually enhanced input plus a CR task, whereas the participants in the ETR group receive input plus metapragmatic information. In other words, the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic information presented to the former group is less explicit than that provided for the latter group. However, there is a significant gain in speech act production by both groups from the pretest to the posttest, with the ETR group outperforming the ITR group in the posttest.

Rose and Ng (2001) argue that inductive instruction and guided discovery may result in more confusion than comprehension. However, in the present study guided discovery based on visually enhanced input and consciousness raising does not lead to the learners’ confusion. As noted earlier, the learners in ITR group made a gain in their pragmatic production from the pretest to the posttest. This improvement may be attributed to the combined effects of the output and input the learners dealt with through the instructional procedure employed in this study. In other words, the participants in the ITR group are exposed to input containing the targeted speech acts after their first output-production activity. The first output-production task might
have enabled them to notice the deficiencies in their speech act production ability. It is likely that this sets the ground for them to notice the relevant pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features in the subsequent input (Swain, 1995). Moreover, based on the role of practice in cognitive skill acquisition (Ericsson & Charness, 1994), the conclusion may follow that the second performance of the task creates an opportunity for the learners to reinforce their mastery over the newly acquired sociopragmatic and pramalinguistic features.

The superiority of the ETR group over the ITR group in the posttest is in line with previous studies (e.g., Alc´on-Soler, 2005; F´elix-Brasdefer, 2008; Ghobadi & Fahim, 2009; Nguyen, Pham, & Pham, 2012). As mentioned earlier, explicitness and implicitness are operationalized differently in different studies. However, the distinguishing feature is the provision of metapragmatic information in explicit instruction and the lack of it in implicit teaching (Taguchi, 2015). The present study attests the advantage of explicit pragmatics instruction over implicit instruction when these instructional approaches are coupled with output-based task repetition as operationalized in this study.

Concerning the effect of EFL proficiency on the learners’ speech act production, the results indicate that the high proficiency group outperforms the low proficiency group. Furthermore, regarding the interaction effects, there is no interaction between the effects of EFL proficiency level and the other two independent variables (i.e., time and group). This implies that high-level learners outperform low-level learners in both instructional groups and both test times.

These results suggest that before the treatment (i.e., in the pretest), the high-level learners have a significantly better performance than the low-level learners in pragmatic production. This is compatible with some previous studies (e.g., Garcia, 2004; Roever, 2005; Yamashita, 1996) which show that high L2 proficiency participants outperform low proficiency participants in tests of pragmatics. However, the results of the present study differ from the findings of some other studies (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Liu, 2006; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987), which conclude that learners’ pragmatic competence does not necessarily progress as their EFL proficiency improves. In contrast to the present study, Liu (2006), for example, finds that low-level and high-level EFL learners are not significantly different in their performance in a discourse completion test and a discourse self-assessment test.

Furthermore, the lack of EFL proficiency × Group interaction indicates that the learners’ EFL proficiency level does not moderate the effects of instructional methods on the learners’ speech act production ability. This suggests that the learners from both high and low levels of EFL proficiency can significantly benefit from explicit and implicit EFL speech acts instruction in the same way.

**Conclusion and Implications**

This study is an attempt to examine the effects of output-generation task repetition on EFL learners’ speech act production ability. The results attest the teachability of thanking, apologizing, and refusing speech acts to high- and low-level EFL learners. Moreover, the study demonstrates the utility of output-generation task repetition accompanied by input plus metapragmatic information (ETR condition) and output-generation task repetition accompanied
by visually enhanced input plus CR tasks (ITR condition) in teaching English speech acts to learners with high and low levels of EFL proficiency. However, the findings reveal the primacy of explicit instruction over implicit instruction when input is coupled with output-generation task repetition activities.

One pedagogical implication is that output-generation task repetition should be preferably accompanied by metapragmatic information so that speech act instruction can become more effective. Furthermore, speech act instruction can even be incorporated into EFL classes for low-level learners. In other words, it does not need to be postponed to higher levels of EFL proficiency. However, the researchers do not mean to claim that there is no threshold level of EFL proficiency below which EFL speech acts cannot be taught effectively or above which EFL speech acts instruction can be more effective. Undoubtedly, this is a point that requires further research. As Takahashi (cited in Taguchi, 2011) argues, although the nature of intervention plays a vital role, such factors as L2 proficiency, instructional targets, and assessment methods moderate the learning outcomes. Therefore, the efficacy of output-based task repetition in EFL speech acts instruction can be investigated more to see if it is moderated by such factors as learners’ age, instructional targets, methods of measurement, etc.

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Effects of Task Repetition and EFL Proficiency

Ahmadi & Ghaemi


Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching, 48*, 1-50.


Abstract
Discourse analysis is one of the linguistics which investigate language use naturally. The classroom interaction is one of the field of the study of the language use naturally. How is the English teachers and their students developed discourse pattern in the classroom interaction? The purpose of this study is to describe the using of discourse pattern implemented in the classroom by English teachers and their students. The results of this study gives significant contribution to the English teaching learning process, particularly for the teachers in order that they can cultivate and organize the classroom dynamically, further teachers and students are able to create challenging classroom interaction. To analyze the data, the researcher used the qualitative descriptive research. The researcher used the qualitative descriptive analysis which is developed by Miles & Huberman, (1994). Based on the data analysis, it is fund that discourse pattern which is created by Sinclair-Coulthard analysis model (1975) cited in (Charthy, 1993) is used by English teachers and their students differently. It meant that the English teachers and their students implemented the discourse pattern in the classroom based on the setting of nine different senior high schools in the different environments. Discourse pattern used in the excellent senior high schools are different from the classical senior high schools in the southern part of central Java, Indonesia.

Key Words: classroom, discourse analysis, discourse pattern, interaction, spoken discourse

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Introduction
The main aim of learning language is to use it for communication purposes in its actual class setting in which classroom interaction is a key to achieve this. Basically, oral interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas between two or more people, leading to a mutual effect on each other, (Lucha, 2015). Further, Luchasays that all over the world, classroom interaction is usually dominated by question and answer, with teachers asking most of the questions. It is because questions provide the practice and feedback essential for the development. Question is a tool used in the direct interaction between the teacher and learners.

According to Razzaghi (2012) the smoothness of teachers’ daily work is greatly dependent on how successful their communication with pupils. A successful interaction relationship brings about a nice atmosphere which makes pleasant working possible. Talking about a language, it cannot be distinguished from other reality because language is not just a means of describing the reality but also a part of the reality itself,(Passo, 2013).An ideal learning environment provides opportunities for learners to be able to interact with a community where pertinent issues and problem-solving situations may arise, (Slatter, 2011). Furthermore, Marshall, (2012) argues that an interaction between students and teachers have potential to shape the course of students to learn. Teacher questioning is a popular way of creating opportunities for interaction. The types of questions and questioning strategies used by the teachers to elicit responses may very likely affect both the quality and quantity of interaction, (Arizavi, 2015) states that in traditional science classrooms, teacher talk has been prevalent. The Initiate–Respond–Evaluate (IRE) pattern is an example of teacher talk being dominant in traditional class discussion. In this pattern of discourse, the teacher initiates discussion by asking questions, students respond to the questions, and the teacher then evaluates the students’ responses immediately without allowing much student–student interaction or giving the students opportunities to contemplate their responses on their own. In this process, students are deprived of displaying much of the reasoning required to understand the concept in depth. The discourse pattern that will be investigated is the theory of discourse which is developed by Sinclair and Coulthhard (1975), and it was expanded by M Charthy, (1993).This research is conducted because the researcher wants to describe clearly how is the process of discourse pattern of spoken discourse developed by English teachers and students in the classroom interaction. This research is limited only investigating the nine state senior high schools in the southern part of central Java province in Indonesia as samples of the research. The researcher assumed that the English teachers and students in the nine different classroom interaction performed the discourse patterns differently. To describe and investigate the data taken from the field of the research, the researcher adapts the philosophy of discourse pattern developed by the experts. Jhonstone, (2008:2) explains that discourse is about the use of a language in the context of speech. The discourse can be in the context of education, culture, economic, science and other context of life. Liying, (2015) points out that the role of teacher talk has urgent function such as; restricting, facility, learning opportunities and it has high contribution in the language classroom. Haneda (2005) thinks that, whole–class interaction is likely to occur more frequently than dyadic interaction and is thus a major site for second language learning and teaching in the everyday reality of classroom. The IRE format makes teacher to keep control of both content and participation of students in the classroom interaction. Further, Haneda, (2005) declares that the distinction between monologue and dialogic discourse can usefully be applied to triadic dialogue. The IRE mode of triadic dialogue approximates monologic discourse by requiring
students to accept the teacher’s perspective on the other hand triadic dialogue, in which the third move “follow up” on the students response by either elaborating on it or requesting further information about (IRF) can encompass a range from monologue to dialogic discourse. Jackman, (2014) mention that the present movement in education that seeks to bring students to the center of teaching –learning process is a case in point. New educational paradigm is the articulation of power in the classroom. The power in this study is defined as the potential of teachers and sometimes students to take the lead in the subject-referent discourse. It creates meaningful academic engagement or contrariwise to divert interest or attention. Lynda, (2013) note that studies of classroom discourse reveal a pervasive and predictable pattern of interaction that is teacher-directed and it consist of three interactional exchanges: Initiation, Response, and Feedback or Evaluation (IRF/E). It is recently referred to as a “triadic dialogue”.

This study is an attempt to analyze the use of a language by English teachers and students in the context of classroom. This study focuses the use of a language in the classroom of senior high school in the nine state senior high schools in the southern part of central Java province in Indonesia. The researcher analyzed the utterances developed by English teachers and students in the classroom interaction. The talk of teachers and students are the main data to be analyzed from pattern of spoken discourse developed by Sinclair and Coulthard, (1975) as cited by Ellis, (1988). Teacher talk’ is the special language the teacher uses when addressing second language learners in the classroom.

Successful classroom interaction cannot be taken for granted. As language teachers, though, they can be more positive and reflect that using another language successfully, for most people, involves being able to manage interaction successfully in that language. They manage interaction in the language classroom for the sake of giving everyone the best possible opportunities for learning the language.

**Table 1. Classroom Interaction Analysis developed by Dick Allwright (1991: 202).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Talk</th>
<th>Indirect Influence</th>
<th>Accepts Feeling: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a tone- threatening manner. Feeling may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feeling are included.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. PRAISE OR ENCOURAGES: Praise or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual, nodding head or saying,” um hm?” or “go on” are included.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. ACCEPT OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENT: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As a teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category five.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. ASK QUESTIONS: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. **LECTURING**: giving facts or opinions about content or procedure: expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.

6. **GIVING DIRECTIONS**: directions, commands, or orders to which a student is expected to comply.

7. **CRITICIZING OR JUSTIFYING AUTHORITY**: statements intended to change student behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern: bawling someone out: stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing: extreme self-reference.

8. **STUDENT TALK-RESPONSE**: a student makes predictable responses to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement and set limits to what the student says.

9. **STUDENT TALK-INITIATION**: talk by students which they initiate. Unpredictable statement response to teacher. Shift from 8 to 9 as student introduces own ideas.

10. **SILENCE OR CONFUSION**: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

Van Lier (1996) states, the IRF/E structure is probably the element that best symbolizes classroom interaction. It has been shown to be a widely used form of interaction in the classroom setting. Nassaji and Wells (2000) cited in Cazden (2001) states the IRF/E sequence, also referred to as exchange was presented by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in their discourse analytical study where I stands for Initiation, R for Response and F for Feedback (or follow-up). Mehan (1979) as cited in Cazden(2001) argues that term IRF/E where the last E stands for Evaluate.

In this study, this frequently occurring classroom discourse pattern will be referred to as the IRF/E patterns since as Nassaji and Wells (2000) point out; the F that stands for Feedback or Follow-up does not restrict the nature of the third move beforehand as much as the term Evaluate does. The IRF/E pattern, as van Lier (1996:149) states, has certain classroom-specific features that are “designed for instruction”. According to Cazden (2001), Initiation is nearly always performed by the teacher and the student(s) are supposed to provide the Response to the teacher’s elicitation. The last part of the IRF/E pattern comes from the teacher who provides Feedback (or Follow-up or Evaluation) to the student’s response. As Nassaji and Wells (2000) point out, the questions teachers use in classroom interaction (Initiation in the IRF/E sequence) are most often questions that elicit expected information, i.e. information that the teacher already knows as ‘the primary knower’ (display questions). Van Lier (1996) further argues about the usefulness of the IRF/E pattern in foreign language teaching:

…the IRF/E sequence, while it is effective in maintaining order, regulating participation, and leading the students in a certain predetermined direction, often reduces the student’s initiative, independent thinking, clarity of expression, the
development of conversational skills (including turn taking, planning ahead, negotiating and arguing), and self-determination. Its prominent status in the teacher-controlled class, and the notion of teacher control in general, must therefore be carefully examined and constantly reevaluate, P.56.

Van Lier (1996) has distinguished different orientations and functions of the IRF/E pattern. The two different pedagogical orientations in which ways the teacher can use the IRF/E pattern are the ‘display/assessment’ orientation and the ‘participation’ orientation. The former is used when the teacher wants students to show their learning for the teacher so that he/she can evaluate it and the latter is used when the teacher wants the students’ active participation in classroom discussion. There are also four different functions that the Response in the IRF/E pattern can serve according to Van Lier (1996:154): Repetition, Recitation, Cognition and Expression. The complexity of the student’s answer and how much it demands from the student depends on whether the teacher’s initiation is made to make the student repeat something, to answer to a recitation, to show his/her knowledge on something or to express his/herself more freely by giving a more complex Response.

According to Candela (1999:156), the students were able to intervene with the teacher’s plans by “denying the teacher’s orientation, by refusing to participate, or by defending alternative versions of particular topics” in their response. It was not, however, only the Response move that allowed the students to impact the power relations in the classroom. The students also took different roles in the IRF/E pattern: they asked questions and evaluated answers. Thus, the students can occupy any of the three moves in the IRF/E pattern.

Jones and Thorn borrow (2004) argue that the floor is not something that someone can “hold” in classroom discourse, but it is rather something that the participants in classroom discourse can participate in. They found there to be instances of multiple floors, interruptions and simultaneous talk that show that even if classroom discourse is thought to be highly structured, there is still room for the participants to affect the organization of classroom interaction. There are many participants in the classroom who all shape the interaction in the classroom and thus, can change the direction of the IRF/E pattern from the planned direction or even momentarily break the IRF/E pattern. Shiffrin (2006:711-712) said that in modern educational contexts the students can also become initiations of the information and feedback flow. Based on this description, the development of IRF/E in the classroom interaction can be displayed equally by both teacher and students.

Method
It is a qualitative research. There are four types of research traditions, namely: psychometric, interaction analysis, discourse analysis, and ethnography. Psychometric tradition belongs to quantitative research, while interaction analysis, discourse analysis, and ethnography are close to qualitative research, (Chaudron, 1994:13-14). This research belongs to discourse analysis. It belongs to qualitative research.

Creswell (2009: 176-177), says there are five qualitative research approaches, namely: narrative, phenomenology, ethnography, case study, and grounded theory. This research is qualitative field research.
This research is conducted in the English classroom interaction. The population of this research is the English teachers and students of senior high schools in the southern part of central Java province in Indonesia. The English teachers and students will be identified based on the school’s location. Firstly, those who study in the favorite senior high schools were state senior high school (1) and state senior high school 7. The two favorite schools are located in the center of the city. The other seven senior high schools are in different districts.

The nine senior high schools are senior high school 1, senior high school 2, senior high school 3, senior high school 4, senior high school 5, senior high school 6, senior high school 7, senior high school 8, and senior high school 9 in the southern part of central Java province in Indonesia. Before taking the data, the researcher observed the teaching learning process in the English classroom interaction. The observation was concerned with the implementation of discourse pattern of IRF/E. The utterances as the source of data will be about the performance of IRF/E pattern. The informants of this research were English teachers and students from nine different Senior High Schools, of southern part of Central Java.

In this research, the main instrument is the researcher. The researcher really understood discourse pattern of IRF/E in the classroom interaction. To get the data, the researcher used video shooting. It was for recording the classroom interaction between English teachers and students in nine different senior high schools. To take an interview, the researcher used MP4 recorders, or tape recorder. The interview was in-depth interview, in order that the researcher was able to get the additional information about English teachers and students’ competences on discourse pattern of IRF/E in the classroom interaction. To analyze the data, the researcher used the qualitative descriptive analysis which is developed by Mile-Hubaran,(1994). The steps of analyzing the data are, data collecting, data verifying, data interpreting, and data synthesizing.

The instruments that the researcher used to analyze the utterances data are the following; the first is *the use of IRF/E pattern* which was developed by Van Lier (1996: 149). The researcher used this theory as an instrument to analyze the English utterances made by English teachers and students in the English classroom interaction. Further, the researcher used the analytical framework of peer-group interaction, which is developed by Kumpulainen and David (2002:39). The analytical framework of classroom interaction was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Analytical category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Processing</td>
<td>Exploratory/interpretative</td>
<td>Critical and exploratory activity that includes planning, hypothesis testing, evaluation and experimenting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Procedural/routine</td>
<td>Procedural on-task activity that focuses on handling, organizing and executing the task without reflective analysis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Spoken Discourse Analysis of Senior High Schools English Classroom

Sudar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Off task</th>
<th>Activity not related to the task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Collaborative</td>
<td>Joint activity characterized by equal participation and meaning-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processing Tutoring</td>
<td>Students helping and assisting another student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Argumentative Students are faced with cognitive/social conflict that are resolved and justified in a rational way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individualistic Student(s) working on individual tasks with no sharing or joint meaning-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Domination Students dominating the work, unequal participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conflict Social or academic conflicts that are often left unresolved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Function</th>
<th>Informative Provide information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reasoning Reasoning in language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluative Evaluating work of action</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrogative Posing question</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsive Replying to questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Organizing and/or controlling behavior</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judgmental Expressing agreement and disagreement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argumentation Justifying information, opinions or actions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compositional creating a text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revision Revising a text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictation Dictating</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading aloud Reading text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition Repeating spoken language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Expressing personal experiences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Expressing feelings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results and Discussion
The result of displaying IRF/E by English teachers and students of Senior High School 1 until Senior High School 9 was the following.

Figure 1. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 1
The first was the implementation of IRF/E discourse pattern of senior high school 1 Purworejo. The result was as the follows: English teachers of senior high school 1 Purworejo initiate the classroom interaction at the level of 40% while the student’s initiation was at the level of 10%. It means that the English teacher if more powerful to initiate the classroom interaction. Further, the student’s response was at the level of 80% while the teacher’s response was at the level of 10%. It means that students focused to response the teacher’s speech. Students were more powerful to response the teacher. Teacher’s follow-up or evaluation was at the level of 40%, students follow-up or evaluation was at the level of 0%. It reflected that the students have no power to evaluate the teacher’s speech in the classroom interaction.

English teachers of senior high school 1 never perform non–verbal response, on the contrary student’s non-verbal response developed by students of senior high school 1 at the level of 8%.

Figure 2. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 7
Teacher’s initiation developed by English teacher of senior high school 7 Purworejo was at the level of 48%, while student’s initiation was at the level of 3%, It means that the English teacher initiation was more powerful compare to the student’s initiation. Student’s response was at the level of 65% while the teacher’s initiation was at the level of 15%. It means that the students were more powerful to response the teacher’s ideas in the classroom interaction. Teacher’s follow-up or evaluation was at the level of 35% while student’s follow-up or evaluation was at the level of 20%. It means that the students have braveness to evaluate the teacher’s ideas in the classroom interaction.

Figure 3. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 2
The teacher’s initiation was at the level of 45% while student’s initiation was at the level of 40%, student’s initiation have most equal with the teacher’s initiation. It happened because students have high chance to initiate in the classroom interaction particularly when they initiate the other student’s group in the discussion. Student’s response was at the level of 49% while teacher’s response was at the level of 25%, it was said that student’s response was more powerful than teacher’s response in the classroom interaction.

Further, teacher’s follow-up or evaluation was at the level 49% while the student’s follow-up or evaluation was at the level of 5%. It was reflected that students have no much willingness to evaluate the teacher’s ideas. Teacher’s follow-up was more powerful than the student’s. English teachers of senior high school 2 Purworejo never response with the non-verbal response in the classroom interaction. On the contrary, students developed non-verbal response at the level of 7%. Further, students have more power in the non-verbal response.

**Figure 4. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 3**

The English teacher’s initiation was at the level of 52 %, while students of senior high school 3 Purworejo never developed an initiation in the classroom interaction. Teacher’s response was at the level of 25% while student’s response was at the level of 85%, it means that the students were more powerful to response the teacher’s speech in the classroom interaction. Further, teacher’s follow-up was more dominant than student’s follow-up. Teacher’s follow-up was at the level of 20%, while student’s follow-up was at the level of zero.

Students never evaluate the teacher’s speech in the classroom interaction. Then, student’s developed non-verbal response was at the level of 11%, on the contrary teacher never developed non-verbal response, it means that students were more powerful to develop non-verbal response.

**Figure 5. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 4**
Teacher’s initiation of senior high school 4 was more powerful than student’s initiation. Teacher’s initiation was at the level of 40%, while student’s initiation was at the level of 5%. Further, student’s response was more powerful than teacher’s response developed in the classroom interaction. Student’s response was at the level of 60% while teacher’s response was at the level of 31%.

Furthermore, teacher’s follow-up was more powerful than student’s follow-up. Teacher’s follow-up was at the level of 28% on the contrary student’s follow-up was at the level of zero. It means that students never evaluate the teacher’s ideas in the classroom interaction. Students were more powerful to developed non-verbal response in the classroom interaction than teacher’s non-verbal response. Student’s non-verbal response was at the level of 21%, on the contrary students’ nonverbal response was at the level of zero.

**Figure 6. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 5**

Teacher’s initiation was at the level of 65% while student’s initiation was at the level of 40%, it means that the teacher was more powerful to initiate the classroom interaction than students. Students were more powerful to response the teacher’s ideas in the classroom interaction. Student’s response was at the level of 35%, on the contrary teacher’s response was at the level of 22%.

Teacher’s follow-up was more powerful than student’s follow-up. Teacher’s follow-up was at the level of 7%, on the contrary student’s follow-up was at the level of zero. Further, student’s non-verbal response was more powerful than teacher’s non-verbal response. Student’s non–verbal response was at the level of 11% while teacher’s non-verbal response was at the level of 2%.
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Figure 7. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 6

Teacher’s initiation of senior high school 6 Purworejo was more powerful than student’s initiation. Teacher’s initiation was at the level of 51% while student’s initiation was at the level of 1%. Student’s response was more powerful in the classroom interaction than teacher’s response. Student’s response was at the level of 80% while teacher’s response was at the level of 20%. Teacher’s follow-up was more powerful than student’s follow-up. It means that the students were never evaluating the teachers’ ideas in the classroom interaction. Teacher’s evaluate was at the level of 25% on the contrary student’s follow-up was at the level of zero. Teacher of senior high school 6 never developed non-verbal responses in the classroom interaction, on the contrary students of senior high school 6 developed non-verbal responses at the level of 19%.

Figure 8. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 8

Teacher’s initiation of senior high school 8 was at the level of 22% while student’s initiation was at the level of zero. It means that the teacher was more powerful to initiate the classroom interaction. Student’s response was more powerful than teacher’s response. Student’s response was at the level of 70% on the contrary teacher’s response was at the level of 5%. Furthermore, teacher’s follow-up was more powerful than student’s follow-up. Teacher’s follow-up was at the level of 70% on the contrary student’s follow-up was at the level of zero. Students never evaluate the teacher’s ideas in the classroom interaction. Student’s non-verbal response was more powerful than teacher’s non-verbal response. Student’s non-verbal response was at the level of 29% on the contrary teacher’s non-verbal response was at the level of zero.
Figure 9. The display of teacher and students IRF/E pattern of senior high school 9

Teacher’s initiation of senior high school 9 was at the level of 43% on the contrary student’s initiation was at the level of 12%. It means that teacher was more powerful to initiate the classroom interaction than students. Teacher’s response and students’ response were mostly equal; teacher’s response was at the level of 42% while student’s response was at the level of 49%. In this point, students were more powerful to respond.

Teacher’s follow-up was more powerful than student’s follow-up, It means that teacher’s was highly to control student’s ideas or behavior in the classroom interaction. Student’s nonverbal response was more powerful than teacher’s nonverbal response. Student’s nonverbal response was at the level of 43% on the contrary teacher’s non-verbal response was at the level of zero.

Further, based on the results of data analysis about the display of IRF/E in this study, the researcher argued that both old paradigm of IRF/E (van Lier: 1996:96) cited in Cazden (2001: 21), and Shiffrin, (2006:711-712) modern paradigm, the two philosophical of using IRF/E discourse pattern was used separately. It means that even it was in modern context of education Van Lier paradigm (1996) philosophical value of IRF/E used in traditional classroom interaction, while the modern philosophical values of IRF/E (Schifrin, 2006) used in the modern classroom interaction.

Conclusion

Based on the data analysis, students were in high position to respond which means that the students were more passive in the classroom interaction. Teachers were more active to initiate the classroom interaction. Student’s initiation was lower than teacher’s initiation in the classroom interaction. Students never developed the follow-up utterances. The follow-up utterances were dominated by teachers. It means that teachers were more powerful to control the students. The student’s follow-up were found only in the classroom interaction of senior high school 7 and senior high school 2. It happened because the students had a chance to share with their classmates in the group presentation about the topic of discussion.

Related to the results of data analysis, teachers did not perform non-verbal response in the classroom interaction: on the contrary, some students in the classroom interaction performed non-verbal responses. It means that the students did not always perform verbal interaction in the classroom, sometimes they used non-verbal response to react to their teachers’ ideas.
English teachers and students of classical classroom interaction mostly used the old philosophical value, only few of English teachers used the modern philosophical one. On the contrary, in the acceleration English classroom interaction the English teachers and students used modern philosophical value. It means that even in this modern era, both classical and modern Philosophical values of IRF/E discourse pattern can be used simultaneously, it depends on the input, the organizer, and the setting of schools.

Acknowledgement
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References


Spoken Discourse Analysis of Senior High Schools English Classroom

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University of Trinidad & Tobago.


EFL Learners’ Attitudes towards the Proper Pronunciation of English and Podcasts as a Facilitator of Proper Pronunciation

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Abstract
The aim of this study is to examine the attitudes of Saudi students of English towards proper pronunciation, and podcasts as a facilitator of proper pronunciation. It will discover the importance given to correct pronunciation, as well as gauging learners’ attitudes towards the possibility of introducing podcasts as a new language input tool for facilitating improvements in pronunciation. To achieve this, the previous literature in this area is reviewed, followed by presenting the results and analysing the data from an attitudinal questionnaire distributed amongst 23 Level 3 Saudi EFL learners from the department of English at Imam University. The questionnaire is divided into two parts- one concerning proper pronunciation, and the other podcasts. The data analysis shows that the participants, in spite of the low rate of improvement in their pronunciation, have positive attitudes towards the proper pronunciation of English. This outcome is compatible with previous studies’ results, which assert that having a positive attitude towards a particular language and its speakers can improve pronunciation. The students were presented with a total of five podcasts related to their speaking and listening textbook for use over an eight week period, and at the end of this time they were requested to complete the questionnaire. The findings support the usefulness of examining learners` attitudes towards new Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) applications before using them in a practical way. The results show a high rate of acceptance of podcasts and that, overall, the students have positive attitudes towards them.

Keywords: CALL, English, podcasts, pronunciation

Introduction and background
There has been significant expansion in the Saudi Higher Education sector in recent years; as of 2011, there were 24 government-funded universities providing degree programmes for some 749,238 undergraduates (Statistical Department, Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia, 2011). Recently, interest in EFL (English as a foreign language) has grown significantly due to the King Abdullah Scholarship Programme, which sends hundreds of thousands of Saudi students abroad to study English with the aim of pursuing specific degree programmes overseas. The English language fulfills several important functions and enjoys an eminent status in various sectors at every level in Saudi Arabia, particularly in Higher Education.

Language learning comprises an interlinked network of skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking. Since speaking is such an important aspect of communication, good second language (L2) learners should not ignore pronunciation. Rightly or wrongly, people often judge a speaker’s level of language competence by his/her pronunciation in terms of fluency and accuracy, and in this respect, creating a positive first impression really counts, particularly in the professional world. It is surprising, then, that little emphasis is currently being placed on improving pronunciation skills in the Saudi system by either teachers or students.

The role played by attitudinal perspectives in L2 learning has been a major concern of L2 and foreign language (FL) researchers, since a learner’s positive or negative attitude towards language learning in general; towards a specific language, or towards speakers of that language, has frequently been proven to play a vital role in his/her success or failure in FL acquisition. Language learning is affected by both attitudes and motivation, since learners with a negative attitude are unlikely to produce satisfactory results.

Studies have revealed that the personal characteristics of learners can contribute towards their success in FL acquisition, and specific links have been made between highly positive attitudes towards the target language (TL) and learner’s success in pronunciation. Kenworthy (1987), for example, found the acquisition of proficiency in pronunciation to be a product of both linguistic and non-linguistic factors, with the speaker’s attitude being important, along with his/her native language, age, exposure to the TL, and innate phonetic ability. Thus, one aspect of this study has examined the attitudes of Saudi EFL learners towards pronunciation as a language skill. Research has also shown that another key factor in good pronunciation is listening to the TL being spoken by native speakers. Therefore, good pronunciation can also be viewed as a by-product of good listening.

Statement of the Problem
As a teacher and former student of EFL, it has been observed that many Saudi undergraduates have difficulty pronouncing English correctly due to the fact that EFL learners in Saudi Arabia face a number of significant obstacles to achieving high levels of performance in pronunciation. The key problems can be summarised as:

- EFL teachers tend to be non-native
- Students lack frequent face-to-face contact with native speakers as role models
- Students are more likely to have contact with English speakers for whom this is L2/FL
- Students face interference from their native language (Arabic)
One of the key difficulties is that pronunciation errors can become fossilised. Students have a tendency to adopt the pronunciation features of their first language (Arabic) when speaking English, and if these problems are not tackled at a fairly early stage, the potential exists for those who are prospective teachers to pass the same pronunciation errors on to their students. Saudi EFL teachers have traditionally used tape recordings in the classroom setting to address this lack of exposure to native speakers. This technique initially played a useful role in accommodating students’ need for naturalness, but it now seems outdated. Thus, it is believed that practitioners and educators must seek new pedagogical approaches, using recent technological means, to deliver EFL material or improve skills. Thus, this view, together with the researchers’ personal interest in podcasting as an influential means of improving pronunciation, has led to this study.

One potential solution offered by digital technology would be to replace tape recordings with podcasts. Furthermore, approaching Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) innovations from an attitudinal perspective is a trend increasingly being adopted by language educators and researchers in order to assess how students might respond to them. Therefore, this study does not focus on the effectiveness of podcasting to enhance learners’ pronunciation; instead, since this is an emerging technology in Saudi Arabia, the decision was taken to conduct an attitudinal study to examine how this technological innovation would be viewed by Saudi students.

**Aims of the Study**

As this is an attitudinal study, it aims to assess the attitudes of Saudi students of EFL towards the importance of pronunciation as a component of language learning, and to gauge their attitudes towards the possibility of introducing podcasts as a new language input tool to facilitate improvements in English pronunciation.

**Research Questions**

This study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the students’ attitudes towards the importance of the pronunciation of English?

2. What are the students’ attitudes towards the introduction of podcasts as a new language input tool for facilitating improvements in pronunciation?

**Literature review**

**Pronunciation**

*The importance of pronunciation*

Pronunciation includes two major components: segmental features, that is, vowel and consonant sounds, and suprasegmental features, also known as prosody. Pennington (1989) defines prosody as “the patterns in individual words of stress, pitch, tone, and rhythm and the intonational patterns of longer utterances” (Pennington, 1989, p. 22).

Like other EFL skills, good pronunciation helps learners with their communicative efficiency. Kriedler (1989), states that correct and clear pronunciation is important in language learning, since without it, learners might not be understood and may be poorly perceived by other English speakers. Morley (1998) also argues that pronunciation plays an important role in helping learners to become more intelligible speakers. She adds that limited pronunciation skills can make learners lose their self-confidence, and may have a negative influence on them when estimating their credibility and abilities. Fraser (1999, 2000) also claims that poor pronunciation...
could, in turn, condemn learners to lower social, academic and work advancement than they deserve. Consequently, Morley (1998) stresses the importance of teaching pronunciation, arguing that tutors should work as "pronunciation coaches" when the students are initially receptive to learning in this area.

**Pronunciation Problems of Saudi EFL Learners**

Some researchers and neurologists claim that it is impossible to attain native-like pronunciation after the age of puberty because of the brain’s limited plasticity. Lenneberg’s (1967) findings, for example, confirm that few learners can attain native-like pronunciation in a FL, especially those who have learned to speak it later on in life. Other researchers, however, hold an opposing view, suggesting that the human brain has the ability to change and develop with the passage of time. Lund (2003), for instance, concludes that it is still possible for students to achieve native-like pronunciation in their twenties, suggesting that a degree of brain plasticity can survive through to that age. Neufeld and Schneiderman (1980, p.105) also report that adults are able to achieve native-like proficiency in the articulatory and prosodic features of a L2. Since Saudi learners begin the study of EFL at the age of 10, this suggests that they should be well-placed to succeed in mastering pronunciation. It also means that undergraduates who have acquired bad habits in pronunciation should still be capable of addressing this through remedial work.

As the participants in the current study are Saudi EFL learners, it is also useful to examine the literature which has investigated the specific pronunciation problems of these learners, because although students of EFL in Saudi Arabia spend a considerable time studying English sounds, they still face difficulties in acquiring a good standard of pronunciation. The most salient pronunciation error that they commit is related to L1 interference, which refers to the process of transferring a linguistic feature that exists in the L1 into the L2 when it should not occur. In terms of pronunciation, this is likely to cause errors in rhythm, intonation, and aspiration in the TL.

A number of researchers have conducted studies on the errors committed by Saudi EFL learners, including Ahmad (2011), Al-Saidat (2010), Altahī (1995), Bin Turki (2008) and Khan (2011). Those most relevant to the purposes of this study are discussed here. Bin Turki’s (2008) study reveals that due to the inter-language of Saudi speakers, their speech contains instances of incorrect production of certain problematic sounds, including differentiating between /p/ and /b and /v/ and /f/. Ahmad (2011) also conducted a study that attempted to investigate which English consonant sounds created most difficulties for Saudi learners of EFL, and his findings confirm those of Bin Turki’s, concluding that the participants particularly struggled with /p/, /b/, /v/, /t/ and /ŋ/. Ahmad’s (2011) study also provides helpful suggestions and teaching strategies which could be used to assist ESL/EFL teachers in reducing future problems regarding pronunciation of these English consonants among Arab learners in general. Khan (2011) also found that speakers of the Saudi variant of Arabic, in particular, are not able to differentiate between /sh/ and /ch/ as in *sheep* and *cheap*. They were also sometimes confused by the use of /s/ and /c/.

**Podcasting**

According to Downes (2005), the first mention of the term “podcasting” appeared in an article written by the journalist Aled Williams in *The Guardian* in February 2004. Since then,
Podcasts have made their presence felt in various areas of contemporary life, and their numbers have grown extensively. Campbell (2005) mentions five causes of the rapid spread of podcast usage:

1. Internet activity is pervasive and a common activity throughout the world.
2. Broadband technologies have grown rapidly, allowing large media files to be downloaded.
3. The multimedia abilities of personal computers have become commonplace.
4. The distinction between streaming and downloading material has begun to blur.
5. The rapid growth of iPod™ and MP3 adoption.

Podcasting is one of the latest technological innovations that language educators can use as part of CALL, and it falls into the category referred to as e-Learning (Downes, 2005). Podcasts are audio files which the user can upload through the internet via laptops or smart phones. Those files can then be transferred onto personal computers, laptops, and mobile devices such as MP3 players, mobile phones, and personal digital assistants (PDAs). Audio files available for downloading and other means of online listening have been in existence for some time, but podcasting differs in so far as it is automatically downloaded content. Podcasts have the additional benefit of mobility and transportability, allowing learners to use them in a variety of settings such as at home, when travelling, and even in the open air.

**Podcasting in EFL/ESL Contexts**

Many online EFL podcasts are produced by language teachers or native English speakers interested in teaching EFL, and audio podcasts often contain printable transcripts to help students to follow them. Many researchers and practitioners have highlighted the benefits of ESL/EFL podcasting.

According to Constantine (2007), the most obvious use of podcasting in a language module is for listening comprehension, with podcasting serving as a great resource for global listening, since the content is relevant and authentic. Ting (2011) argues that podcasts have incredible potential for language learners, not only as integrative and supplementary learning tools, but also as powerful generators of knowledge.

Presenting the chief benefits of podcasts, Zychla (2007) has addressed some of the general problems in the field of language education that podcasting could help alleviate. Amongst these
problems are insufficient language exposure; students’ overdependence on teachers, and differences in facilities among schools. Zychla (2007) also reports that some schools encourage learners of EFL to record their own podcasts so that their instructors can evaluate their performance. Borja (2005), spoke to an instructional-technology specialist at the University of Nebraska’s College of Education, and notes that: “Educators are starting to see how podcasting can help hone students’ vocabulary, writing, editing, public speaking, and presentation skills.” In a nutshell, podcasts can make up for the absence of natural language input and are best described as ubiquitous tools.

**Attitudes**

As previously noted, attitudes play a crucial role in the process of language learning, as they appear to affect the success or failure of students. Gardner (1985) maintains that motivation to learn a FL is determined by basic predispositions and personality characteristics, such as the learner’s attitude towards foreign people in general, and towards the target group and language in particular. Karahan (2007) holds that positive attitudes will support learners striving to learn EFL. The next sections focus on two significant aspects of attitude concerning FL learning: attitudes towards correct pronunciation, and attitudes towards podcasts.

**Attitudes towards Pronunciation**

Various studies have verified that most EFL learners are not satisfied with their pronunciation skills and dream of speaking English fluently (Derwing & Rossiter, 2002). One of the earliest studies by Guioraet al. (1972) concludes that the psychological demands of FL learning are related to pronunciation skills, and they argue that pronunciation is the most outstanding expression of language ability; the hardest skill to acquire in a new language, and the most difficult aspect to lose in one’s native language. Elliot (1995) found that subjects’ attitude towards pronunciation, as measured by the Pronunciation Attitude Inventory (PAI), is the principal variable in relation to target language pronunciation. Elliot’s study is built on earlier research by Suter (1976), who concluded that students who are more concerned with their pronunciation display better pronunciation of English. In a study conducted by Derwing (2003), more than half of the interviewees felt that they would receive more respect if they were able to pronounce English better.

**Attitudes towards Pronunciation-specific Podcasting**

Ducate and Lomicka (2009) conducted a study to examine the effects of using podcasts to improve pronunciation in L2 learning, and looked at how students’ attitudes towards pronunciation changed over the course of a semester. The study included 22 participants enrolled on intermediate German and French courses. They completed a pre- and post-survey based on Elliott’s (1995) Pronunciation Attitude Inventory to assess their perspectives regarding pronunciation. The study reveals that students found the podcast project positive and enjoyable. In another study, Tavales and Skevoulis (2006) suggest that students, with the help of podcasts, could record themselves or native speakers and then engage in listening practice as they focused on pronunciation, grammar use or intonation. The results show an enhancement in their pronunciation.

Jessica and Anne (2010) point out that there are numerous benefits from integrating podcasts into a pronunciation course, including the opportunity for learners to recycle the course material.
by reformulating the content in their own words and in an original format. They assert that integrating podcasting into any course is one way of drawing the learner’s attention towards the importance of accurate pronunciation. Lee and Chan (2007) conducted a study with 18 students studying information technology. After listening to three to five minute podcasts over the course of a semester, the students participated in a survey which indicated that they perceived listening to the podcasts as being worthwhile and enjoyable.

**Research design**

The current study functions as an exploratory survey in which both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are used. The rationale behind approaching this study from an attitudinal perspective, rather than an experimental perspective, is due to three reasons: Firstly, there have been no attitudinal studies on podcasting in Saudi Arabia, and so that makes experimental studies important. Secondly, previous studies on emerging technological applications are reported to have started with an investigation into attitudes and feedback. Once such applications have become established in a society, their effect can be researched and examined; podcasting in education in general, and in language teaching in particular, is considered to be an emerging technology in Saudi Arabia. The third reason is ascribed to the difficulty in assessing any improvement in the students’ pronunciation due to the lack of native speakers of English.

**The setting**

The study was carried out at the Department of English, Imam University, Saudi Arabia, during the first semester of the academic year 2016-2015. The study lasted for eight weeks, starting with a presentation on podcasts, and ending with the questionnaire collection.

**Participants**

The participants consisted of 23 level three students from the department of English at Imam University. All students had finished a one year (two academic semesters) intensive course in English. Their ages ranged from 20 to 23 years and Arabic is their first language. The reason behind targeting this group is due to the appropriateness of the academic level at which they are studying. To clarify, they are neither beginning to say that they may not have valued the importance of pronunciation, yet they are not advanced enough to say that they may have difficulty honing their pronunciation.

**Instrument**

In order to answer the research questions that have guided the study, a questionnaire has been employed a the main data-gathering instrument. The questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first part, which seeks to examine students’ attitudes towards pronunciation, is based on Elliott’s(1995) Pronunciation Attitude Inventory (PAI) (see Part I in AppendixA ). PAI is a model that was first introduced by Raymond Elliott in 1995, which attempts to probe learners’ attitudes, feelings and aims, with regards to foreign language pronunciation.

**Main findings**

*Attitudes towards Proper Pronunciation*

The first research question asks about the attitudes of the participants towards proper pronunciation. First, an examination of the scores for the three negatively worded items (items 3,
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8 and 9) in the questionnaire will be presented. For item three (I will never be able to speak English with a good accent), more subjects (61%) rejected this supposition and believe they can speak English with a good accent. This implies that they have a strong aptitude for speaking English with a good accent. Responses to item eight (Communicating is much more important than sounding like a native speaker of English) gained a lower percentage (26%) of agreement; while the majority of participants (74%) value the aim of communication over merely passing as a native speaker of English. As for the third item (Good pronunciation skills are not as important as learning vocabulary and grammar), the number in agreement (12) was 52%, while those who disagreed (11) made up 48%. This implies that just over half of students value learning grammar and vocabulary over acquiring the proper pronunciation; however, this score is totally inconsistent with that of Ducate and Lomicka (2009). This attitude in both Ducate and Lomicka’s study, and the current study for items eight and nine, may not be surprising since language courses during this preliminary stage perhaps emphasise communication, vocabulary and grammar over pronunciation. Surprisingly enough, the findings for item nine in Lord’s (2008) study show a significantly different attitude. Her subjects strongly disagree with that statement and, moreover, they value the importance of pronunciation over vocabulary and grammar.

In terms of attitudes towards native-like pronunciation, which can be seen in the scores of items one, seven and 12, the results of the three items taken as a whole suggest that the participants are noticeably inclined to attempting to sound like natives when speaking English. As much as 82% of the subjects strive to reach nativity in spoken English. A possible reason for this high score could be due to the fact that students of English are becoming more concerned about sounding like natives in order to gain self-confidence. Actually, a number of studies stress that speaking with near native-like pronunciation gives the speaker more self-confidence. As suggested by Moyer (1999), positive orientation towards the language appears to be an important factor in developing native-like pronunciation.

As for attitudes towards proper pronunciation, represented by items 2, 4, 5, 6, 10 and 11, the data again shows that participants displayed a considerably positive attitude. An overview of the responses reveals the following: (1) The participants believe that they can improve their pronunciation skills in English; (2) they put more emphasis on proper pronunciation in class; (3) they want to acquire better pronunciation skills, (4) they strongly value the importance of acquiring proper pronunciation and (5) they are concerned with their progress in pronunciation. Taken as a whole, these attitudes represent almost 80% of the total number of participants. Consequently, these positive levels of attitude confirm what was hypothesised earlier, in that EFL learners have a positive attitude towards acquiring the proper pronunciation of English. As evidenced by Lord’s (2008) research findings, the participants have a very positive attitude towards proper pronunciation and their ability to achieve accurate pronunciation. Moreover, this result is in line with Sparks and Ganschow’s work (1991), as they conclude that students with a positive attitude towards the target language are more successful at pronunciation than students with less positive attitudes.

Attitudes towards Podcasts as a Facilitator of Proper Pronunciation:

Likert-scale Statements

The second research question concerns the attitudes of the participants towards podcasts as a facilitator of proper pronunciation, and the second part of the questionnaire addresses this question. The learners that displayed positive attitudes made up 69%, whereas those with negative attitudes comprised 12%. The first three items, which state that podcasts are interesting,
useful and enjoyable, showed a highly positive attitude rate, ranging from 61% up to 83%, and a very low negative attitude rate ranging from 2% down to 0%. This implies that the subjects are highly oriented towards using CALL tools and have a good aptitude at utilising the new technology. This result can be ascribed to the widespread use of technological devices and smartphones that support podcasting, along with students’ ownership of and interest in such devices. Moreover, the plethora of benefits and features that can be gained from such tools makes the use of devices interesting and enjoyable, as well as useful. In Ducate and Lomicka’s (2009) study, participants perceived podcasts as being positive and enjoyable.

Items five and nine concern the integration of podcasts as a supplement for use in listening courses. Nineteen students (83%) support the idea of integrating podcasts into a listening and speaking course, and 13 (57%) feel comfortable listening to lecturer-related podcasts. This finding shows that students are no longer restricted to language laboratories for listening materials, since podcasts have become easily accessible. Similarly, Stanley’s (2006) study reveals that podcasts could be used as a supplement to textbook material and a source of authentic listening material. Miller and Hilas (2010) point out that one of the benefits of integrating podcasts into a pronunciation course is the opportunity for learners to recycle the course material by reformulating the content in their own words.

Items four and seven address two functions that podcasts can provide for EFL learners. Podcasts could serve as ubiquitous learning tools and be used to identify various regional accents. Seventeen students reinforced the former function, and nineteen supported the latter function. None of the students disagreed with the role that podcasts could play in helping to identify different English accents. Such a result is indicative of the students’ belief in the usefulness of the portability of podcasts, since they have been raised in a media-rich environment and live in an information-centric world. Again, this feature of podcasts is stressed in the study by Godwin-Jones (2005). In a nutshell, despite the low rate of improvement in pronunciation, the overall findings show that the attitudes towards podcasts as a facilitator for proper pronunciation are positive.

Implications

The findings suggest that while useful, podcasting alone is not sufficient enough to greatly improve pronunciation during an academic semester. If teachers want their students to improve their pronunciation skills through the help of audio aids such as podcasts, they are recommended to provide them with more focused and consistent pronunciation practice in class. Accordingly, it is suggested that EFL instructors should integrate podcasting into listening and speaking classes in order to ensure greater advances in pronunciation skills. To be precise, a listening and speaking course is an ideal environment for the employment of course-related podcasts as an authentic listening material supplement. Usually, listening and speaking skills textbooks are accompanied by CDs or MP3s, but those aids cannot surpass the many ubiquitous features of podcasts. Nowadays, the internet is abundant with pronunciation-specific podcasting providers that teach the various components of pronunciation.

This exploratory survey could open the doors to more comprehensive studies as part of further research. A similar experimental study with a larger number of participants may produce more generalisable results. Further studies on podcasting that include more students, more levels and more raters should result in clearer and more reliable outcomes. Also, such studies could
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examine whether students’ pronunciation does improve over a year or even longer. Since the current study has not emphasised any particular pronunciation features, a more detailed examination of the acquisition of particular pronunciation features (segmental and supra-segmental), as well as the impact that podcasting can have on these features, would be worth investigating. It would also be useful to follow up the results from similar studies in order to assist learners and educators by producing model strategies for using podcasts in EFL contexts.

Conclusion

The results from this study are promising and encouraging, not only because they are in compliance with previous research findings that indicate that EFL students have the potential to increase performance in pronunciation skills, but also regarding the role that new technologies such as podcasting can play in the process of language development in general. Learners’ attitudes towards new CALL technologies such as podcasting have been shown to be generally positive. Moreover, language educators should keep up with new CALL innovations, as today’s students are demanding the use of technological applications in the classroom, and if educators do not provide these, they are likely to be left behind. The use of podcasting is particularly useful in Saudi EFL settings, as teachers are usually non-native English speakers, and such technology facilitates the incorporation of regional as well as standard dialects.

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Being English Teachers in Malaysian Islamic Schools: Identity Narratives from a Five Year ‘Life Journey’

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Abstract
Malaysia’s national school system is a reflection of the diversity of Malaysians. Instead of a single unitary system, the formal school system in Malaysia consists of national schools for all young Malaysians, national type schools (for Mandarin and Tamil speaking students) and also national religious schools (or sekolah kebangsaan agama) that focus on Islamic education for the Muslim majority group. From informal Islamic schools (or sekolah pondok) of the past, today’s national religious schools continue to play a critical role in educating young Malaysians. Nevertheless, these schools are facing difficult challenges to remain relevant in a rapidly developing society. One of these difficulties relates to English language teaching. In national religious schools where Islamic education and Arabic language are given priority, teaching English as a core subject becomes a real challenge; some students deliberately resist learning English as it is a ‘Western’ language and some teachers view English teachers as the ‘Other’ within these schools. This research article is based on a longitudinal effort to study these difficult challenges and to shed light on the lived experiences of English teachers in Malaysia’s national Islamic schools. Drawing on ‘thick’ narrative data from face-to-face interviews, written narrative accounts, and informal online and mobile exchanges, this article deals with the ‘stories’ of becoming and being an English teacher within Malaysian Islamic schools. The stories and co-constructed narratives unveil the feelings, experiences and aspirations of two ‘Bumiputera’ Malay-Muslim English teachers, one female and one male, in the last five years of their professional lives.

Keywords: English teachers, identity construction, Islamic schools, Malaysian education, narrative research

Introduction to Islamic education in Malaysia

Within the Malaysian national education system, the Islamic strand of education plays a distinguishing role for the people of this nation. For the rural ‘Bumiputra’ Malays (literally ‘sons of the earth’, a socio-political label given to the majority Malay ethnic group and indigenous minority groups), even prior to Malaya’s independence from British colonial rule in 1957 to the formation of the Malaysian Federation in 1963 up until now, the Islamic strand of education is viewed as a symbol of shared Bumiputera Malay religious identity and a viable option for Bumiputera Malay-Muslim parents who want their children to be educated in a thoroughly Islamic manner (Adnan, 2001, 2013b). Accounts of Malaysia’s unique Islamic education strand and the founding of so-called ‘Islamic schools’ on a nationwide scale that incorporate both core academic subjects and Islamic religious subjects within the formal primary and secondary curriculums for the Bumiputera Malay majority, have been empirically examined and systematically documented by Malaysian academics (see, for example, Ilias & Adnan, 2014; Mohd-Asraf, 2004, 2005; Rosnani, 1996, 2014).

According to Harper (1999), “in 1953 there were only 26,215 Malays in English schools... a quarter of the total pupils” (p. 234). Harper’s observation failed to recognise that there were other strands of formal education that contributed to the betterment of the largely rural Malay populace in the years before the independence of Malaya in 1957. For example, even though they were limited in number, purely Malay schools or ‘sekolah rakyat/sekolah Melayu’ became an important conduit for rural Malays to gain access to formal education. Even if many of these schools faced problems like the shortage of trained teachers and the lack of operating funds, the setting up of these schools, mostly by members of local communities, proved that rural Malays are open to the idea of learning in a formal manner (Melebek & Moain, 2006). Indeed, even if rural Malay parents of that time could not access the English education system which, by and large, was meant for children growing up in town areas, these parents did not want their children to be left behind in terms of education. Another avenue to access education for young Malay children at that time, came in the form of informal Islamic religious schools or traditional ‘sekolah pondok’. Some Western-based researchers assert that such schools were less formally organised and provided less quality education, in contrast to schools funded by the British colonial government. Still, their assertions do not detract from the fact that Islamic schooling provided much needed opportunities for the ethnic Malays to access formal education, a practice that continues in Malaysia to this day (Rosnani, 1996, 2014).

In present day Malaysia, the Advisory Board for the Coordination of Islamic Education (Ahmad Kilani, 2003) together with the Malaysian Ministry of Education regulate the curriculum within, and standardise the administration standards of, three types of schools that are allowed by the government in power to follow the Malaysian National Islamic Education curriculum. The first is called national religious schools (or sekolah kebangsaan agama). The majority of these schools are under the direct control of the Malaysian Ministry of Education at federal level. These schools, in turn, can either choose to provide formal education at primary level (Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan Agama) or secondary level (Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Agama) or both, and a small number are operated by private companies and non-profit organisations. The second type is called state Islamic schools (or Sekolah Agama Negeri). These schools are normally managed by the State Department of Religious Affairs (Jabatan Agama Islam Negeri) that are present in different Malaysian states. The third type of school is the ‘People’s Islamic...
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Schools’ (literally translated as Sekolah Agama Rakyat). These schools can be federally managed, state managed or run by private entities or non-government organisations. This final type of Islamic school is more aligned to the concept of ‘madrassa’ in Islam. They normally do not provide a full academic curriculum and they mainly focus on purely Islamic education to supplement what students have learned in national schools or national type schools (Ilias & Adnan, 2014).

Most importantly within the Malaysian national education system, all schools operating within the borders of this nation are expected to fully subscribe to the national standardised curriculum that is continuously revised and improved upon by the Malaysian Ministry of Education (Adnan, 2012). The main reason for this is to allow all Malaysian students to equally and fairly sit for national standardised examinations such as the Lower Secondary Evaluation (PT3) at Form Three or 15 years of age, the Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM) at Form Five or 17 years of age and finally the Malaysian High School Certificate (STPM) at Form Six or 18/19 years (Adnan, 2013b; Kassim & Adnan, 2005). But whilst the Malaysian national education system focuses on positive democratic ideologies through standardisation practices and legally-binding federal policies, the picture on the ground is not as perfect when it comes to the teaching and learning of English within some schools that subscribe to the Malaysian National Islamic Education curriculum (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 1989). This situation will be further scrutinised in the following subsection.

Teaching English in (privately-run) Islamic schools in Malaysia

The conflicts, the dilemmas and the problems relating to English language teaching and learning in Malaysia are not fresh topics nor will they be easily solvable given the perennial Malaysian ‘English language dilemma’ (Adnan, 2005; Mohd-Asraf, 2004). The Malaysian government in power (the National Front or Barisan Nasional) has instituted several national education reforms to support the teaching and learning of English since Malaysia’s independence from British colonial rule in 1957, even to the point of using the mass media and popular media as English teaching tools (for deeper coverage, see Adnan, 2010). Problematically, it seems that teething institutional level conflicts and socioeconomic realities, particularly the widening divide between the urban and rural communities, continue to hinder these positive efforts within Malaysian borders. Lately, to carry on this debate, certain quarters within Malaysia have raised the issue of the oftentimes unexceptional performance in the English language subject in some national Islamic schools, especially those that are operated by private entities and non-government organisations (Ilias & Adnan, 2014).

Whilst there is no doubting that some national religious school students have been able to show commendable performance in the English language subject as a whole, the English language performance of students within this particular educational setting (i.e., privately operated Islamic schools) is showing some decline compared to other types of schools within the Malaysian school system. From personal experience, even if some students in these schools managed to score good or excellent results when it comes to English, their real world performance in this subject falters compared to students from other school types. Interestingly, this phenomenon can also be observed in national type schools (where Mandarin language or Tamil language is used), when it comes to Malay language or bahasa Melayu the national
language; excellent exam results do not necessarily translate to real world language abilities. With reference to privately operated national religious schools, Ahmad Zabidi (2005) observes that some of these schools have limited teaching resources, computer workspaces, science laboratories and libraries. In addition, some of the teachers in these schools only went through basic teacher training and they are not able to attend continuous professional development courses or further teacher training that might elevate their professional skills. Furthermore, in some of these schools, promotions and permanent service schemes are hard to come by and the opportunities to pursue advanced university-level teacher training are limited. A few such schools are also troubled by poor pastoral and safety records leading to tragic incidents of fire disasters and even the accidental deaths of students in such schools (Astro Awani, 2014; Sufian, 2005; Zaharah, 2005).

It is thus not surprising that the Ministry of Education through its Educational Training and Research Division attributes the mediocre academic performance of students in some privately operated national religious schools (i.e., Islamic schools) to the lack of excellent educators, slow infrastructural development and ineffective school management strategies (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 1989). In its 1989 report on basic education in Malaysia, the ministry stated that a percentage of teachers in 49 randomly selected Islamic schools were without advanced educational training and professional teaching qualifications. Some educators in this setting also did not formally graduate from university or college, and a small minority are merely secondary school leavers without extensive teacher training. A cursory analysis of the Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM) results in 2002 in such schools further revealed that only three out of ten students from privately operated Islamic schools passed all of their academic subjects, compared to six out of ten students from the national school system all over Malaysia. Even more perplexing, just a percentage of students from privately operated Islamic schools scored an ‘A’ grade in Islamic Religious Studies, a subject in which they were expected to shine (for further discussion, see Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2014).

Within the limits of this present research effort, all in all there seems to be a slow decline in the performance of students in privately operated national Islamic schools in the English language subject at SPM or Malaysian Certificate of Education level (Ilias & Adnan, 2014). This is a cause for concern given the fact that some of these secondary school leavers are expected to continue their studies at tertiary level where English continues to be taught and used. Although it could be argued that Arabic language is more important for these students compared to English (see, Ismail, Albatsya & Azhar, 2015; Mohd-Asraf, 2005), questions arise as to their potentials as tertiary level students and their readiness to study at college or university level when they failed to show their English abilities at a lower (i.e., secondary) level. This is due to the fact that not all of the students from such schools will be able to study in a primarily Arabic language (as medium of instruction) educational environment.

**Contextualising this present research effort**

This research article reports on a longitudinal project that began several years in the past and continues to this present day. It is part of my long term plan to chronicle the life history (Linde, 1993) and to chart the life journey (Adnan, 2013b) of Malaysian teachers in privately operated national Islamic schools and other school settings in this developing nation, focusing primarily on their lived experiences as teachers of the English language in those settings. Kouritzin (2000)
suggests that life history research provides “possibilities for going beyond the conventional notions of what constitutes useful knowledge, for brushing with the muted subjectivities of those we research, and for revealing the transmutation of unobservable experience” (p. 30). With the assistance of a number of colleagues who have vast experiences teaching in such settings, it is hoped that this longitudinal research project will end after about a decade of collecting the stories of participants and co-constraining narratives (between the participants and myself) to unveil their feelings, experiences and aspirations (Pavlenko, 2007) together with their hopes for the future. This is to help paint the real picture of becoming and being English language teachers in Malay-Muslim majority Malaysia. The idea is that this effort would allow me to observe the trajectories that these teachers take and the choices that they make as part of their ‘life journey’ as English teaching professionals (Adnan, 2014). The life journey of individuals “can lead to different crossroads of identities; … that require real decisions to be made that will have an impact on their lives” (Adnan, 2014, p. 255).

In researching the teaching of English in second language situations, Vásquez (2011) makes a clear distinction between narrative inquiry and narrative analysis. She posits that narrative inquiry privileges “autobiographical big stories, or researcher-elicited narratives” whilst the focus of narrative analysis “is on the specific details of small stories (i.e., stories told in everyday conversational contexts)” (p. 536). Whilst this research paper does not aim to bring into question the notions of ‘big’ and ‘small’ stories, it is suffice to say that the research managed to collect, and continue to collect to this day, both big and small stories of “ephemeral narratives emerging in everyday, mundane contexts” (Watson, 2007, p. 371). This is done with the final aim to observe the identity trajectories that the participants take and the choices they make as part of their professional life journey. Within the limits of this paper, my focus will be on the stories shared by two Bumiputera Malay-Muslim English language teachers who work in privately operated national Islamic schools. Whether big or small, the everyday stories (i.e., narratives) told by these participants allowed me to build a huge body of textual data (Barkhuizen, 2010) that was managed and analysed to depict the developing and ever-changing natures of their language identity and professional identity.

**Data collection procedures and managing the ‘quality’ of data**

Drawing on ‘thick’ data (Geertz, 1973) from face-to-face periodic interview sessions (that became infrequent as time passed), written narrative accounts, informal online communication through online social networks and also informal exchanges through mobile networks, this research project deals with the highs and lows as it were, of becoming and being an English language teacher within privately operated national Islamic schools in Malaysia. These research instruments were adopted and adapted to fit with the extended period of data collection with a heavy focus on informal exchanges to make up for the lesser frequency of face-to-face meetings as years passed. Informal exchanges, however, do not detract from the usability of data because the research has come to an understanding with the participants from the outset: communication exchanges with them will be recorded, collated and analysed for the purposes of this longitudinal project. My personal reflections on our exchanges are also shared with the participants on an ongoing basis so that we are able to co-constraining the extensive narrative (i.e., qualitative) data record that has been built throughout the last five years. This transparency also helped me to comprehend the most accurate meanings of stories shared by the two participants, due to the fact...
that they are able to comment on my comments and to offer amendments to, and alternative interpretations of, my understanding of their stories.

All of the above contributed to managing the ‘quality’ of my data collection framework and qualitative data analysis. Lincoln and Guba’s (2000) construct of ‘trustworthiness’ was another measure to improve the quality of my thick and extensive textual data record. For Lincoln and Guba (1985), a qualitative inquiry must conform to the notion of trustworthiness to ensure its quality and future value as a product of empirical research. As a complete quality management framework, trustworthiness can be divided into four constructs: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These are comparable to the quantitative notions of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity.

**Background information on the two research participants**

Having crossed the middle point of this longitudinal project, the shared stories and co-constructed narratives (between the participants and myself) reflected the feelings, experiences and aspirations of my two research participants: one female and one male Bumiputera Malay-Muslim English language teachers. This article looks back at the last five years of their professional lives together with their hopes for the future. The female teacher, ‘Ikmal’ (pseudonym), is 46 years of age and married with four teenage children. She holds a teaching diploma from a local teacher training college and is currently teaching English at a primary level privately-run national Islamic school in northern Peninsular Malaysia. The male teacher, ‘Azman’ (pseudonym), is currently 41 years old and married with three children. He does not hold a formal teaching qualification but graduated with a business management degree from a local university a few years back. At the time of writing, Azman is also in the midst of submitting his thesis for an educational management master’s degree that he funded on his own. He is currently teaching English at a secondary level privately-run national Islamic school also located in northern Peninsular Malaysia. Whilst Ikmal has been teaching at the same school for the last five years, this is Azman’s second teaching post after taking some time off work to finish his first degree that he did on a part-time basis (that he also self-funded). Both of these participants are family friends; over the years, this fact certainly helped when it came to eliciting data through the informal channels mentioned in the preceding subsection.

It should also be mentioned that this article focuses on privately-run Islamic schools for two reasons. First, it is easier to liaise with these schools (for short-term field visits, for instance) compared to government-funded national religious schools that have very strict access regulations. Second, it is interesting to investigate these schools given the fact that they continue to be seen as problems to be managed within the Malaysian Islamic Education system, although Malay-Muslim parents continue to send their primary aged children and secondary aged teenagers to such schools around the country. The next section presents the most salient stories from the last five years in the professional lives of Ikmal and Azman, focusing directly on their multiple identity narratives as part of their life journey as English language teachers within the Malaysian Islamic religious school system.

**Five years in the professional lives of ‘Ikmal’ and ‘Azman’**

Apart from open ended interview questions and a number of narrative short essay tasks to be completed by the participants from time to time, no research or guiding questions constrained
this life history narrative project. This is also to ensure that the focus is firmly put on the participants and whatever stories that they wished to share with the researcher. My overarching objective is to collect, analyse and retell stories regarding English language teaching in national Islamic schools, as experienced by the two participants over an extended period of time. That said, it is not possible to retell all the stories that Ikmal and Azman have shared within the spatial limits of this research article. Due to this caveat, only stories or ‘life episodes’ (Adnan, 2013b) that are very profound and meaningful to the two participants, in the last five years of their professional lives, are retold in this section.

Whilst there are several equally engaging ways to present the textual data record that was built throughout the last five years, this section will focus on three prominent life episodes to make sense of the professional lives of both Ikmal and Azman (one for the former and two for the latter). The emphasis is on periods and happenings that led to profound changes, construction and reconstruction of their language and professional identities as perceived by both Ikmal and Azman, and confirmed by critical analysis of the qualitative data record (i.e., stories) that we co-constructed.

_Ikmal’s ‘School Idol’ event in 2011_

This subsection begins with Ikmal’s profound life episode as an English teacher in ‘Seri Islamic Primary School’ (pseudonym). Having completed her teaching diploma from a local teacher training college some years back, Ikmal spent a few years taking care of her parents as the eldest child in the family. After her mother passed on, followed by her father about a year later, she decided to reignite her passion for teaching and landed a job at Seri Islamic Primary School. Being “a bit religious but also very idealistic as a human being” (Ikmal, 2011, periodic interview session), she shared her personal teaching philosophy:

> For me, teachers shouldn’t just teach grammar, vocabulary, tenses or whatever. For me, I must make my students fall in love with English. You know? They must eat, drink, dream English [laughs]. But seriously, even more so because my students are a bit weak. In this school, the students don’t focus too much on English so I need to force them to open their minds. (Ikmal, 2011, periodic interview session)

As part of her personal mission “to open [young] minds”, Ikmal became the project manager to select Seri Islamic Primary School teacher and student ‘Idsols’. In truth, it was just her way to rebrand what the school had been doing for years – to choose the most popular teachers, the best students and to give out other kinds of ‘fun awards’ as a way to motivate both the teachers and students in that school. Furthermore, in recent years, the Malaysian Idol music competition garnered a strong following by younger Malaysians. Ikmal believed that her own ‘Seri Idol’ competition would gain the same strong following for years to come. Little did Ikmal know that her rebranding exercise would be construed in a “seriously perverted and idiotic way” (Ikmal, 2012, informal exchange through mobile network). Once the prize giving ceremony was completed and all the Seri Islamic Primary School ‘Idsols’ for 2011 were chosen, as norm in Malaysian working organisations, a so-called post-mortem meeting was conducted by the Headmistress of that school and also to formally end the year. Ikmal was really excited because 2012 was around the corner and she hoped that she would be in charge of more such projects in
the future. In addition, the event was a rousing success with students in the school, adding to Ikmal’s sense of personal achievement as an English language teacher. In her own words:

But, you know what happened? It was like the Muslim extremists took time to read the English dictionary to fire me for using the word ‘idol’ for my event. It’s like I was asking the kids to worship false idols. They said idol worship was only during the Pharaoh’s time, during [prophet] Musa’s time. They said many nasty things. And, you know what? They’re just the normal teachers, not the Agama Islam [Islamic Studies] teachers. (Ikmal, 2012, periodic interview session)

What made Ikmal even more upset was the lack of support from her peers in the language department. At that time, there were six language teachers in that school, including herself. She re-lived her experience in the meeting room, “the Malay teacher, the Arabic and even the other English teacher – they just kept quiet and looked down. Nobody fought for me. I’ll remember their faces ‘til I die, I won’t forget what happened” (Ikmal, 2012, periodic interview session). As a result of her very negative experience, Ikmal turned down future offers to lead such events, even though Seri Islamic Primary School Idol received positive feedback from many students and their parents. About a year after that fateful day, when asked to reflect back on her experience, Ikmal had this to say:

The most I do now is just help with any programmes that the others want to do. It’s easier because it’s less heart breaking [laughs]. And, I feel a few people here [other teachers] are typical Malays who just complain and criticise, especially when talking about English. The Islamic [education] teachers and the management are okay. Only those who think they’re so religious seem to have problem with me. Oh well, I’m still smiling and also life goes on, right? (Ikmal, 2013, periodic interview session)

Ikmal believes that the English language is neither a problem nor a threat to most teachers in her school. In fact, she is proud of the fact that her own students are beginning to learn English more actively and they seem to enjoy doing English language learning activities inside and outside of her classroom. “The real threat”, according to Ikmal, “is the few extremist Taliban teachers who like to talk a lot and they also control the minds of my colleagues. My colleagues do not want to react to them because these extremists are just too controlling” (Ikmal, 2012, written narrative account). Owing to these reasons, it became difficult for her to promote English at school-wide level without having to face the minority extremist teachers group. She thinks that they do not hate English per se but they are unable “to separate English from whatever crazy sinful things their dim-witted minds think English speakers do” (Ikmal, 2012, written narrative account). The fact that these extremist teachers are teaching in an Islamic school further exacerbates matters and makes it doubly difficult for an English teacher like Ikmal to dispense her duties outside of the confines of her own English language classroom.

**Azman’s appointment as Head of Department in 2013**

Both Ikmal and Azman teach in large schools with a sizeable number of students. This reality, however, comes with a number of managerial challenges. As an English teacher in ‘Ummah Islamic Secondary School’ (pseudonym), Azman incidentally is the only male teacher in a language department with nine teachers, including himself. “Maybe they think I’m a man so
they asked me to become the Head to lead others. So, I just accepted it because I thought well, maybe I can do some good things for this school” (Azman, 2013, periodic interview session), he recounted his experience. As the leader of the language team, he initiated a number of language enrichment programmes especially for English. According to Azman:

Actually, we must focus much more on English because our students are already focusing on Arabic and Malay [in daily contexts]. Malay is our mother tongue. As for Arabic, it’s the medium for teaching the Islamic stream subjects. Sadly, English is always a problem for some of the very weak students. … It’s like fighting a losing battle. We teachers know they’ll still fail in their English subject, no matter how hard we pushed them. (Azman, 2013, periodic interview session)

So, even though he was chosen as the leader for the language team, Azman became frustrated when it comes to promoting the learning of English in Ummah Islamic Secondary School. For him, the public and members of the government in power are being unfair when they continue to blame English language teachers in Malaysia for the slow decline in proficiency levels. “The problem”, Azman wrote, “is that these people do not want to look at the bigger picture but they just blame us teachers. They are blind! They cannot see the truth regarding this eternal annoyance [with reference to English language education]” (Azman, 2013, written narrative account). When asked to offer his view on what is really happening in Malaysian secondary classrooms, Azman wrote a sharp commentary in early 2014:

I also think some Malay students have an ‘attitude problem’. Not just in my school but other teachers are saying the same thing. Of course in my school it is worse because students prefer to put more effort on Arabic than English. … A few very weak students do not care at all when it comes to English. They even said they do not care if they failed English. For them, bahasa Melayu [Malay language] and Arabic are more important. This is the honest truth. (Azman, 2014, written narrative account)

Even though Azman added that this “attitude problem” is more evident in weaker students compared to diligent ones, his observations are worth mentioning because they challenge the Malaysian society’s view that English language teachers from Islamic schools do not care about the language. He also finds it unfair that some parents think that English teachers in Islamic schools are poorly trained and thus unable to deliver English lessons in a productive and meaningful manner. At Ummah Islamic Secondary School, all of the teachers in the school support the learning of English or, at the very least, they do not openly reject and criticise anything and everything that relates to that international language (as what Ikmal must endure in Seri Islamic Primary School). Azman puts it this way:

Maybe the weaker students who say they hate English it’s really because they can’t score in this subject? Also, maybe they find it hard to focus on three languages because their focus is more on Malay and Arabic. … Whatever the reason, I won’t give up. God willing, me and the others we’ll work harder to achieve zero failure in English. That’s the real spirit of an English educator, right? (Azman, 2013, periodic interview session)
Azman’s career choice ‘crisis’ in 2014

Like Ikmal, Azman also believes that he has answered his true calling to be an English Language Teaching (ELT) professional. Though he trained to become a businessperson and manager, Azman feels that his life became more meaningful when he is able to instil in his students a love for English. Sadly, his passion for the teaching profession was not shared by most of his friends and even his own siblings. Looking back to late 2014, Azman remembered feeling like he was “the baa baa black sheep” (2015, informal exchange through online platform) during a reunion weekend with his classmates. Azman spent his secondary years in an elite Malaysian boarding school located in central Peninsular Malaysia. In his own words:

Of course I can’t compare to my classmates in terms of status, money or power. For heaven’s sake, I chose to become a teacher—lah! They are engineers, doctors, accountants, whatever. … But, I feel down when they joked about teaching. They also joked about the Islamic school thing. They said why teach English when I can be an Ustaz [Islamic instructor] and go to heaven when I die? What they said really hurt my feelings. (Azman, 2015, periodic interview session)

To add to his frustration with his career choice to teach English in an Islamic school, Azman also faced the same kind of jokes and putdowns whenever he met his four siblings; all of them are professionals with high salary and status. When asked to share his deepest emotions with regards to his career choice, he admitted that sometimes he just wanted to shut people up. But, once in a while, he will start to question himself whether he had made the right choices to face the future and his “upcoming old age period just waiting in a few years” (Azman, 2015, periodic interview session). For him, choosing to teach English in an Islamic school was a conscious choice he made as a way to challenge and change himself. According to Azman:

People ask me why [teach] English? I said, “Why not?” I’ve always loved English. I love reading Enid Blyton, I love English words and I think English broadens our mind because the language is international. And, I really wanted a challenge. What is more challenging than teaching this old language in an Islamic school? Also, when everyone around you is religious, well maybe you’ll become a bit religious too [laughs]. (Azman, 2015, periodic interview session)

In addition to wanting to become “a bit religious”, Azman also wanted exposure to Arabic language because he plans to bring his family to the Middle East where he will teach English there up to his retirement age. He strongly feels, that “languages open our eyes to the real world and we can learn new things that we can teach others. … It’s a win-win and win more situation for me. Too bad that people around me just don’t get it” (2015, informal exchange through online platform). Hence, even if he continues to face some degree of disrespect from the people around him due to this career decision, he firmly believes that they should not be too quick to judge his choices. For him:

The more I think about the choices I made, this is actually my life and others are not me. Lately, I feel wonderful and at peace. I think I have made the best decision for myself to become a teacher and to teach English… even if some of my students don’t like to learn this language. Well, living is about challenging ourselves to make real changes to the
world. And this thing that I am doing right now, is my small contribution to the world” (Azman, 2016, written narrative account).

Conclusion
For the last five years, the stories shared by Ikmal and Azman charted the ups and downs of their professional lives and changes in their identities, part of which are presented as thick data (Geertz, 1973) in this article. For Ikmal, even though she teaches in the conservative Seri Islamic Primary School with a few ‘extremist’ teachers who perceived English language teaching and learning as a problem and a threat due to their own misconceptions, she still appreciates her life as an English teacher and the challenges that come with it. Ikmal is easily the most popular teacher in Seri Islamic Primary School who goes the extra mile to make English a part of her students’ lives. Nevertheless, the loud voices of the small minority extremist teachers (who interestingly are not Islamic education teachers or instructors that common sense dictate might oppose all things related to the English language) make it difficult for Ikmal to spread the joys of learning and using English to all students in that school. The situation in Seri Islamic Primary School is perhaps a reflection of the distorted beliefs of some members of the Malay-Muslim majority group that view the teaching and learning of English as a threat to the Malay language or bahasa Melayu, as the national language of Malaysia (for deeper understanding of the Malaysian majority language context, see Adnan 2005; Mohd-Asraf, 2004, 2005).

In the case of Azman, even if he sometimes feels that he had made the wrong career choice, he also feels blessed to be working in the forward-looking Ummah Islamic Secondary School with other teachers who are supportive and ever-willing to help to promote the learning of English on a bigger scale. The difficulties that he had faced throughout the last five years of his professional life only served to confirm his strong belief in “the real spirit of [becoming and being] an English educator” (Azman, 2013, periodic interview session). Ilias and Adnan (2014) noted such strong positive beliefs in other English language teachers who work in the same educational context (i.e., privately-run Malaysian Islamic school). This suggests that it is not quite fair to put the blame squarely on the shoulders of English teachers in Islamic schools regarding the declining standards of English attainment in such schools. Organisational factors cited by Ikmal and the challenges of learning Malay, English and Arabic at the same time as Azman observed in his students, must be taken into account to understand what is really happening in national Islamic schools.

As aforementioned, the most difficult challenge that Azman must face every single school day is to ensure that all students in Ummah Islamic Secondary School finish their secondary education with, at the very least, an average command of English and without failing this important academic subject. Again, the negative views that a minority group of students in his school share, regarding the teaching and learning of English, is possibly a replication of the distorted beliefs of some quarters of the Malay-Muslim majority group in Malaysia (see, Adnan, 2013a; Ismail, Albatsya & Azhar, 2015). Though small in number, the domineering voices of the ‘Ultra Malays’ (Adnan, 2013b) make it seem as if all Malays are against the teaching and learning of English when this applies only to a small minority. The problem is made worse when some of Azman’s students choose to focus their attention on the Arabic and Malay languages that seem more useful to them not just in school but also when they proceed to tertiary education. Yet, as explained in the beginning of this research, not all students who complete their secondary
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Education in Islamic schools will be able to continue in the same stream at tertiary level due to stiff competition and the government’s focus on offering more and more science and technology-based diplomas and degrees where English proficiency is paramount.

In truth, the stories shared by both Ikmal and Azman might not be that peculiar within the Malaysian education system. The day-to-day challenges that both of them continue to face, are faced not just by Azman and Ikmal but also a number of teachers who teach English, especially to the Bumiputera Malay-Muslim majority group with Malay language as their mother tongue. This is not to propose that a decline in English language proficiency is a uniquely Bumiputera Malay-Muslim problem but to illustrate that the Malaysian ‘English language dilemma’ will continue to be debated for years to come. Most importantly, this empirical study is a direct challenge on the predominant negative beliefs regarding (privately-run) Islamic schools within the Malaysian education system. Surely, Seri Islamic Primary School and Ummah Islamic Secondary School are not merely problem schools to be managed within the Malaysian Islamic Education system. For instance, from the many stories shared by both Ikmal and Azman, there is a need to acknowledge that there are stumbling blocks to the teaching and learning of English in such schools. At the same time, the dedication and dynamism shown by these two English language teachers, and indeed other English teachers in their Islamic schools, bring hope to once and for all resolve the perennial English language dilemma that continues to be the bane of the Malaysian education system.

About the author
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References


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Mohd Adnan


Foreign Language Learning Anxiety: The Case of Trilinguals

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Abstract
The current study is motivated by the dearth of research regarding trilingualism and its relationship with foreign language anxiety (FLA) especially in a bilingual and diglossic context. The present study reports on the FLA level in an underexplored context of seventy-three male and female Arabic-and French-speaking university trilingual students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in Tunisia. It also examines the main sources of the participants’ anxiety. Using data from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), analyses revealed that the English learners experienced low to average amounts of FLA. Worry about failing English class, apprehension about speaking in English, and anxiety related to the classroom were identified as major sources of FLA. No association was found between gender and FLA. This study found a significant negative relationship between students’ level of FLA and their exam scores. Implications for language teaching are offered.

Keywords: EFL, language anxiety, trilinguals, Tunisia

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Introduction
Considerable research explores the main causes of foreign language anxiety (FLA) and their effects on language learners (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Ohata, 2005; Pappamichail, 2002; Williams & Andrade, 2008; Young, 1991) with the hope of aiding students with this problem and to improve their language acquisition (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012). FLA may significantly hinder second language (L2) acquisition (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furham, 2008; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Williams & Andrade, 2008). Arnold and Brown (1999) maintain that FLA may be the most pervasive obstacle to language learning. To date, as Arnaiz and Guillén (2012) indicate, FLA continues to exist in the classroom despite advances in methodology and teaching techniques likely due to its complexity. FLA’s complexity stems from the fact that it involves several variables, which can result in anxiety-inducing situations. Williams and Andrade (2008) argue that there are two major groups of variables: situational variables such as course level, and learner variables such as age and gender. Other researchers argue that FLA is a “situation-specific” anxiety, which occurs in a particular type of situation (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012, p.171). Santos, Cenoz, and Gorter (2015) assert that anxiety is a complex phenomenon that is connected to a specific language learning context. Research about FLA in different language learning contexts should therefore continue as long as its characteristics and features remain sketchy (Dewaele & Al-Saraj, 2015).

The bulk of research conducted on FLA has involved predominantly monolingual learners of English, Japanese, and Spanish (Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012). Research about FLA involving bilingual speakers learning a third language has been scant. Horwitz (2001) believes that FLA may vary in different cultural groups. Her position is supported by Liu and Huang (2011), who consider the variation as a situation-specific construct; one which differs in different learning environments. Learners from different contexts have differing levels of anxiety (Thompson & Lee, 2014).

Tunisia presents an interesting linguistic context since it is both diglossic and bilingual (Bouzemni, 2005). Diglossia refers to the existence of two varieties of the same language: standard and colloquial Arabic (Versteegh, 2001). The two varieties are different at the levels of “vocabulary, phonology, syntax, and grammar” (Abu-Rabia, 2000, p. 147). Children often perceive standard Arabic as a foreign language (Abu-Rabia, 2000) because it is linguistically distant from the variety of Arabic they speak outside class. Bilingualism in Tunisia involves the use of both Arabic and French. Tunisian students learn standard Arabic and simultaneously learn and use French (Bouzemni, 2005). To the best of the author’s knowledge, no research has been conducted concerning FLA in Tunisia. Thus, the present study fills this gap in research by exploring the FLA level among Tunisian trilingual students learning EFL. It also examines the relationship between FLA and gender, and language performance.

Literature review
Foreign language anxiety
MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) define FLA as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with L2 contexts including speaking, listening, and learning.” (p.284). Horwitz et al. (1986) define the phenomenon of FLA as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest three types
of anxiety proven to be major sources of FLA: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is “a type of shyness characterized as fear of, or anxiety about communicating with people” (p. 127). It refers to an individual’s level of anxiety when interacting with other speakers. A number of studies suggest that communication apprehension is a major source of anxiety (Al-Saraj, 2014; Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012; Horwitz et al., 1986; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Young, 1990). Test anxiety is defined by Horwitz et al. (1986) as “the type of performance anxiety resulting from a fear of failure in an academic evaluation setting” (p. 127). It refers to anxiety that learners may experience in an exam situation. Several researchers report that tests are anxiety provoking (Koch & Terrell, 1991; Ohata, 2005; Young, 1991). Fear of negative evaluation refers to the “apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128). Negative evaluation involves fear from being evaluated in any setting, not just the classroom. It also involves the fear of being evaluated by the instructor as well as by peers, as reported by previous research (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1986; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Kao & Craigie, 2010; Lu & Liu, 2011). Young (1991) contends that learners tend to experience classroom anxiety caused by different factors including learner and teacher beliefs about language learning, teacher-learner nature of interactions, and classroom management. The emphasis on the role of teacher as either a facilitator or a major source of anxiety is also supported in the conclusions reached by other researchers (Abu-Rabia, 2004; Al-Saraj, 2014; Brantmeier, 2005; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). There is growing evidence in the literature that a correlation exists between FLA and language performance.

The next section discusses the relationship between FLA and language performance followed by a brief review of selected variables related to FLA.

**FLA and Language Performance**

The different types of language anxiety are found to have a negative impact on language achievement. Many of the studies exploring the relationship between FLA and language performance reveal a negative correlation between FLA and language performance (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 2001; Kao & Craigie, 2010; Lu & Liu, 2011). In other words, language performance tends to decline as learners’ anxiety level increases.

A study involving ESL students in China has found that those who exhibit high anxiety levels achieve low scores in English achievement tests (Shao, Yu, & Ji, 2013). Other studies report a negative correlation between FLA and specific language skills such as speaking (Park & Lee, 2005), and reading (Zhang & Kim, 2014).

**Variables Associated with FLA**

Although it is empirically hard to prove a cause/effect relationship between FLA and specific causes, many researchers believe that variables such as gender and multilingualism can have an effect on FLA.

**FLA and gender**

The role of gender in FLA has also been the topic of many studies; these studies yield mixed results. Campbell and Shaw’s (1994) investigation have as its subjects, adult students learning Spanish, German, Russian, and Korean at the Defense Language Institute in California. Their
survey reveals that female students have lower levels of anxiety than males. MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Donovan (2002) also report lower levels of FLA among female university students. Their survey shows that male students experience a higher degree of English reading anxiety than females. Other studies offer opposite results. Park and French (2013) describe higher levels of FLA among female students learning English in South Korea than their male counterparts. The authors cite sociocultural factors as the chief reason for higher levels of FLA among females. They argue that in a male-dominated society where females are expected to take a submissive role, females tend to be stressed out when asked to express their personal thoughts. Some researchers do not report any significant difference between the level of FLA among male and female learners. In a study involving English-major students in Japan, Matsuda and Gobel (2004) report that both males and females experience similar levels of FLA. The same results are corroborated by other studies (Aida, 1994; Dewaele et al., 2008, Elkhafaifi, 2005; Kao & Craigie, 2010). While gender has been the subject of many studies, the role of multilingualism in FLA has not received enough attention from researchers.

**Anxiety and multilingualism**

Some of the few studies that examine FLA in a bilingual and/or multilingual context cite the number of languages as a contributing factor for differences. In a study of 600 FL students and 163 foreign language (FL) instructors, Levine (2003) has found that students from bilingual or multilingual backgrounds experience less anxiety than students from monolingual backgrounds. Dewaele (2007) asserts that trilinguals and quadrilinguals have lower levels of FLA in their L2 when compared to bilinguals. More recent research has provided evidence for the positive effect of multilingualism on reducing anxiety. Korean university students learning English demonstrate a higher level of proficiency in French or Chinese with lower levels of anxiety in English than students with lower levels of proficiency in the same languages, as demonstrated by Thompson and Lee (2013). Their experiment is replicated by Thompson and Khawaja (2015) who, in their study of Turkish university students, report that multilingual learners of English have lower levels of anxiety than their bilingual peers. Other researchers argue that a logical assumption would be that bilingual learners who know more than one language may be less anxious than monolinguals because they have already gone through the experience of learning a new language, and therefore, have become better at learning additional languages (Dewaele, 2007). The acquisition of additional languages gives multilinguals a broader linguistic repertoire and more experience as language learners (Cenoz, 2013). Dewaele (2007) reports that quadrilinguals and trilinguals experience lower levels of FLA in their L2 when compared to bilinguals. Dewaele (2010) attributes this to the fact that trilinguals and quadrilinguals have acquired better communication skills due to their multilingualism. However, Santos et al. (2015), believe the evidence is still limited. Obviously, there is a need to further explore the relationship between FLA and multilingualism in different contexts.

**Purpose of the Study**

The present study examines levels of FLA among male and female Tunisian trilinguals, and the main sources of their anxiety. It also explores the relationship between FLA and language performance. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the level of FLA among Tunisian trilinguals?
2. Do male and female trilinguals experience similar anxiety levels?
3. What are the major sources of foreign language anxiety among bilingual English language learners?

4. Is there a relationship between FLA as measured by the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLACS) and the participants’ language performance?

**Method**

**Participants**

Participants in the present study were seventy-three Tunisian students, 52 females and 21 males. Their ages ranged from 19 to 23. Of the seventy-six participants, 24 were enrolled in lower intermediate, 37 in intermediate, and 12 in upper intermediate courses of English as a foreign language (EFL) at a public university in Tunisia. Participants were trilinguals, speaking Arabic and French as well as English. Both Arabic and French are used as a medium of instruction. Most Tunisian students begin learning French at age seven. Participants of this study began learning French at the age of seven. It is commonly mixed with colloquial Arabic in everyday conversation. The students typically engage in code mixing and switching. Because of the strong presence of French in government institutions due to historical reasons (Tunisia was a former French colony), there are very few opportunities for Tunisian students to practice English outside of class.

**Instruments**

Two separate questionnaires were used in the study. The first one is a background questionnaire that was designed to elicit participant information about age, gender, course level, and year in college. The second questionnaire is an adaptation of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The phrase foreign language was replaced with English language because participants in the current study were learning EFL. FLCAS is a self-reported measure of students’ anxiety in the foreign language classroom designed by Horwitz et al. (1986). It is the most commonly used scale to measure language anxiety in the classroom. It consists of 33 statements. Each item on the scale is rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). The mean scores in the FLCAS range from 33 to 165, with lower scores indicating lower anxiety while higher scores indicate higher anxiety. Twenty-four of the items are positively worded; nine are negatively worded. The scale has been shown to be reliable with an alpha coefficient of .90 and above, even in recent studies (Sevinç & Dewaele, 2016; Thompson & Khawaja, 2015). In the present investigation, the FLACS had a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient reliability index of .91, which makes its use very reliable. The survey measure was pilot-tested with 23 students prior to the onset of this study experiment.

**Procedure**

The participants completed both the FLCAS as well as the background questionnaire. The instruments were constructed online using Google documents. However, about a quarter of the participants who had no access to the internet were handed hard copies. All participants’ names and exam scores were kept confidential. To measure language performance, the final course grade was collected at the end of the semester to examine possible significant correlation between language anxiety and language performance. All students received a score between 0 and 100. Previous studies (Aida, 1994; Horwitz & Young, 1991; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009) have used final course grades as global measures of foreign language performance.
Data analysis
In order to analyze the data, descriptive statistics (i.e., means and standard deviations) were used to summarize participants’ responses. Eight items (2, 5, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28 and 32), which were negatively worded, were reverse-coded so that a high score represented high anxiety. An independent t-test was performed to examine the difference between the FLCAS scores of male and female students. The Pearson correlation analysis was performed to test the relationships between the FLACS and language performance. Pearson correlation was also computed between the total FLACS score and English language performance to determine the relationship between them. Statistical significance for all analyses was set at an alpha level of .05.

Results
This section presents the findings for each research question. 

Research Question 1: What is the level of FLA among Tunisian trilinguals?
To measure the level of FLA among the participants of this study, means and deviations for participants’ responses to each FLACS item were calculated (see Table 1). The mean language anxiety score for the seventy-three participants was 90.49 (SD = 20.84). As displayed in Table 2, the range of scores in the present study was 37-134. Following Arnaiz and Guillén's (2012) scale, participants had three levels of anxiety. The overwhelming majority of students (87%) experienced low to average levels of FLA. About 30% had low levels of anxiety and about 60% experienced medium levels of anxiety. Less than 10% of students suffered from a high level of anxiety (see Table 2). An independent t-test showed that there were no gender differences for FLACS (t(71) = 1.378, p = ns).

Table 1 FLA scores on FLCAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.*</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.*</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the English course.</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.*</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.</td>
<td>3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.*</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>I often feel like not going to my language class.</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.*</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.</td>
<td>2.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.*</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.*</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.*</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Level of FLA</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33-79</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>30.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-117</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>60.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118-134</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Items are reverse-coded*

Research Question 2: Do male and female trilinguals experience similar anxiety levels?

The descriptive statistics associated with male and female participants’ FLCAS scores are reported in Table 3. The male group (N =21) was associated with a smaller mean (M = 85.24). The female group (N =52) group was associated with the higher mean (M = 92.62). Multiple linear regression was calculated to predict participants’ FLA (dependent variable) based upon their gender (independent variable). Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure there was no violation of the assumption of normality, linearity and multicollinearity. No significant regression was found \( \beta = .161, t(71) = 0.138, p > 0.05, \) with \( R^2 = .026, R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .012 \). Based on these results, gender was not a significant predictor of FLA among participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>85.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>92.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>90.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question 3: What are the major sources of foreign language anxiety among bilingual English language learners?

Analysis of individual items revealed that 10 out of the 33 items were found to have a mean score larger than 3.0, which is the cut off score for high anxiety level. Three major sources of anxiety for both male and female participants emerged from the FLACS items analysis. First, worry about failing their English language class was a primary source of FL anxiety (\( M=3.77, SD= 1.27 \)) as indicated by item 10, which was highest among all items. Results show that 75.3% of participants agreed or strongly agreed with this item. Worrying about grades may explain why participants felt anxious about their English class even if they were well prepared (item 16, \( M = 3.22, SD= 1.39 \)).
A second source of anxiety is related to ‘oral communication anxiety’ as indicated by three items (20, 24, and 33). Participants reported apprehension about communicating in English in class as a result of their fears of being negatively evaluated by their teacher and peers. Speaking in front of the English instructor (Item 24) is perceived to be one of the biggest source of anxiety ($M=3.36$, $SD=1.23$). Results show that 47.9% of participants agreed, and 15.1% strongly disagreed with this item.

Finally, anxiety related to the English classroom has also emerged as a source of anxiety as indicated by four items (6, 12, 15, 29, and 30). These items reflect learners’ concern of not being able to fully understand what the teacher was saying or correcting, and their concern about forgetting things ($item 12, M=3.41, SD=1.40$). They were also nervous about answering the instructor’s questions ($M=3.21, SD=1.34$).

Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between FLA as measured by the FLACS and the participants’ language performance?

In order to examine the relationship between FLA ($M=90.49$, $SD=20.84$) and participants’ English language performance ($M=62.74$, $SD=13.89$), Pearson correlation was calculated and reported in Table 4. Results of the analysis showed that there was a weak negative correlation between FLA and English language performance, $r=-0.270$, $n=73$, $p=0.021$. Students who experienced lower levels of foreign language anxiety tended to have higher language performance scores across the three course levels. The strength of this relationship, as indexed by eta², was found to be .63.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4Correlation between language anxiety and language performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.270*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Discussion

This section is devoted to the discussion of each of the research questions in light of the results obtained.

The first research question measured the level of FLA among trilinguals. It also examined any potential difference between the anxiety levels experienced by male and female participants. Participants were found to have an average level of anxiety overall ($M=91.47$, $SD=21.13$). Their level of FLA was similar to the level reported in previous research that involved monolingual learners of English (Arnaiz & Guillén 2012; Liu, 2006; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004) but used FLACS. Results corroborate the findings of other studies in the context of Japanese (Aida, 1994) and Spanish (Marcos-Llinás & Juan-Garau, 2009), even though the educational and demographic contexts are different. One potential explanation for the similarity of results may be that the
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The instrument used (FLACS) measures mainly anxiety linked to speaking situations, which arouse more anxiety among language learners than other situations (Aida, 1994). The anxiety level of the participants of the present investigation is lower than the one reported by Thompson and Khawaja (2015). Their study involved Turkish learners who experienced high levels of FLA in the four categories of FLCAS: English class performance anxiety; confidence with English; negative feelings towards English, and fear of ambiguity, whereas this experiment reports low to moderate levels of FLA.

Regarding the second research question related to anxiety levels and gender, the study found that male and female participants experienced similar levels of FLA. This outcome corroborates other findings in the literature (e.g., Aida, 1994; Dewaele & Al-Saraj, 2015; Dewaele et al., 2008; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). Thus, it refutes the stereotypes of males being self-confident and experiencing less anxiety compared to their female peers (Sylvén & Thompson, 2015). One way to explain this finding may be by referring to the special status that females enjoy in Tunisia. Some researchers argue that FLA is related to socio-educational and political factors (Dörnyei, 2005; Young, 1991). In a survey of Arab countries in 2009, Freedom House ranked Tunisia first in terms of women’s rights, freedom of person and political voice (Kerry & Breslin 2010), thanks to the historic promulgation of its progressive family law in 1956 (Charrad 2007). This law made it possible for Tunisian women to make life choices and pursue educational and professional opportunities not found in neighboring countries (Charrad & Zarrugh, 2013). According to estimates in 2010, more university students are female, and women constituted about 30% of the labor force. They hold positions in diverse sectors including judiciary, the army, engineering, and medicine (Ben Salem, 2010). These facts have empowered women in Tunisia and put them on a par with Western women. Their self-confidence is reflected in not experiencing higher levels of FLA than their male peers.

The third research question explored the major sources of FL anxiety among participants. The situation that made students feel most anxious was worry about failing their English class. Students were concerned about classroom performance. The results corroborate the findings of Santos et al. (2015) who reported that one of the primary factors of FL anxiety experienced by bilingual students (Spanish and Basque) was fear of failure. One possible explanation for this fear is that anxiety stems from the pressure that Tunisian families place on their children to do well in college. For many Tunisians, success at college brings a sense of pride to the family, and is also the only way to climb the socio-economic ladder. Another source of anxiety reported by the participants of this study is related to apprehension about speaking in English during class. This finding is similar to results reported by other studies (e.g., Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al., 1986; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Mak, 2011; Thompson & Lee, 2013). It is important to mention that participants of this study did not experience anxiety outside class. In fact, they showed confidence in their abilities to communicate with native speakers of English, as shown by item 32 (M = 2.21). This may explain why they rated item 5 (It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes) the lowest in terms of anxiety provoking situations. The results contradict the claim made by Thompson and Lee (2013) who suggest that “anxiety that results from interactions of native speakers is perhaps a universal phenomenon” (p. 744). The authors based their claim on two studies they had conducted, which indicate the existence of similar levels of anxiety with regards to interactions with native speakers regardless of the language being learned, or the cultural background of the student. A third source of anxiety that emerged
from this study is anxiety related to the English classroom. Students were concerned about not being able to understand their instructor. They were anxious about interacting with the instructor when answering questions. Students’ negative experience in the classroom was also reported as one of the underlying factors of FL anxiety by two studies of multilinguals (Thompson & Lee, 2013; Sylvén & Thompson, 2015).

The fourth research question explored the relationship between FLA and participants’ language performance. Results of the analysis demonstrated a significant small negative relationship between students’ level of anxiety and their exam scores. The relationship is the same across the three course levels. Students who experienced lower levels of foreign language anxiety tended to be high achievers while those who experienced higher levels of FLA tended to be low achievers. The finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1986; Gardner et al., 1997; Kao & Craigie, 2010; Lu & Liu, 2011). While no cause/effect relationship can be attributed between foreign language anxiety and language performance, the findings of her study suggest that FLA may be a salient problem and can impair language performance (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

Conclusion
This study examined the phenomenon of FLA among Tunisian trilinguals, which is an unexplored area of research. It is the first of its kind that dealt with the phenomenon of FLA among Tunisian learners of English in general and Tunisian trilinguals in particular. The findings showed that participants experienced average levels of FLA. Both males and females exhibited similar levels of anxiety. Worry about failing English class, apprehension about speaking in English, and anxiety related to the classroom were identified as major sources of FLA. Finally, this study found a significant correlation between FLA and language performance.

The findings of this study lend additional support to earlier evidence regarding the persistent presence of in-classroom anxiety. FLA is part and parcel of the academic environment; no student is immune from experiencing a certain level of anxiety so long as there is an evaluation system. Students will experience some form of language learning anxiety at one point or another in their language-learning process (Thompson & Lee, 2014). Sometimes anxiety can lead to positive outcomes (Dörnyei, 2005). The concern is that having too much anxiety certainly impedes academic success. The results of the present study demonstrate that anxiety may have negatively impacted students’ learning even though they reported being comfortable taking a foreign language and speaking to native speakers of English.

Implications
In the light of the findings set out in this study, some pedagogical implications are suggested. The data provided in this study show that one of the major sources of anxiety is related to the classroom. Thus, it becomes important to find ways to turn the classroom into a supportive learning environment where students feel safe to participate without the fear of making mistakes or the worry of being evaluated either by their teachers or their peers (Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012). Educators have recognized the important role played by the teacher in this regard (e.g., Horwitz et al. 1986; Price, 1991; Young, 1990) especially that teachers’ beliefs are linked to students’ fears. Horwitz et al. (1986) summarize the role of language educators when dealing with students who are anxious: “1) they can help them learn to cope with the existing anxiety-provoking situations, and 2) they can make the learning context less stressful” (p.131). The teacher plays a
major role in this regard. Teachers should be trained to detect sources of anxiety and to raise their awareness about the challenges that students face because of anxiety. As mentioned earlier, FLA is a complex phenomenon that involves many affective factors. Some teachers may not be able to play the role of a counselor. However, their awareness of sources of FLA related to teaching practices may prompt them to reconsider their way of interacting with students, and adopt appropriate instructional techniques to help create a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere (Vogely, 1998; Young, 1991). While the teacher’s responsibility is to devise appropriate teaching techniques to help reduce anxiety in the classroom, the students also have to find ways to reduce their anxiety. In fact, students should not hesitate to talk openly with their teachers and their peers about their feelings of anxiety as that can alleviate these feelings as suggested by Campbell and Ortiz (1991). Seeking help to better manage their anxiety is important.

Limitations and recommendations
The study has some limitations. First, it did not use a large sample size. A larger pool of participants may have yielded more information. Secondly, the study depended on quantitative analysis as the only method of data collection. Qualitative data, such as interviews or focus group discussions may have provided deeper insights about participants’ anxiety. Future research should involve students from different universities with different majors. The examination of other background variables such as: age, level of language proficiency, study abroad experience, and socio-economic status FLA could be the focus of future research. Furthermore, it would be interesting to examine students’ level of self-concept and its correlation with FLA. Many Tunisian students are learning a fourth language beside Arabic, French, and English. Research comparing the level of FLA between trilinguals and quadrilinguals, which is still an under-researched area in L2 acquisition, could yield interesting results. Given the special status of women in Tunisia, gender should continue to be the subject of research related to anxiety.

About the Author:
Dr. Elias Bensalem is currently a visiting assistant professor of at NBU. He is teaching English courses at the languages and translation department. His research interests include second language learning, educational technology, methodologies and practices in the teaching of foreign languages. He is the author of several articles related to language teaching and learning.

References


Foreign Language Learning Anxiety: The Case of Trilinguals


Language Learning Strategies, Motivation, and Writing Achievement of Indonesian EFL Students

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Abstract:
This study aims at investigating the correlation between language learning strategies (LLSs) and writing achievement, the correlation between motivation and writing achievement, and the correlation between LLSs combined with motivation and writing achievement. It involved one-hundred English as a foreign language (EFL) students of a senior high school which is located in a big city in Indonesia. The students were selected randomly to be the participants of this study. The data were collected by using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire, motivation questionnaire, and writing tests. The results of research revealed that the null hypotheses for the three correlational analyses were rejected. In other words, there is a significant correlation between LLSs and writing achievement; there is a significant correlation between motivation and writing achievement; and there is a significant correlation between LLSs combined with motivation and writing achievement. Theoretically, this study supports the important roles of LLSs and motivation, either separately or combined, in predicting writing achievement. Pedagogically, when teaching writing, EFL teachers are recommended to introduce the potential of LLSs to EFL students, arouse the students’ motivation to write, or to apply both of them simultaneously to boost EFL students’ writing achievement.

Keywords: Language learning strategies, motivation, writing achievement

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Introduction
Over the last twenty-five years there has been a growing amount of research on the use of language learning strategies (LLSs) to enhance students’ learning of second language (Rubin, 1987; Oxford, 1990; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). The idea behind the research on LLSs is to find out the LLSs performed by good language learners, so that other language learners could use the LLSs which have been proven effective to boost language learning. Researchers have also tried to elaborate factors that determine the choice of LLSs (e.g., Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Similarly, there has been a lot of research on the role of motivation in second/foreign language learning (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Crooked & Schmidt, 1989; Ramage, 1990; Shia, 1998). It has been understood from the research on motivation that language learners who have high motivation are likely to be more successful in learning a second language than those who have low motivation.

In the context of English as a foreign language (EFL), some research examining the relation between the use of LLSs or motivation and the learning of EFL has involved Chinese students (e.g., Chun-huan, 2010; Xu, 2011) and Taiwanese students (e.g., Chang & Liu, 2013; Chang, 2011). In Indonesia, research investigating LLSs or motivation in EFL writing in particular are difficult to find out. A research study was conducted by Setiyadi, Sukirlan, and Mahpul (2016). However, Setiyadi et al.’s research focused on identifying the LLSs employed by successful learners, following previous research on LLSs. They found that the students were able to decide the strategies which were appropriate with the specific language skills. In light of the scarcity of research on LLSs, motivation, and EFL writing in the Indonesian context, we aimed to investigate how LLSs, motivation, and combination of LLSs and motivation are correlated with writing achievement of Indonesian EFL students.

Literature Review
Several key definitions of learning strategies have been given by leading figures in the second and foreign language field, among others, Rubin (1987), O’Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1990). These researchers had the same voice that LLSs are important in enhancing students’ language learning. By employing the LLSs, the students are able to overcome their problems related to language learning tasks and to go through the difficulties in their learning. In other words, LLSs are what learners do to learn language and relate to their characteristics, learning skills, problem-solving skills, and learning achievement.

According to Oxford (1990), there are two kinds of strategies: direct and indirect strategies. LLSs that directly involve the target language are called direct strategies. These strategies include memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Meanwhile, the indirect strategies support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. These strategies include metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Although there are various kinds of strategies, as a whole, LLSs support and connect each other in developing students’ language skills.

The choice of LLSs is influenced by many factors (e.g., Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Cohen, 1998). The factors affecting the choice of LLSs are among others, level of language proficiency, gender, and motivation. Motivation, in particular, is regarded as the most important factor in determining success in language learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gardner, 1985). Accordingly, an increasing number of second language or foreign
language researchers indicated that both LLSs and motivation play important roles in successful language learning, which suggest a need to investigate the links between the two significant characteristics of learning (Ellis, 1994).

There are two kinds of motivation: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation is generally characterized by people having personal interest in doing something. Therefore, they do activities for their own sake and not because of an extrinsic reward. Intrinsically-motivated behaviors bring about internally rewarding consequences such as satisfactory feelings, improved competence and self-determination. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation derives from an anticipation of external rewards such as praise, awards, prizes, and evaluation. Extrinsically-motivated students do activities because of some rewards or avoidance of punishment.

Language learners attempt to gain certain goals; one of the most important goals is learning to write. Academic writing ability is particularly recognized as one of the most crucial aspects of language ability for successful academic achievement. However, it is also considered as the most difficult skill for EFL students to master. Since it is an active, productive skill, students learning to write in a foreign language face multiple challenges (Hyland, 2003; Erkan & Saban, 2011). Therefore, in the process of writing the students may make use of the LLSs so that they can get better result in completing their writing tasks. For example, Chand (2013) conducted a study on the relation between the use of LLSs and academic writing of Fiji tertiary students. He found that there is a weak positive correlation between strategy use and academic writing.

There are some studies which investigated the relationship between motivation and writing ability. A study conducted by Yuan-bing (2011) revealed that motivation, especially intrinsic motivation plays an important role in second language writing process. Besides, Afzal, Khan and Hamid (2010) who conducted a study on 324 Pakistan university students delineated that students’ extrinsic and intrinsic motivation has positive impact on their academic performance.

In addition, research studies proved that there is a close relationship between motivation and LLSs. Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) conducted research on motivation and strategy use among 2,089 learners of five different foreign languages at the University of Hawaii. The result showed that among the different types of LLSs, the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies was affected by motivation. Similarly, Xu (2011) found that Chinese graduates’ motivation was found significantly correlated with their learning strategy use. The more motivated students were the more strategies they tended to use. Chang and Liu (2013) found that the frequency of strategy use had a highly significant and positive correlation with motivation. The relationship of LLSs and motivation was also emphasized in the work of Bonney, Cortina, Smith-Darden et al. (2008).

It is apparent that there have been research studies on the relationship between LLSs and writing achievement, the relationship between motivation and academic writing, as well as the relation of motivation and the use LLSs. However, there has been no research study which examined the relationship of the three variables (LLSs, motivation, and writing achievement) involving Indonesian EFL students. Therefore, the study is directed to examine how LLSs, motivation, and writing achievement are related in the Indonesian EFL context.
motivation, or LLSs combined with motivation are related to writing achievement of Indonesian EFL students.

**Research Questions**

In light of the introduction and the literature review, this study aims at investigating the correlation between LLSs, motivation, as well as LLSs in combination with motivation, and writing achievement. The research questions study can be put forward as follows:

1. Is there any correlation between the use of LLSs and writing achievement of Indonesian EFL students?
2. Is there any correlation between motivation and writing achievement of Indonesian EFL students?
3. Is there any correlation between the use of LLSs combined with motivation and writing achievement of Indonesian EFL students?

**Method**

This study aims at finding out the correlation among LLSs, motivation, and writing achievement. It involved 100 eleven-grade students of a senior high school in Malang city, which is located in the province of East Java, Indonesia. The students were taken by using non-proportional stratified random sampling from the total number of 290 students. The participants represented the students from various programs: Natural Science, Social Science, Language, and Islamic Studies.

The data were obtained by using questionnaires and a writing test. There were two kinds of questionnaire distributed to the students. The first was the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire which was used to identify the students’ LLSs. The SILL questionnaire was developed by Oxford (1990: 293-297) and it was used in this study without modification. It contains 50 items and covers 6 categories of LLSs: Memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The second was motivation questionnaire which deals with students’ motivation in learning English, covering both intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation. Twenty items of motivational statements were adapted from Brown (2007) and Shia (1998) and used in this study (See Appendix A). In addition, a writing test was administered to measure students’ writing ability. In reference to the English syllabus for the eleven-grade students, the students were asked to write an analytical exposition essay of about 200 words on a currently popular topic: “Is social media good for us?” The students’ essays were scored by using scoring rubrics proposed by Jacobs, Zinkraf, Wormuth et al. (1981) consisting of five components: content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics (See Appendix B).

The completion of the questionnaires and the administration of the writing test occurred one after another in one session (90 minutes). Having been obtained, the data were transferred to a softfile for statistical analysis. A Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0 was used to analyze the data. The scores of the students can be seen in Appendix C.

Generally, the present study used .05 level of significance. Therefore, the computation of correlation with significant point less than .05 showed the rejection of null hypothesis. In other words, the alternative hypothesis was accepted and that the variables showed a statistically
significant correlation. On the other hand, if the significant point of computation showed greater than .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was accepted which means that there was no significant correlation between the variables.

A normality test was conducted to check the normal distribution of the variables. For the correlation analysis, since one of variables was not normally distributed, which is the writing achievement, the analysis of Spearman correlation was used in this study. The Spearman correlation assesses how well the relationship between two variables can be described using a monotonic function. Thus, the correlations between LLSs and writing achievement as well as between motivation and writing achievement were conducted in this study.

In addition, to see the correlation between multiple variables and a single variable, a regression analysis was used. When more than one variable are combined to correlate with a dependent variable, a multiple regression can be employed to analyze the data. A multiple regression (or a multiple correlation) is a statistical procedure for examining the combined relationship of multiple independent variables with a single dependent variable (Creswell, 2012: 349). In the present study the two combined variables (i.e., LLSs and motivation) were correlated with writing achievement by using multiple liner regression analysis.

Results

The results of the study were used to answer the research questions: the correlation between LLSs and writing achievement, the correlation between motivation and writing achievement, and the correlation between LLSs combined with motivation and writing achievement of Indonesian EFL students.

Before the data were analyzed, it was necessary to test the normality of the variables. A normality test is used to determine whether sample data have been drawn from a normally distributed population. The result of normality test of the three variables is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Parameters&lt;sup&gt;a, b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Extreme Differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 presents the result of normality test which was conducted by using One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. If the score of Asymp. Sig (2-tailed) of Kolmogorov-Smirnov is higher than the level of significance 0.05 (> 0.05), the variable is normally-distributed and vice versa. From the result of normality test above, it was clear that both LLSs and Motivation variables are normally distributed, since the score of Asymp. Sig (2-tailed) of them were 0.644...
and 0.634 respectively which were higher than 0.05. Meanwhile, the result of normality test of writing score is 0.000 which showed that it was lower than 0.05 (< 0.05). Thus, it could be concluded that the variable of writing score is not normally-distributed.

To examine the correlation between LLSs and writing achievement, Spearman correlation analysis was used in this study. This is because one of the correlated variables was not normally distributed. The result of correlation between LLSs and motivation is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlation between LLSs and writing achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LLSs</th>
<th>Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 2 shows the correlation coefficient of 0.374 which was higher than the r table (r_table = 0.197). It was also clear that the score of Sig. (2-tailed) is 0.000 which was lower than the significant level α = 0.05 (0.000 < 0.05). It leads to the rejection of null hypothesis which means that there is a significant correlation between LLSs and writing achievement. Meanwhile, as the result of the analysis on the correlation between motivation and writing achievement, the result of the statistical computation is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Correlation between motivation and writing achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

The Spearman’s rho analysis in Table 3 shows that the correlation coefficient of motivation and writing achievement was 0.356 which was higher than r table (r_table = 0.197). The score of Sig. (2-tailed) could be seen that it was also lower than the significant level α = 0.05 (0.000 < 0.05). It is apparent that the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted in which it indicated that there is a significant correlation between motivation and writing achievement.

For further analysis of the variables including LLSs, motivation, and writing achievement, a multiple regression analysis was employed. In this study, LLSs (x1) and
motivation (x2) as the independent variables are correlated with writing achievement (y) as the dependent variable. The result of ANOVA test can be shown in Table 4.

Table 4. ANOVA test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>164.792</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>82.396</td>
<td>16.03</td>
<td>.000b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>498.598</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>5.140</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>663.390</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Writing  
b. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, LLSs

The ANOVA test revealed that the F score is 16.03. Meanwhile, the F distribution table with the significant level α = 0.05 is $F_{0.05;2,97}=3.09$. Since the F score=16.03 is greater than F table = 3.09 (16.03 > 3.09), $H_0$ is rejected. The table also showed the Sig. = 0.000 which was lower than the significant level α = 0.05 (0.000 < 0.05). It leads to the rejection of null hypothesis. This means that there was a significant correlation between LLSs combined with motivation and writing achievement. In other words, the use of LLSs as well as students’ motivation can be used to predict the students’ writing achievement.

To see the coefficient of each of the combined variables, a coefficient analysis was conducted and the result is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Coefficient of each of the combined variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t-colomn</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B-colomn</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>5.542</td>
<td>2.263</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>LLSs</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.367</td>
<td>3.791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>2.236</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Writing

Table 5 shows that the significance of coefficient for LLSs is .000 and for motivation is .028. Both of the coefficients of LLSs and motivation are smaller than .05, indicating the rejection of the null hypothesis. This means that when the score of LLSs increases, the writing achievement will also increase by .038. Similarly, when the score of motivation increases, the students’ writing achievement will increase by .073. In sum, it was proved that the combined variables of LLSs and motivation are significantly correlated with writing achievement.

Discussion

The results of the present study suggest that, first, there is a significant correlation between LLSs and writing achievement. This means that the more frequently the students use LLSs, the higher their writing scores, and vice versa. This finding supports the result of a previous study conducted by Olivares (2002) who investigated the effect of learning strategies on the writing ability of the students taking an intermediate-advanced level Spanish writing course.
More particularly, he found that the use of memory strategies was correlated with students’ writing achievement. However, unlike Olivares’ study, this study employed a simultaneous analysis of LLSs rather than the parts of LLSs. The result of this study also conforms to the study conducted by Chand (2013). He found that there was a positive correlation between the use of LLSs and academic writing proficiency of Fiji tertiary students. However, the correlation was a weak one. This means that strategy use has a low predictive effect on academic writing proficiency.

In line with the present study, Setiyadi et al. (2016) found that metacognitive strategies were significantly correlated with writing skill. The students were able to decide the strategies appropriate for the specific skills. In preparing writing task, the students need metacognitive strategy to get brainstorming while finding their ideas in their mind. For example, they may try to recall their background knowledge about the topic of the writing task. As stated by Oxford (1990), in metacognitive strategy, the students are able to identify the purpose of a language task. In the present study, the students were asked to write an analytical exposition essay; thus, they have to consider the purpose for writing the essay so that the readers can understand the essay well. The use appropriate LLSs often leads to improved overall proficiency or proficiency in a more specific skill (Oxford & Burry, 1995).

Second, there was a statistically significant correlation between students’ motivation and their writing achievement. The finding also revealed the positive point on the significant value of its correlation which indicated that the more motivated the students, the higher their writing achievement. The result is in line with the study conducted by Yuan-bing (2011) which shows that motivation plays an increasingly important role in second language writing process. It is also supported by the idea from Hyland (2003) that writing is two-way communication between the writer and the reader; thus, thinking about the intended readers before writing will promote writers’ motivation. In this study, in accomplishing the writing task, the students try to engage the activities for their own sake. In other words, they are able to accomplish the task because of their motivation in writing.

Finally, the present study showed that there was a positive correlation between LLSs combined with motivation and writing achievement. In fact, a number of research studies proved that there is a close relationship between LLSs and motivation (e.g., Xu, 2011; Chang & Liu, 2013). Accordingly, both LLSs and motivation play important roles in successful language learning. In learning to write, in particular, the students may use some of LLSs, such as compensation strategies for expressing the language despite their limitation in knowledge, metacognitive strategy for evaluating their learning, and cognitive strategy for practicing their skills. Thus, the students need to be trained to use appropriate LLSs as well as to maintain their motivation in writing in order to achieve good writing.

As writing competence is considered as the most difficult task for EFL learners to accomplish, there are more learning strategies that should be employed by the students. The close relationship between LLSs and writing achievement give the important point to the teachers on the importance of LLSs in enhancing students’ learning. Besides, the significant correlation between motivation and writing achievement indicated that motivation also plays important role in students’ learning to write. Moreover, the combination of LLSs and motivation
can contribute to the increase of students’ writing achievement, as proven in the result of the present study. In other words, the teachers are able to elicit students’ LLSs as well as engage their motivation in order to achieve better result in writing achievement. Therefore, it can be concluded that LLSs and motivation, either seperately or simultaneously, can be used to enhance writing achievement among EFL learners.

Conclusion
The results of the present study revealed that there is a significant correlation between LLSs and writing achievement, a significant correlation between motivation and writing achievement, and a significant correlation between LLSs combined with motivation and writing achievement. This means that more successful achievement in writing may be predicted by the use of LLSs, the increase in motivation, or by simultaneous use of LLSs combined with motivation. In light of these findings, EFL teachers are recommended to consider encouraging or training the students to use LLSs and raising their motivation when teaching writing. This is because teachers’ lack of control in the students’ use of LLSs may make the students unaware of the importance of LLSs to enhance their writing achievement. In addition, teachers’ negligence on the importance role of motivation may lead to students’ lack of enthusiasm in writing which in turn affect their writing achievement. By assisting the students in employing LLSs as well as raising their motivation, the teachers can engage students in learning the target language, especially in writing, and make the learning process more enjoyable and effective. For further researchers who are interested in conducting research in the same field, the use of LLSs can be correlated with other factors such as learning attitude, anxiety, and learners’ belief about learning English. Besides, other skills of language learning namely listening, speaking, and reading, can be considered to be correlated with the use of LLSs.

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References


### Appendix A. Questionnaire of Motivation in Learning English

**Name :** ____________________________  
**Class :** ____________________________

**Direction:**
This is a questionnaire of motivation in learning English. There is no right or wrong answer in this sheet. Finish it for 15 minutes. Read the statements carefully and give a circle to one of the options (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) based on your own motivation in learning English. The descriptions of the options are stated as follows:

1= Strongly disagree  
2= Disagree  
3= Rarely agree  
4= Agree  
5= Strongly agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO</th>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
<th>OPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I want to learn everything I need to learn</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I have high expectations of myself.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel good about myself when I finish a difficult project.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I like to spend time learning English that interests me.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I work best in group environment.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I try to do my best on every assignment.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I see myself as well-informed in many academic areas.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sometimes I do more than I have to for an assignment to help me understand the material better.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I learn English for my future.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>No matter how much I like or dislike a class, I still try to learn from it.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Being in school gives me the opportunity to prove my family</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
that I can achieve something.

12 I feel that I should be recognized when I demonstrate my abilities in the classroom. 1 2 3 4 5

13 I feel more accepted by others when I receive a good grade on a test. 1 2 3 4 5

14 I finished my task because of a reward from my teacher. 1 2 3 4 5

15 I find my ability to be higher than most of my peers. 1 2 3 4 5

16 I feel ashamed when I receive a low grade. 1 2 3 4 5

17 I get frightened that I will not remember anything when I take a test. 1 2 3 4 5

18 I get nervous when my teacher begins to hand back tests. 1 2 3 4 5

19 I try to make my teacher proud of me in the class. 1 2 3 4 5

20 Even when I have studied for hours, I do not feel that I have studied enough for a test. 1 2 3 4 5

Adopted from Brown (2007) and Shia (1998)

Appendix B. Scoring Rubrics for Writing Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing Aspect</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>All ideas in the sentences are relevant to the topic; all sentences contain a lot of supporting details related to the main ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Most of the ideas in the sentences are relevant to the topic; the sentences contain some supporting details related to the main ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Some ideas are relevant to the topic; the sentences contain few supporting details related to the main idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Limited number of ideas are relevant to the topic; the sentences contain very limited supporting details related to the main ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>Well organized and perfectly coherent; the composition contains complete generic structure of analytical exposition text, namely thesis statement, arguments, and reiteration/conclusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Fairly well organized and generally coherent; the composition contains two generic structures of analytical exposition text (one of the generic structure component is missing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Loosely organized; the composition only contains one generic structure of analytical exposition text (two of the generic structure components are missing).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                | 1     | Poor     | Ideas disorganized; lack logical sequencing. The composition does not contain any generic structure of analytical exposition text (all of the generic structure
Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>Very effective choice of words; no misuse of vocabulary and word forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Effective choice of words; few misuse of vocabulary and word forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Less effective choice of words; some misuse of vocabulary and word forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Not effective choice of words; a lot of misuse of vocabulary and word forms</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grammar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>No errors; full control of complex structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Few errors; good control of structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
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Mechanics

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Adapted from: Jacobs et al. (1981)

Appendix C. Students’ Score of the Language Learning Strategies (LLSs), Motivation (M), and Writing (W)

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### Language Learning Strategies, Motivation, and Writing

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Content Analysis of the Pedagogical Content Knowledge in the Curriculum of Yemeni EFL Teacher Education Programme

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Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia & Hadhramout University, Hadhramout, Yemen

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Abstract
This study aims to analyse the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) in the current curriculum of the English teacher education programme (ETEP) at a Faculty of Education in a Yemeni University. PCK and teaching competencies take shape within the initial preparation of ETEP in which student teachers spend a long time receiving knowledge and understanding the teaching context before they practically experience teaching at schools. During their BA study, students are required to study 49 courses which can be categorised into four main components: skills, linguistics, literature and professional. This study analyses the content of the curriculum courses so as to visualise the way student teachers translate what they have learned into pedagogical practices during their teaching practices. In this study, the curriculum content of ETEP is qualitatively analysed using the inductive approach. Categories emerged from the analysis demonstrate various aspects of student teachers’ PCK. The analysis reveals that the pedagogical skills courses are not enough to enhance and strengthen the student teachers’ PCK needed to be reflected in their teaching practices. The findings show that the curriculum lacks courses necessary to provide student teachers with basic knowledge and pedagogical principles which are of vital significance to demonstrate their understanding before they are practically engaged in the teaching experience.

Keywords: curriculum, EFL teacher education programme, pedagogical content knowledge, teaching practice, Yemen

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Content Analysis of the Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Al-Jaro, Asmawi & Hasim

Introduction

Much attention was given to the teacher education as well as teacher's knowledge in the last few decades to re-evaluate the teaching programmes and assess the trainees' performance. Darling-Hammond (1999) stresses the importance of teaching knowledge in providing the trainees with skills in 'planning curricula', 'delivering instruction', managing the classroom', and 'diagnosing students' learning needs' while preparation. However, students who are exposed to insufficient preparation may encounter several challenges whenever they decide to practice teaching (p. 30). Freeman (1996) and Richards & Lockhart (1996) acknowledge that student teachers should initiate their teaching practice and/or teaching when they comprehend the ideas [the content] of what they teach. In other words, such ideas should be transformed into acts of teaching. In fact, various types of knowledge should be presented by student teachers while doing teaching practice. Such types of knowledge reflect the extent to which s/he is fully prepared for performing teaching practices.

In the field of English language teacher education, experts play a key role in developing the kind of knowledge on the part of the student teachers. Such a kind of knowledge of the teacher can be incorporated with other components such as the subject matter content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge which are prerequisites for teaching practices of the student teachers (Liu, 2013). Further, student teachers must be equipped with sufficient knowledge and effective teaching skills (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 1999). For example, they need to learn effective methods which are helpful to deal with learners' differences, "plan various instructional activities for diverse learners, and assess students' knowledge for the purpose of integrating multiple pathways of instruction. Some categories in this set of knowledge and skills include lesson planning, instructional strategies and classroom management" (Choy, Wong, Lim, & Chong, 2013, p. 69).

In fact, different accounts have been presented regarding the nature of teacher's knowledge and how it could be developed. Such controversies yield different classifications of the teacher's knowledge. For instance, one classification is provided by Shulman (1986, 1987) in which it is claimed that knowledge is gained and grown in teachers' minds. Shulman distinguishes between three categories of content knowledge, namely, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curriculum knowledge. Another classification is proposed by Carter (1990) in which a distinction is made between two types of knowledge: the practical knowledge which is the personal and situational forms of knowledge and the pedagogical content knowledge constructed while practicing the teaching profession (as cited in Munby, Russell & Martin, 2001, p. 881). Drawing on Shulman’s categories, Grossman (1990) lists four sources of a teacher knowledge base: 1) a subject matter knowledge; 2) general pedagogical knowledge; 3) pedagogical content knowledge; and 4) knowledge of context. Later, Grossman (1995) describes six other domains of the teacher's knowledge. These domains are: 1) "knowledge of content, 2) knowledge of learners and learning, 3) knowledge of general pedagogy, 4) knowledge of curriculum, 5) knowledge of context, and 6) knowledge of self" (as cited in Munby, et al., 2001, p. 882). Knowledgeable and proficient teachers should gain various kinds of knowledge and skills (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2007). They should have sufficient content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of classroom context knowledge of different ways of assessment, and the ability to reflect them on practice. PCK is viewed as the most important component of teacher’s knowledge and is central to successful teaching (König et al., 2016).
Literature Review

Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Literature stresses the importance of PCK and its role in transforming the subject matter into a more comprehensible and accessible form. Shulman (1986), who first used the term, describes PCK as "the particular form of content knowledge that embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability" (p. 9). In a similar vein, Richards (1991) defines PCK as "the core set of theories, concepts and practices regarding the second language learning and teaching which form the content of second language teacher education" (p. 76). It is, therefore, the integration of understanding the subject matter concepts and strategies for teaching a certain content in a way to enable learners to construct their knowledge effectively in a given context (Cochran, DeRuiter, & King, 1993). In other words, teachers should find different ways to demonstrate and explain knowledge to make it teachable and understandable by students. PCK refers to knowledge that allows the content of subject matter to be taught. The concept of PCK “was originally construed as a form of content knowledge composed of subject matter transformed for the purpose of teaching” (Munby, Russell, & Martin, 2001, p. 881).

For conceptualising PCK, a growing number of scholars have identified various components that constitute PCK and viewed PCK as an integration of those components. For developing an understanding of components of PCK, a comprehensive review of the relevant literature is carried out. Table 1 summarises different researchers’ conceptualizations of PCK in both mainstream education and English language teaching context. Shulman (1986, 1987) concludes that PCK consists of the knowledge of subject matter, students’ understanding, curriculum, and pedagogy or instructional strategies. However, it seems that some variations and overlapping occurred in their perspectives. Tamir’s (1988) classification is based on a framework of teachers’ knowledge rather than on pedagogical content knowledge. Both content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge are seen as elements of teachers’ knowledge. Richards (1991) also classifies two main areas that form PCK in second language teaching education programs: 'subject matter knowledge' which includes some courses such as 'language theory, English grammar, phonology, second language learning, etc., and 'teaching skills' which include the courses of 'classroom management, presentation, and practice techniques, etc.' (p. 86).

Table 1
Components of Pedagogical Content Knowledge

<table>
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<th>Subject matter</th>
<th>Students' understanding</th>
<th>Curriculum</th>
<th>Pedagogy</th>
<th>Instructional strategies</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
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<td>Howey &amp; Grossman (1989)</td>
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As illustrated in Table 1, the researchers’ classifications of PCK are expanded and elaborated from Shulman’s (1986, 1987) concepts. Although there are different views based on their interpretations of their empirical studies in different educational fields, most of the researchers have identical views in terms of the key elements of PCK which are first proposed by Shulman.

This study aims to analyse the PCK in the current curriculum of ETEP at a Faculty of Education in Yemen. Therefore, it defines PCK as the understanding of the subject matter and how it could be transformed into a comprehensible content for learners during a teaching context. Accordingly, only two components of PCK will be highlighted in the current curriculum. They are mainly drawn from the work of Richards (1991) related to English language teaching education: subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. These components will be briefly explained in the following sections:

**Subject Matter Knowledge**

Shulman (1987) contends that Subject Matter Knowledge (SMK) or the so-called ‘content knowledge’ can be described as “the amount and organisation of knowledge per se in the mind of the teachers” (p. 9). It is concerned with the teacher’s conceptions of theories as well as understanding of structures of the subject matter taught (Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987). Teachers should understand not only the subject matter generally but also need to further develop a deep understanding of how to teach it professionally (Shulman, 1986). In English language teaching education, SMK is viewed as the subject discipline and learning theories (Elbaz, 1983) and as the language and language-related matters (Richards, 1991). It is “what teachers need to know about what they teach and constitutes knowledge that would not be shared with teachers of other subject areas” (Richards, 2010, p. 104). According to Faisal (2016), SMK is regarded as the prerequisite to teaching where teachers need to know the formal aspects of English and subjects such as grammar, phonology, writing, speaking, syntax and discourse. Similarly, Richards (1991) applauds that it is vitally important to provide English language teachers with sufficient SMK during their training and to exposed them to the courses of language theories, English grammar, phonology, second language learning, etc. In this study, SMK is regarded as the knowledge that student teachers gain during their study and training at the university which covers all curriculum courses related to the skills as well as linguistics components.
**Pedagogical Knowledge**

Pedagogical Knowledge (PK) is the second component of PCK that teachers should gain during training. Such a kind of knowledge will be gradually developed during practice. PK is defined by Shulman (1987) as “broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation that appear to transcend subject matter” (p. 8). It is the knowledge that enables teachers to practice teaching effectively. In English language teaching education, PK plays a significant role in making the instructional practice more comprehensible to learners. Faisal (2016) argues that PK is “the knowledge of strategies and ways that a teacher requires to deliver and more importantly to transform subject matters to learners consistent with their interests and potential” (p. 13). Richards (1991) insists on including courses of teaching skills such as methodology, classroom management, presentation and practice techniques, etc. to the teaching programmes so as to enhance the teachers’ PK. In the current study, PK is viewed as the student teachers’ knowledge of numerous teaching methods and strategies that help them practice teaching effectively. It is composed of all curriculum courses that are related to the professional component.

A considerable number of studies (e.g., Richards, 1991; Darling-Hammond, 1999; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2007; Choy et al., 2012; Choy et al., 2013; Liu, 2013; Faisal, 2016) have been conducted to examine the PCK in the field of second and foreign language teaching education. They indicate the PCK should be initially developed during training and subsequently in their teaching. They believe that teachers must be supplied with sufficient, professional and standardised PCK to be transformed during their teaching experiences. Thus, they can perform effectively. However, the literature is still scarce in respect of examining the professional knowledge of ESL teachers (Liu, 2013). To the best of our knowledge, few or no studies have been conducted on the investigation of the PCK of the English as Foreign Language (EFL) teacher candidates through the analysis of their current practice as a source of their PCK (Richards, 1992) (i.e., the courses that are offered to student teachers during training). Therefore, this study addresses the issue of examining the EFL teacher candidates’ (henceforth student teachers) pedagogical content knowledge by analysing the curriculum courses they have studied during their preparation based on the two components of PCK, namely, the subject matter knowledge and the pedagogical knowledge. The study seeks to answer the following question: How is the PCK enhanced in the courses of the EFL teaching programme at the Department of English, Faculty of Education, at a Yemeni University?

The analysis of the study data might provide fruitful information with regard to whether those student teachers have been provided with necessary PCK which meets the educational demands in the teaching field in Yemen. The information gathered from this analysis is expected to enlighten the status of teaching English in the context where the current study is conducted and perhaps in other similar EFL contexts especially in terms of the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum in providing student teachers with necessary PCK.

**Basic Curriculum Courses of ETEP**

The Department of English, Faculty of Education at a Yemeni University, annually prepares EFL student teachers to serve in the field of teaching English at local primary and secondary schools. It offers a four-year academic programme that aims to provide students with the knowledge and skills to become teachers of English and provides them with a Bachelor
Degree in education. Student teachers are trained on the basic language skills and study a variety of subjects about English literature, linguistics, translation, and methodology. The graduates of this department are expected to serve the society mainly by becoming English teachers at primary and secondary schools (Faculty of Education Guide, 2012).

During their study at the university, student teachers have to obtain 142 credit hours to graduate with a BA in Education majoring in English language teaching for local schools (grades 7-12). The Department staff prepares the syllabi and plans of the English language teaching programme. The programme focuses on the subject matter of teaching English. It also offers courses in teaching methods, language skills, English literature, Yemeni education and culture, and other related aspects. These courses are taught during four years (eight semesters) and the student teachers have to pass all these courses.

The curriculum courses are divided into four components: the skills component, the linguistics component, the literature component and the professional component (Sharyan, 2007). Besides, there are other 5 courses in Arabic Language, Islamic Culture and Computer skills as the university requirements. The courses of skills component are offered during the first two years (four semesters) of the programme to enable the student teachers to be competent in the language. In this component, they are exposed to various language skills and areas to use the language effectively in the classroom. The linguistically-oriented courses will focus on some of the recent developments in linguistics and applied aspects. The courses offered in this component are expected to increase the student teachers’ knowledge of the structure of English and their awareness of English use. The third component of the curriculum courses is the literature component which is intended to give the student teachers knowledge of language about literature as human activity and to develop their critical analytical abilities. The last component of curriculum courses is the professional component which includes courses that are aimed to prepare students teachers to teach in the primary and secondary schools in Yemen. It offers courses of teaching methods, educational and practical courses. In this study, the skills, linguistics and professional components are all considered the entries of PCK, whereas the literature component courses are not included as they are beyond the interest of this study. Table 2 shows the English Department curriculum courses of the four components for each semester.

Table 2
Curriculum Courses of ETEP, Faculty of Education at a Yemeni University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Skills component</th>
<th>Linguistics component</th>
<th>Literature component</th>
<th>Professional component</th>
<th>University Requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reading I,</td>
<td>Pronunciation,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>An Introduction to</td>
<td>Arabic Language I,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Grammar I</td>
<td></td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Islamic Culture I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Speaking I,</td>
<td>Grammar II,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>An Introduction to</td>
<td>Arabic Language II,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading II</td>
<td>Vocabulary &amp; study</td>
<td></td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Islamic Culture II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Writing I,</td>
<td>Phonetics and</td>
<td>Fiction,</td>
<td>Principles and</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>study skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 2, the total number of the English Department courses is forty-nine. Thirty-four courses (60%) are the total courses of skills, linguistics and professional components which mainly constitute the student teachers’ PCK. Therefore, they are included in the analysis. Other courses (40%) are related to the literature component and the University requirement courses which are beyond the scope of this study.

### Methodology

The study aims at analysing the PCK in the curriculum courses for ETEP at the Faculty of Education in Yemen. Therefore, it adopts the qualitative approach to collect and analyse the data of the study. Also, it adopts a qualitative content analysis because it is a flexible method to analyse the data of the study. Content analysis is defined as a “research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts to the contexts of their use” (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 24). Furthermore, the study employs the inductive approach (Marying, 2014) in which the data are
analysed with little or no theoretical considerations. This approach is comprehensive and therefore time-consuming and is most suitable for this study as it aims at a “true description without bias owing to the preconceptions of the researcher, an understanding of the material in terms of the material” (Marying, 2014, p. 80). The inductive analysis is the most common approach used to analyse qualitative data by starting from particular (the content) to general and generate codes and themes (Creswell, 2005). Three components of the curriculum courses: the skills, linguistics, and pedagogy are selected for analysis and their descriptions are, then, loaded into the qualitative data programme Atlas ti, version 7.0 to be prepared for coding. The computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software Atlas ti is used to manage and analyse the data of the study (Friese, 2012).

Data Analysis
Marying’s (2014) eight steps for inductive category development model are employed and followed to guide the analysis of the study: 1) research question, theoretical background, 2) category definition and level of abstraction, 3) coding the text, 4) revision, 5) final coding, 6) main categories, 7) intra/inter-coder check, and 8) results.

The first step of the inductive analysis is to formulate the research question and describe the theoretical background (Marying, 2014). Therefore, the question is intended to clearly analyse the PCK in the curriculum courses of the English language teaching programme, and the relevant theoretical background is described in the literature review section to explain PCK and identify its components in the study.

In the second step, it is necessary to define the category which is served as the criterion to identify the relevant materials, and how specific or general it is formulated (Marying, 2014). Thus, the main topic of this study can be stated as “the understanding of the subject matter and how it could be transformed into a compressible content for learners during a teaching context”. Based on the relevant literature, two components of PCK are identified in the current curriculum and are regarded as general categories. The two components (subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge) are, then, defined in respect of the components of the curriculum courses. The subject matter knowledge comprises the skills and linguistics courses while the pedagogical knowledge includes the pedagogy courses. Therefore, thirty-four courses are relevant and their descriptions are imported into Atlas ti software to easily manage, organise data, and prepare it for coding.

A further step to analyse the text is to code data by “segmenting and labelling text to form descriptions and broad themes in the data” (Creswell, 2005, p. 237). For coding the text, twenty-two codes are identified and emerged basically from the study main two categories: subject matter knowledge and the pedagogical knowledge. Therefore, a list of codes is created to be associated with quotations during analysis. These codes are:
1. Theories of language and language learning
2. English language listening skills
3. English language Speaking skills
4. English language Reading skills
5. English language Writing skills
6. English language Grammar
Content Analysis of the Pedagogical Content Knowledge

7. English language pronunciation
8. English language Vocabulary
9. Other skills
10. Cultural understanding
11. Approaches to language teaching
12. Planning lessons
13. Teaching English language Listening skills
14. Teaching English language Speaking skills
15. Teaching English language Reading skills
16. Teaching English language Writing skills
17. Teaching English language Grammar
18. Teaching English language Pronunciation
19. Teaching English language vocabulary
20. Technological aids
21. Testing and evaluation: principles and techniques
22. Classroom management

After that, the text is read carefully many times, and text segments related to these codes are selected as quotations. Moreover, the codes generated are thoroughly checked to ensure that they fit the research question. The first ten codes are intended to provide information about the subject matter knowledge while the remaining codes are related to the pedagogical knowledge. Therefore, the whole text is examined with reference to these codes.

To check the inter-coder agreement, the text is given to another coder who is an expert in the field and is knowledgeable in using Atlas ti software in order to generate coding. The results are mostly the same with some overlapping and repetitions of some codes. A comparison between the two sets of coding is carried out, and necessary changes are made. Once the coding process is completed, these codes are further reduced in order to make it easier to abstract categories from results. Therefore, similar codes which shared consistencies and meanings are classified under one family/category. The result was four families or categories that formed the themes of the study. These categories will be discussed in the following section.

Findings and Discussions

The purpose of this study is to analyse the PCK in the curriculum courses of the ETEP at the Faculty of Education in a Yemeni University in order to understand what PCK has offered to the student teachers during their study. This study is part of a larger research investigating the EFL student teachers’ teaching practice during a practicum in Yemen. Therefore, an initial step is carried out by analysing the PCK content of the curriculum courses and led to the emergence of four key themes. The following sections will discuss these themes to address the study question.

Language proficiency

As mentioned earlier, PCK in this study is the EFL student teachers’ understanding of the subject matter and how they can transform it into a comprehensible content for learners during teaching practice. It is, therefore, necessary for student teachers to be provided with acknowledge base (Day, 2012) and should be as core courses in the programme curriculum (Sulistiyo, Mukminin & Yanto, 2016). Richards (2010) emphasises the role of language proficiency
component in the curriculum as it enhances the student teachers’ language-specific competencies, and thus they can use the language of instruction during the classroom teaching practice effectively.

In analysing the content of the curriculum courses of ETEP at the Faculty of Education in a Yemeni University in terms of the language proficiency, it is found that there are 19 courses are related to English language skills and language areas. These courses include Reading (one to two), Listening, Speaking (one and two), writing (one and two), speaking (one and two), Pronunciation, Grammar (one and three), Vocabulary & Study Skills, Phonetics & Phonology (one and two), Linguistics (one and two), Translation (one and two) and Presentation. Table 3 shows the curriculum courses related to language proficiency.

Table 3. 
Language Proficiency Curriculum Courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>2 to 3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>3 to 4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>1 to 3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Vocabulary &amp; Study Skills</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Phonetics &amp; Phonology</td>
<td>3 to 4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Linguistics</td>
<td>5 to 6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>5 to 6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>57(40%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As demonstrated in Table 3, the total credit hours of the language proficiency courses are 57 and approximately (40%) of the total (142%) credit hours of all courses of the programme. Most of these courses are offered in the first four semesters of the programme. This indicates that the student teachers are provided with sufficient subject matter needed for their teaching practice. This result is in congruence with the finding of Sulistiyo, et.al. (2016) that student teachers should be well-equipped with language proficiency courses before they start teaching. They have to possess sufficient subject matter knowledge to enhance the quality of their performance (Faisal, 2016).

**Pedagogical skills**

Another category emerged from the analysis is the pedagogical skills. It is essential for the assessment of the English language teacher education programme to identify what knowledge for teaching skills the student teachers received (Day, 2012). To say it differently, it is concerned with the extent to which student teachers are trained to teach. Pedagogical skills, as explained by Richards (2010), should include preparing student teachers for new learning, monitoring their learning and giving feedback on their learning. Thus, after analysing the content of the curriculum courses of ETEP at the Faculty of Education in a Yemeni University, it is found that there are 8 courses related to this theme. These courses are intended to acquaint EFL student teachers with various methods and approaches to language teaching, and knowledge for different
language teaching situation. Besides, these courses aim to train them on how to evaluate and assess their learners’ achievements and develop visual aids to be used during their teaching practice. In addition, there is a practical course (Practicum II) in which student teachers have the chance to practice teaching English at schools under the guidance and supervision of a panel of supervisors. Table 4 shows the curriculum courses related to teaching skills:

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>General Educational Curricula (A)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Educational Technology (A)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Language Testing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>General Methodology (A)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>English Methodology</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Education and Assessment (A)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Practicum I (theory) (A)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Practicum II (practice)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>23 (16%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(A): The course is taught in the student teachers’ first language (Arabic)*

Table 4 shows the eight curriculum courses related to the pedagogical skills category, the semester offered for each course, and courses credit hours. The total credit hours for these courses is 23 representing almost (16%) of the total (142%) credit hours of all courses of the programme. A close look at these courses reveal that only two courses are taught in English: Language Testing and English Methodology, and the remaining five courses are taught in the student teachers’ first language (Arabic). They are offered to all the Faculty Departments including the English Department and are taught by professors affiliated with the Department of Educational and Psychological Sciences. Therefore, these courses are general courses and do not consider pedagogical issues with special reference to English language teaching. Apart from this deficiency, English Methodology course advocates no specific knowledge of lesson planning and only focuses on the instructional strategies and classroom management. The following lines are quoted from the objectives of English Methodology course:

1. *To introduce students to the theory which underpins classroom methodology.*
2. *To develop in them an understanding of the appropriate methodology of teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing.*
3. *To raise their awareness of the role of grammar in English language teaching.*
4. *To introduce them to different tasks and techniques used for language practice.*
5. *To help them develop an understanding of classroom management.*

It is shown in the above quotation that the course does not also provide basic knowledge and pedagogical principles to enable student teachers to demonstrate their understanding before they are practically engaged in the teaching experience. Similarly, the other English course (Language Testing) undertakes a survey of the language testing concepts, procedures and issues, with the primary focus on the use of tests and examinations to assess the EFL learners’ achievement. The following quotation is related to the objectives of the course:
1. To understand various approaches to assessment and the qualities of a good language test.
2. To be familiar with a range of testing procedures and able to critically evaluate them.
3. To know what is involved in designing and developing a test for a purpose.
4. To demonstrate an ability to carry out certain aspects of the test development process, including some basic statistical analysis.

To sum up, the student teachers are not provided with adequate pedagogical skills needed for their teaching practice, and the pedagogical skills courses lack courses such as microteaching that help them demonstrate their learning, monitor and give feedback on their learning before they are engaged in the real teaching practice. This result aligns with the findings of Muthanna and Karaman (2011) who emphasised the need for increasing the number of classroom management and teaching methodology courses, and the study of Sulistiyow, et. al (2016) which called for a balance between the pedagogical skills courses and the other courses of the programme.

**Education and culture**

The third category is concerned with the content analysis of the curriculum courses which belong to education and culture. There are five courses related to this theme; these include An Introduction to Psychology, An Introduction to Education, Educational Psychology, School Administration and Education System in Yemen. These courses include knowledge about the nature and development of psychology and education as well as different theories related to human behaviour. They also provide student teachers with the background knowledge about leadership theories, school administration, and the rules and regulations at the Yemeni schools. Moreover, they introduce the historical stages of Yemeni educational system and present some of the challenges facing the education in Yemen. Table 5 lists the education and culture courses:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>An Introduction to Psychology (A)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>An Introduction to Education (A)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Education Psychology (A)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>School Administration (A)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Education System in Yemen (A)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>15 (11%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A): The course is taught in the student teachers’ first language (Arabic) As revealed in Table 5 that the curriculum courses related to education and culture theme are all taught in the student teachers’ first language (Arabic) and the total credit hours for these courses is 15 courses representing 16% of the total (142%) credit hours of all courses of the programme. After analysing the content of these courses, it is revealed that they only comprise general theories and concepts related to education and educational psychology, and present cultural background of the school administration and the education system in Yemen. However, language theories and
second language acquisition theories are mostly neglected. In this regard, Richards (1991) emphasises the role of language theories courses in the English teacher education programme to enhance the student teachers’ PCK during the study and raise their awareness when they plan to select classroom activities during teaching practice. The education and culture courses also lack the ‘contextual knowledge’ (Richards, 2010) which student teachers need to function effectively.

**Research skills**

The last category emerged from the content analysis of the curriculum courses is the research skills which are the focus of two courses: Principles and Syllabi of Scientific research and Proposal Writing. These two courses are intended to introduce student teachers to scientific procedures in research as applied to the field of education and focus on encouraging students to read, interpret, and conduct research. The student teachers are exposed to fundamental and important steps in conducting research such as planning and formulating the research, developing the research problem and research objectives. Besides, they are trained on how to use the library and extract the sources and documents to write research papers based on the necessary scientific research steps. Table 6 shows the courses of research skills, the semester offered and the credit hours for each course.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Principles &amp; Syllabi of Scientific Research (A)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Proposal Writing</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>6 (1.5%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A): *The course is taught in the student teachers’ first language (Arabic)*

As shown in Table 6, only two courses related to this category are offered in the third and eight semesters of the programme which represent about 1.5% of all curriculum courses of the programme. By studying such courses, student teachers can recognise the importance of the scientific research to solve problems and learn the theoretical foundations of the most important elements of the research.

It has been argued that PCK refers to the understanding of subject matter and how it could be transformed into a comprehensible content for learners in a teaching context (Shulman, 1987; Richards, 1991), and teachers should find different ways to demonstrate and explain knowledge to make it teachable and understandable by their learners. It is, therefore, the teachers’ task to combine theory with practice, think and search for new strategies to implement, develop effective performance tasks, design appropriate assessment tools, and address the different student learning styles (Stafford, 2006). This requires knowledge of the research skills.

**Conclusion**

This study of the PCK in the ETEP curriculum courses offered by the English Department, Faculty of Education at a Yemeni University has developed four major themes: language proficiency, pedagogical skills, education and culture, and research skills. It is revealed that the portion of pedagogical skills courses in the curriculum is considered inadequate representing only 16% of the total credit hours of all courses of the programme. Moreover, it is
found the student teachers’ first language (Arabic) is used as a medium of instruction for most of these courses. Therefore, the number of the courses of pedagogical skills should be increased in the curriculum and English should be used as a medium of instruction to teach these courses so as to develop the student teachers’ proficiency in the language as well.

The present study can be considered an initial step for understanding the Yemeni EFL student teachers’ PCK and for further investigating their teaching practice during practicum at schools. It stressed the need for the student teachers’ professional development to strengthen the English language status in Yemen and to cope with the changes in the field EFL teaching through reforming and updating the curriculum of the current programme. In line with these findings, the following educational implications are recognised:

1. Much attention should be paid to the development of ETEP and more pedagogical skills related courses should be included in the current curriculum.
2. Student teachers should be trained to employ some activities as well as strategies to enhance their pedagogical skills among which personal reflection, peer observation, collaborative discussion with supervisors and colleagues, and learners’ feedback.
3. The English language should be used as the medium of instructions of all education and culture-related courses.
4. Some of the redundant literary courses should be replaced by courses that enhance the student teachers’ language proficiency and pedagogical skills.

It should be noted here that the interest of the present study is to analyse the PCK in the current curriculum courses offered by the ETEP at the Department of English, Faculty of Education at a Yemeni University. Therefore, future studies should adopt other sources such as expert opinion, task analysis and perceived needs in order to identify the student teachers’ PCK in similar EFL teacher education programmes.

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Textual Architecture of a Selected Hard News in English: A Discourse Analysis Approach

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Abstract
This study deals with the analysis of a selected hard news through the adaptation of an eclectic model of analysis by the use of Van Dijk (1988), Bell (1991) and Halliday (1976) models of discourse analysis. Writing news stories is a problematic process because it is not a process of merely putting words together to form a text or report, but it involves the choice of the words and markers that conditioned by the purpose, place, and the readers. The study aims at proposing a theoretical framework for the macro-level analysis of news discourse. It covers the macro level analysis of the chosen hard news. The data of the study is an English news story taken from Washington Times newspaper published on 20th of August 2016. The results of the study display that English hard news stories show certain complexity in their structure. The writer of this hard news story aims at not only conveying information but arising the voice of protest against the government and the court of justice. Such analysis reaches to a conclusion, which emphasizes the idea that the field of discourse can be used for better understanding of the media.

Key Words: Discourse, hard news, macrostructure, news stories, text, textual architecture

Textual Architecture of a Selected Hard News in English

Kadhum

Introduction
The term discourse has gained a clear interest in a variety of disciplines including philosophy, linguistics, sociology, communication, etc. Media have become the prominent factor of life especially the written form which is one of the most important components of the information revolution as it is a means of communicating information, to influence and persuade the readers. It influences the social and political beliefs of most people. Accordingly, most of people's social and political knowledge and beliefs about the world are derived from the dozens of news reports they read every day. In addition to everyday conversation, there is no other discursive practice, which is engaged in many people as news in the press.

Furthermore, as readers of news, people assume that news consists of faithful reports of events that happened out there in the world, especially in the case when they are non-native speakers of a language as they are unaware of the complexities that underlie news stories as far as textual structure is concerned.

The center of the news is the text. The content of the news is not independent of its expression, and one can hope to have a clear understanding of the nature news stories by a close analysis of the important markers that assist in accomplishing a coherent and cohesive text.

Discourse is not an amorphous mass. It has both structural and conceptual patterns. Nevertheless, discourse patterns are not rule-bound as in lower level grammar, but are more flexible, reflecting underlying conceptual patterns more directly. In particular, a news story has its structure. It aims at stating its facts quickly and clearly. Thus, the purpose of a proper discourse structure is to allow the reader move through the story easily and make him able to realize the relationship between the various pieces of information that the reporter has gathered.

This study covers the macro level analysis of a chosen hard news. It is adopted mainly to show the reader how difficult and a complex process is writing a hard news, in addition, such analysis helps better understanding news stories.

Hard News
Hard news stories are considered records of events that have just happened such as violations, fires, court statement, speeches, protest rallies, acts of war, traffic accidents and elections. Hard news stories confirm facts and not opinion or analysis. The emphasis should be on the absolute known facts. Hard news is an account of what has happened, why it happened, who was affected. Thus, Hard news requires unique textual structure. Textual structure is concerned with constituent parts of a text and how they fit together to form textual whole. One of the important issues in discourse analysis is the organization of discourse analysis; Hence, the term organization refers to the sum of relations which hold between the units of a text.

Halliday and Hassan (1976:8) argue that a group of sentences is said to constitute a text or not depending on the cohesive relationships within and between the sentences that create texture. The cohesive relations that are set up within a text provide texture. Texture is the basis for unity and semantic interdependence within discourse and a text without texture would be just group of unrelated sentences. Thus, cohesion is considered the standard of textuality that concerns with the way the components of the surface text are connecting within a sequence.
Discourse
The term "discourse" is derived from Latin "discursus" which refers to "conversation, speech." Harris (1951) states that discourse is a structure that can be dealt with analogy of the sentence. Crystal (2010) confirms that discourse refers to a continuous stretch of language that it is larger than a sentence and that constitutes a coherent unit such as narrative, conversation, ceremony, joke…etc.

Carter and Nash (1990) state that discourse refers to different levels of a language used in the organization of a text. They mention five levels of language: phonology; vocabulary; grammar; discourse and context. Fairclough (1995) mentions that discourse is a field of both ideological processes and linguistic processes and he adds that there is an obvious relationship between these two processes in that the linguistic choices that are used to form texts can carry ideological meaning. According to him (Fairclough, 1995), discourse refers to the social action and interaction as well as to the social construction of reality. Baker and Ellece (2011) describe discourse as a term with several related and often quite loose meanings while Crystal (2007) states that discourse refers to a continuous stretch of languages larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a conversation, a sermon, an argument, a joke or narrative.

Text
A text is a piece of language in use (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). The term text is highly connected with discourse; that is why some linguists use these two terms as synonyms. Harris (1951) does not show any distinction between these two terms and he says that both of them are used to refer to the language that an author uses. Likewise, (Finch, 2005) notices that linguists who use the term discourse, they also use the term text to talk about spoken and written texts.

However, Coulthard (1985) makes a comparison between text and discourse. He states that the term discourse refers to the spoken mode of language and consists of utterances while text refers to the written mode of language and made up of sentences. On the other side, Van Dijk (1977) believes that texts are the theoretical construct that underlies discourse. Halliday (1976) states that linguistically, a text refers to a spoken as well as a written unified whole passage. He adds that text should be both coherent and cohesive. Thus, a text is not a grammatical unit but it is a semantic unit of language in use. In 1999, Halliday clarifies that a text is the reflection of a form of talking, listening, writing, or reading. In such case, a text is the product of discourse, which in turns, reflects the communicative process. Lyons (1976:30) uses the term text to denote any connected passage of discourse.

Textual Architecture
The term textual architecture is used in this study in order to refer to the textual structure of the chosen hard news. It includes thematic macrostructures, schematic superstructures, narrative structures and grammatical as well as lexical cohesion.

News Stories
Fowler (1991) states that news is the representation of the world in the languages. He adds that it is a linguistic and an ideological construct that reflects both the linguistic as well as the critical dimensions used in the current investigation. The word "story" is attached to news because every news article denotes an event. Turbow (2009) mentions that news story is a tale that has a beginning, middle and an end. He adds that news story can be divided into four types: "hard
This paper is concerned with what is called "hard news" which covers the news stories of battle, fire, crime, and politics. Such news should be presented in an objective way, and no personal viewpoint must be inserted. News stories should have their own structures. Aitchison (1999) states the news stories have complex underlying structures where new information is presented through giving an answer to "what"; "when," "who," "how," "why" questions. In most cases, no answer can be seen for "when" and "why" question because the event must be very recent one that is why there is no need to answer such question and for "why" question, the cause of most event cannot be known immediately. What makes the news story interesting, Bell (1998) clarifies, is the way that the journalist uses to present the events, times, places and news actors. Bell (1991) mentions that "the values of news drive the way in which news is presented" and these values reflects the ideology of society. Hence, news values refer to the criteria set by journalists to measure which news story is worthy for printing.

More recently, Montgomery (2011) states that news deals with the most recent events of a public scale and importance. Its focus is always negative, concerning war, famine, accident and disaster.

**Model adopted in this study**

It is an eclectic model which relies on Van Dijk (1988); Bell (1991) and Halliday and Hasan (1976) Models to account for the macro level analysis.

**Van Dijk 1988 Model**

Van Dijk (1985) proposes an analytical framework to analyze the structures of news in the press. He accounts for the complexities of news discourse. This framework is limited to the "global organization of news" apart from the sentence level. According to Van Dijk, this analysis deals with the macro phenomenon rather than micro-organization of news discourse. He (1988) states that his framework consists of two elements: a semantic element and a formal element. The semantic element is concerned with the thematic structure of discourse while the formal element is concerned with the schemata of news texts.

Macrostructure is used by Van Dijk (1988) to account for the global content of discourse. It interprets the themes of a text and defines the text's overall coherence. The thematic macrostructures explain the meaning of discourse based on the meaning of the individual sentences. The discourse of a text can be expressed by one or more macro propositions, which can be derived from the text using macrorules. There are three kinds of macrorules: deletion, generalization, and construction. On the other hand, He states that the schematic structure consists of conventional categories that are organized by rules that operate on the global level only. He adds that a schematic category includes summary (headline and lead); main events; consequences; background and comments. He involves that schematic categories are recursive i.e. they may occur several times.

**Bell 1991 Model**

Bell (1991) deals with most of the schematic structures of news stories that are adopted by Van Dijk in (1988). Yet, he adds that a news text consists of abstract (headline and lead), attribution (source, place and time), and the story proper (one or more episodes and one or more events),
whereas events constitute of the following categories (attribution, actor, setting, action, follow up, commentary, background). The last three categories represent future, present and past respectively. He makes a comparison between the structure of news stories and the structure of personal narrative through the use of Labovian's framework in which he states six elements that constitute the structure of personal narrative: abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, resolution and coda. In news stories, these categories are recursive and they do not have fixed order.

**Halliday and Hassan Model (1976)**

Halliday and Hassan (1976) argue that a group of sentences is said to constitute atext or not depending on the cohesive relationships within and between the sentences that create texture. The cohesive relations that are set up within a text provide texture. A texture is the basis for unity and semantic interdependence within discourse and a text without texture would be just a group of unrelated sentences. Thus, Cohesion is the standard of textuality that concerns the way the components of the surface text are connecting within a sequence.

They set a taxonomy concerning types of cohesive relationships which can be established within a text and connect a text together. They identify two categories of cohesive devices: grammatical cohesive devices which include (reference, ellipsis, substitution and conjunction), and lexical cohesive devices which include reiteration (synonym, hyponym, and repetition) and collocation. Halliday and Hassan (1976:270-290) give a clear discussion of the term cohesion, which according to them can be achieved through both grammar and vocabulary. This results in two kinds of cohesion. "Grammatical cohesion" that can be achieved through the grammatical system and it is divided into reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. "Lexical cohesion" can be achieved using certain devices such as repetition and reiteration and other semantic relationships. Van Dijk (1988) states that cohesion refers to the lexical and grammatical ties between sentences within a text. It is concerned with the surface structure through using explicit linguistic devices to relate sentences. It shows that the interpretation of some elements in discourse depends on that of another. Cohesion is a factor that helps to state if a text is well connected or a group of unrelated sentences. It doesn't deal with the meaning of the text, but it deals with the way the text is constructed as semantic edifice (Yule, 1996).

**Data Analysis: Macro-level Analysis**

The chosen news story is analyzed depending on macro-level analysis relying on Van Dijk (1988), Bell (1991) and Halliday (1976) models. Thus, the analysis will cover:

1- Thematic macrostructures that deal with deriving the highest-level macro-proposition through the adoption of macro-rules.

2- Schematic superstructures that include the summary, main events, consequences, background, and comments.

3- Narrative structures that cover abstract, orientation, action, evaluation, resolution and coda.

4- Cohesion Analysis that is divided into two types: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. The first has three subtypes: reference, substitution and ellipsis, and conjunctions. While
grammatical cohesion deals with aspects such as repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, and collocation.

The Chosen News Story as Marked for Its Proposition Components

P1/ A federal judge on Friday sentenced former Navy machinist Kristian Saucier to one year in prison P2/ and a $100 fine.

P3/ for taking photos inside the engine room of a nuclear submarine

P4/ after the sailor’s attorneys argued for leniency by citing the FBI’s decision not to charge Hillary Clinton with mishandling classified information.

P5/ U.S. District Judge Stefan Underhill never explicitly named the Democratic presidential candidate in announcing his sentencing Friday,

P6/ but attorneys for the sailor said they believe invoking the so-called “Clinton defense” may have helped their client avoid additional time behind bars

P7/ Saucier, 29, admitted to taking a half-dozen photos of the USS Alexandria’s classified propulsion system

P8/ while working as a machinist in its engine room in 2009.

P9/ He pleaded guilty in May 2016 to one count of unauthorized possession and retention of national defense information.

P10/ In court documents filed earlier this month, defense attorneys said the FBI’s decision not to charge Mrs. Clinton for similar crimes related to her use of a private email server should be taken into consideration at sentencing.

P11/ “Mr. Saucier possessed six (6) photographs classified as ‘confidential/restricted,’ far less than Clinton’s 110 emails,” attorney Derrick Hogan wrote.

P12/ It would be “unjust and unfair for Mr. Saucier to receive any sentence other than probation for a crime those more powerful than him will likely avoid,” the lawyer added.

P13/ Instead, Judge Underhill said the sailor had done something “beyond stupid”,

P14/ and equated his actions with those of a motorist being pulled over for speeding amid a freeway full of careless drivers, CNN reported from the hearing in Bridgeport, Connecticut.

P15/ “Selective enforcement is really not a good argument … those arguments don’t really carry much water,” Judge Underhill said, according to the network.

P16/ “We need to make sure that every service person understands the consequences of playing fast and loose with important information,” he said.
Nonetheless, defense attorney Greg Rinckey told U.S. News & World Report that he thinks the legal team’s Clinton defense played a part in earning the sailor only one year in prison when he faced upwards of six. “He cryptically made some comments about selective prosecution and how that didn’t play any factor. Do I think it may have? Sure. But I think there was enough mitigation that the judge was able to depart from the sentencing guidelines [on that basis alone],” Rinckey says.

Following the defense’s invoking of the Clinton case in court documents before sentencing, prosecutors responded with a filing of their own taking aim at their argument. “The defendant is grasping at highly imaginative and speculative straws in trying to further draw a comparison to the matter of Sec. Hilary (sic) Clinton based upon virtually no understanding and knowledge of the facts involved, the information at issue, not to mention any issues of intent and knowledge,” prosecuting attorneys wrote.

In addition to the 12-month prison sentence, Judge Underhill ordered Saucier to serve six months of home confinement following his release and to perform 100 hours of community service. He’s also been asked to pay an $100 fine and has been banned from owning firearms, his attorneys told U.S. News.

By entering a guilty plea, Saucier avoided an obstruction of justice charge related to his attempt to destroy the cell phone that stored the photos. “Mr. Saucier admitted that he knew when he took the pictures in 2009 that they were classified and that he did so out of the misguided desire to keep these pictures in order to one day show his family and his future children what he did while he was in the Navy,” his attorneys told the court.

Saucier will report to prison in October and is “most concerned with being able to return home to his family,” Mr. Rinckey told U.S. News.

Thematic Macrostructure
Van Dijk (1988) states that the systematic analysis of news stories structure allows identifying the main theme or topic in the message. It identifies the global meaning, which can be figured
out via drawing macro propositions at different levels through the use of macro rules. The first level of macrostructure uncovers the following macro-propositions.

**Macrostructure 1**

1-A judge sentenced Saucier, Navy Machinist to one year in prison and a fine for taking photos inside a submarine after attorneys argued for leniency by citing the FBI’s decision not to charge Hillary Clinton with mishandling information. Judge never named the Democratic presidential candidate in announcing his sentencing but attorneys said they believe invoking “Clinton defense” may help avoid additional time behind bars. (P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6 by deletion macrorule)

2-Saucier admitted to taking confidential/restricted photos. He pleaded guilty of unauthorized possession and retention of national defense information. Defense attorneys said the FBI’s decision not to charge Mrs. Clinton for similar crimes should be taken into consideration at sentencing as it would be unjust and unfair to receive any sentence other than probation for a crime those more powerful than him will likely avoid. (P7, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12 by Construction macrorule)

3-Judge said the sailor had done something “beyond stupid,” Selective enforcement is not a good argument. Nonetheless, defense attorney Rinckey told U.S. News & World Report that he thinks Clinton defense played a part in earning one year in prison when he faced upwards. (P13, P14, P15, P16, P17, P18, P19 by deletion macrorules)

4-Following the defense of the Clinton case in court documents before sentencing, Prosecuting attorneys wrote. The defendant is trying to further draw a comparison to the Sec. Hilary (sic) Clinton based upon no understanding and knowledge of the facts involved. (P20, P21, P22 deletion macrorules)

5-In addition to the prison sentence, Judge ordered Saucier to serve six months of home confinement following his release and to perform 100 hours of community service. He’s also been asked to pay fine and banned from owning firearms, his attorneys told U.S. News. By entering a guilty plea, Saucier avoided an obstruction of justice charge related to destroy the cell phone that stored the photos. (P23, P24, P25, P26, P27 by deletion macrorules)

6-Saucier admitted that he knew the pictures were classified and he did so to keep these pictures in order to one day show his family and his future children what he did while he was in the Navy. Saucier will report to prison. (P28, P29, P30 by deletion macrorules)

Some propositions or part of them acquire no importance at macro level in spite of their importance at micro level such as (P5, P7, P8, P9, P18, P19, P22, P28, P29, and P30). Thus, these propositions were reduced at the first step of macrostructure interpretation. At the second level of macrostructure, the following two macro-propositions can be extracted:
Macrostructure 2:
1-A judge sentenced a navy machinist to one year in prison, a fine, serve home confinement, banned from firearm and perform community service for taking photos inside a submarine. (M1, M5, M6 construction macrorule)

2-Defense attorney said the FIB's decision not to charge Mrs. Clinton for similar crimes should be taken into consideration at sentencing. He wrote it would be unjust and unfair to receive any sentence other than probation for a crime those more powerful than him, will likely avoid. Nonetheless, he thinks Clinton defense played a part in earning one year in prison when he faced upwards. (M2, M3, M4 by deletion macrorule). However, Macro-proposition that remains at the highest level of macrostructure is:

Macrostructure 3
A judge sentenced a Navy machinist for a crime those more powerful than him, will likely to avoid. (By construction and generalization macrorules)

Schematic Superstructure
Van Dijk (1988) states that "Schemata are used to describe the overall form of discourse. Schemata have a fixed, conventional (and therefore culturally variable) nature for each type of text (35)". Schematic categories involve:

Summary
It summarizes the main events in a news and consists of headline and lead:

**Headline**
It tells the reader what the story is about. It is the core idea of a text (Crystal, 1992). It is a unit that stands alone and abstracts the story as it is entirely derived from it.(van Dijk,2007).

Clearly, "Judge unconvinced by ‘Clinton defense’ in Navy machinist’s sentencing over classified sub photos" is the headline that is the basis of the topic of the story. It should be written alone and above the news story. It summarizes the main concern of the story. It gives an answer to three questions: who, what, why. The rest questions such as when, where and how will be answered throughout the main events. While,"A federal judge on Friday sentenced former Navy machinist Kristian Saucier to one year in prison and a $100 fine for taking photos inside the engine room of a nuclear submarine after the sailor’s attorneys argued for leniency by citing the FBI’s decision not to charge Hillary Clinton with mishandling classified information" is the lead of the story. In hard news, the lead is the first sentence in the story, and it uncovers the most important information about the story. It should attract the reader attention to read the whole news. The whole story is reflected in this sentence (Rich, 2003). Thus, the lead, here, gives a very destined indication about the news story. It gives answers to who, when, for whom, why and how questions. In spite of the fact that part of "how" question is answered in the lead, the rest will be clarified throughout the other categories of the story. This partial answer is considered a successful strategy that makes the readers eager to read the whole story.
Main events
After the headline and lead, all information about recent events will be organized in the main event category. It expresses the main events under focus. Van Dijk (1988) states that such context must include information about the actual situation consisting other news events. The events can be complex and form a coherent sequence or episode. Sometimes, there are several events. This schematic category is recursive. It can be repeated many times (Van Dijk, 1983). In the news story under study, part of this category is embedded in the lead as the main event is mentioned in the lead which is realized in P1, P2, P3 and P4 and which reports type of judgement, upon whom, and identifies the figure which plays an important role in obtaining this kind of sentence.

Consequences
This part of news story organizes all the events that result from the main event. The worthiness of social and political events is measured by their consequences. This category contains information about actions and events that followed and caused by the main event. These consequences can be measured through the apparent of causal coherence in the news events(Van Dijk, 1988). Hence, the consequences of the main event in the news story under study is manifested in P12.

Background
Background refers to the insertion of information that is not part of the current event but gives political, social, historical and social context to these events (Van Dijk, 1983). This information is considered explanatory one which clarifies the worthiness of the story. Van Dijk (1986) distinguishes between two types of backgrounds: present and past. The "present" deals with all actual situations during which the main event takes place and is marked by the use of words such as "during," "while," "at the same time" or "simply in." "Past" deals with previous events that are not part of the current event but are relevant to the main event and even to its consequences. As far as the news story under study is concerned, The past background event is clearly manifested in two concerned events: The first one is highly connected with the main event of the story and clearly shown in P3, P8 and P28, in which the action that makes the machinist guilty and gets the sentence of the court is manifested clearly while the second background is highly connected with the consequences of the main event and shows a great relevance with the case of the main event. This background can be manifested in P4, P6, P10, P11, and P17. In these propositions, there is a clear description of the case of Hillary Clinton and its effect on the judge's sentence. Moreover, this background has a political and social impact on the readers through making a comparison between the powerful people and ordinary ones and how they are treated by law differently. This background reflects the worthiness of the news story as it plays an important role on both social and political levels. It gives value to the news story understudy.

Comments
Comments, opinions, and evaluation of the journalist appear in news discourse. Comment is an optional discourse category that consists of two subcategories: verbal reactions and conclusions. The first one can be regarded as a special case of consequences that states opinions that are objective and not necessarily be the journalist's opinion. Conclusion, on the other hand, maintains expectations and evaluations in which expectation is concerned with possible consequences of the main events while evaluation shows the evaluative opinions concerning the
actual news events (Van Dijk, 1988). Scanning the news story understudy, it is obvious that some propositions that belong to consequences appear to have one of the comment subcategories such as P12, which shows the evaluative opinion about the consequences of the main event. P6 is another case of comments; it reveals the expectation about the main event.

**Narrative Structures**

**Abstract**

The abstract captures the main points of the story. It has the same function as the lead. The journalist's primary abstract of the story can be manifested in the lead. According to the reader, the first abstract of the story can be seen in the headline. The lead realized by P1, P2 and P3 is the abstract of the story with reference to the most important expected consequences. P1/A federal judge on Friday sentenced former Navy machinist Kristian Saucier to one year in prison P2/and a $100 fine P3/ for taking photos inside the engine room of a nuclear submarine after the sailer's attorneys argued for leniency by citing the FBI's decision not to charge Hillary Clinton with mishandling classified information. These three propositions show the main points of the news story by answering briefly the questions who, when, for whom, what, why and a partial answer to how question.

**Orientations**

The orientation sets the scene by specifying the actors (persons involved), place and time of the events. In this case, news story understudy involves: federal judge P1, Kristian Saucier P1, Hilary Clinton P4, Stefan Underhill P5, defense attorney P10, Drick Hogan P11, Greg Rinkey P17, Rinckey P19, Prosecutors P21. Whereas, the place is identified as "court." The temporal setting is identified in P1 which indicates the time of judgement which is "Friday"; P8 shows the time the machinist took photos while he was working in USS Alexandria's classified system in 2009: P9 uncovers the time when the machinist pleaded guilty in May 2016, and in P29 as it shows that Saucier will report to prison in October.

**Action**

It has been stressed that news stories do not follow chronological order while in personal narrative the sentences should be ordered in temporal sequences. Bell (1991:153) states that the time structure in news stories may appear in reverse order in that the result appears before the action because the action or the process does not take the priority but the outcome as in P1 which denotes the sentence which is the outcome of P3, P7, P28. These propositions show the cause of condemning the Navy machinist. This case is an example of a reverse order of actions because news story should start with the most important information down to background and comments. Also, major news actors are indicated in P1 federal judge, P1 Kristian Saucier, P4 Hilary Clinton, P5 Stefan Underhill, P10 defense attorney, P11 Drick Hogan, P17 Greg Rinkey, and P21 Prosecutors.

**Evaluation**

This is the narrative part that reveals the journalist's opinions, attitudes and emotions towards the events to present the importance of what is being written. In news story, the Lead is the core of evaluation as its function is to make the story focus in a particular direction (Bell, 1991). The Lead of the news story here, is realized in P1, P2, P3 and P4 in which not only the summary of the news is stated but also the news direction, hence, in spite of the fact that P1, P2, and P3
reveal the main events the news is about, yet, P4 gives an indication to the most important point which should have its effect on the judge decision. In addition, many evaluated propositions can be manifested such as P6 and P12 in both propositions; Hilary Clinton case is mentioned, and how it may affect the decision of the judge and if the desired change in the decision will not obtain, the matter will appear to lack justice and fair as shown in P12.

Resolution
Bell (1991) states that news stories do not give clear results and when they do, the result will be manifested in the Lead rather than at the end of the story. Thus, news stories are like a serial not a story with beginning, middle and end. Thus, P1 and P2 are parts of the Lead that reveal the result.

Coda
Coda serves as an optional conclusion in a narrative story to mark its finish and go back to the conversational mode. This function is not necessary for news story where the floor is not open (Bell, 1991).

Cohesion Analysis
The chosen hard news story is analyzed and appendix (1) displays the result of cohesive analysis.

Conclusion
It has been noticed that the chosen news story has a very complex discourse structure and that the analysis of English news stories in terms of macrostructures, superstructures, narrative structures and cohesion is relevant in giving an account of it in which deletion macrorule is considered the most important category in the formulation of different levels of macrostructure. The main topic of the news story is manifested through applying macrorules. The schema categories do not have fixed order. They are highly recurrent in news discourse. Headline represents the highest level of the macrostructure. Headline, lead, and main events are obligatory in writing news stories. Lead has two functions: it summarizes and introduces the main events. The writer of the news presents an intelligent headline and lead in which he gives the core of the story leaving some of the information to be clarified throughout the article to make the readers eager to read the whole news article. In addition, the writer displays the consequences of the events in such a way that make the news have a social and political impact on the readers. Such consequences can have a clear impact on the reader. The writer of this news story aims at not only conveying information but arising the voice of protest against the government and the court of justice. The background information, in which the writer presents two cases: the former sailor's case and Hilary Clinton's, is cleverly woven to reach the earlier mentioned aim. In spite of the fact that comment is an optional discourse category, conclusion and reaction which are subcategories of comment are manifested clearly through giving an evaluated result to the event supports the writer's aim. This finding does reflect an opinion which is objective and can be realized by the majority of readers. The narrative structure of this news story is very complex. Highly specific types of cohesive devices are manifested in news discourse like repetition and synonymy as lexical cohesion and reference and conjunctions as grammatical cohesion.
Textual Architecture of a Selected Hard News in English

Kadhum

About the author
Suadad Fadhil Kadhum, is an instructor in the department of English at the University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq. She has M.A. in English language and linguistics and she has been teaching at university since 1999. She published several papers concerning my major. Her research interest is discourse, pragmatics, stylistics and cognitive issues.

References
Appendix A: Classification and frequencies of the used cohesive ties with their antecedents

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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<th>Cohesive tie</th>
<th>Antecedent</th>
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<td>Grammatical</td>
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### Textual Architecture of a Selected Hard News in English

**Kadhum**

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**4- Conjunction**

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<td>And 28 second part</td>
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| 1 | c-causal | For P3 | P2 |

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<td>Nevertheless P17</td>
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**Lexical cohesion**

| 14 | 1-Repetition | Saucier P1 | P7, P11, P12, P27, P28, |
### Textual Architecture of a Selected Hard News in English

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<td>P7 USS Alexandria's classified propulsion system</td>
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### Appendix B

Judge unconvinced by ‘Clinton defense’ in Navy machinist’s sentencing over classified sub photos
Former sailor will spend year in prison, pay $100 fine
By Andrew Blake - The Washington Times - Saturday, August 20, 2016

A federal judge on Friday sentenced former Navy machinist Kristian Saucier to one year in prison and a $100 fine for taking photos inside the engine room of a nuclear submarine after
the sailor’s attorneys argued for leniency by citing the FBI’s decision not to charge Hillary Clinton with mishandling classified information. U.S. District Judge Stefan Underhill never explicitly named the Democratic presidential candidate in announcing his sentencing Friday, but attorneys for the sailor said they believe invoking the so-called “Clinton defense” may have helped their client avoid additional time behind bars. Saucier, 29, admitted to taking a half-dozen photos of the USS Alexandria’s classified propulsion system while working as a machinist in its engine room in 2009. He pleaded guilty in May 2016 to one count of unauthorized possession and retention of national defense information. In court documents filed earlier this month, defense attorneys said the FBI’s decision not to charge Mrs. Clinton for similar crimes related to her use of a private email server should be taken into consideration at sentencing.

“Mr. Saucier possessed six (6) photographs classified as ‘confidential/restricted,’ far less than Clinton’s 110 emails,” attorney Derrick Hogan wrote. It would be “unjust and unfair for Mr. Saucier to receive any sentence other than probation for a crime those more powerful than him will likely avoid,” the lawyer added. Instead, Judge Underhill said the sailor had done something “beyond stupid,” and equated his actions with those of a motorist being pulled over for speeding amid a freeway full of careless drivers, CNN reported from the hearing in Bridgeport, Connecticut. “Selective enforcement is really not a good argument … those arguments don’t really carry much water,” Judge Underhill said, according to the network.

“We need to make sure that every service person understands the consequences of playing fast and loose with important information,” he said. Nonetheless, defense attorney Greg Rinckey told U.S. News & World Report that he thinks the legal team’s Clinton defense played a part in earning the sailor only one year in prison when he faced upwards of six.

“He cryptically made some comments about selective prosecution and how that didn’t play any factor. Do I think it may have? Sure. But I think there was enough mitigation that the judge was able to depart from the sentencing guidelines [on that basis alone],” Rinckey says. Following the defense’s invoking of the Clinton case in court documents before sentencing, prosecutors responded with a filing of their own taking aim at their argument. “The defendant is grasping at highly imaginative and speculative straws in trying to further draw a comparison to the matter of Sec. Hilary (sic) Clinton based upon virtually no understanding and knowledge of the facts involved, the information at issue, not to mention any issues of intent and knowledge,” prosecuting attorneys wrote. In addition to the 12-month prison sentence, Judge Underhill ordered Saucier to serve six months of home confinement following his release and to perform 100 hours of community service. He’s also been asked to pay an $100 fine and has been banned from owning firearms, his attorneys told U.S. News.

By entering a guilty plea, Saucier avoided an obstruction of justice charge related to his attempt to destroy the cell phone that stored the photos. “Mr. Saucier admitted that he knew when he took the pictures in 2009 that they were classified and that he did so out of the misguided desire to keep these pictures in order to one day show his family and his future children what he did while he was in the Navy,” his attorneys told the court. Saucier will report to prison in October and is “most concerned with being able to return home to his family,” Mr. Rinckey told U.S. News.
Environmental Messages as Found in Indonesian Folklore and Its Relation to Foreign Language Classroom

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English Education Study Program  
STKIP PGRI Pasuruan, Indonesia

Abstract  
Folklore is rich of values derived from local wisdom and local cultures. Certain folklores deliver narrative to respect and protect nature, either presented literally or symbolically. This study is aimed at identifying and describing Indonesian folklores which contain environmental messages, and investigating the English teachers' perception of Secondary Schools about the use of Indonesian folklores for their teaching language skills. The study uses qualitative approach focused on content analysis by using mainly documentation instrument. To deepen the analysis, the interview was used to find out whether these follokes are applicable and appropriate for foreign language classes. The result shows that there are 17 Indonesian folklores that present environmental messages either implicitly or explicitly. The messages found in the folklores are firstly, catastrophe happens because of human's greed and misconducts to nature, and secondly it is human himself who can prevent the disaster to happen. Used in foreign language classes, folklore can help the teacher to train the students' language and communication skills in reading, speaking and writing, at the same time it helps them to build awareness to the protection for the environment, enrich the cultural literacy, cultivate respectful behavior, and train their critical thinking ability.

Keywords: EFL Teachers’ perceptions, Environmental messages, Foreign language teaching, Indonesian folklore

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Introduction
Nowadays, the exploration of natural resources and industrial development in the field of economics often lead to environmental damage. The anthropocentric behaviour which is said to be on the behalf the welfare proved to be unfavourable for the environment. The natural disaster, just to name a few, such as flood, draught, famine, and extreme weather condition, are not uncommon as they are shown almost every day on mass media. Indonesia, a nation which is rich in cultures, ethnicities and natural resources, lies in the equator surrounded by the ring of fire. The natural disaster caused by the evolution of nature, such as earth quakes and volcano eruptions have become 'friends ' for Indonesian people. However, when natural disasters are caused by human interference, the occurrences become unpredictable and unanticipated. The damage may deliver broader impacts not only to people but also to other ecological life.

To prevent this from happening, there should be real and integrated actions between the government and the community to raise awareness of the danger of human misconducts toward nature, to lessen the impact of the disaster if it occurs , and to build optimism to maintain life in sustainable manner. One way for doing this is through education. Education enables younger generation to be the agent of change. Through education, the young generation learns the value of respect and love , and learn that they should live side by side with their environment, and make them aware that they need nature to sustain life.

The responsibility for taking participation in environmental protection belongs not only to the government, environmentalists, scientists, and human right activists, but to language teachers as well. Cates (1990) believes that language teachers have at least two reasons of why they should care about global problems. The first reason is ethical reason, and the second reason is personal reason. He argues that the profession of being language teacher has moral responsibility for society to apply his specialty for taking participation in solving world problems. He strongly believes that it is not right for language teachers to focus only on their teaching of language and communication skills, but ignore the global problems that lay ahead. Therefore, incorporating global issues , such as environmental awareness , in language classes is strongly suggested because, after all, these issues are content-based and theme-based (Cates, 1990; Gursoy, 2010; Gursoy & Saglam, 2011).

As suggested by Cates (1990), the incorporation of global issues in language classes can take many forms, such as through the teaching methodology, course design, activities outside the classroom, and teaching materials. A type of instructional material which is rich in life values is folklore that includes legend, myths, and tales. Folklore is basically an oral tradition passed down from generation to generation that is rich in lessons of wisdom. It also offers, initiates, stimulates, and even mobilizes certain values of life. The moral values found in folklore can be in the form of individual morality, social morality, moral divinity, and nature morality (Sukmawan, 2016). He further states that in relation to nature morality, folklore teaches that human being must seek balanced life with nature, in which human should make adjustment to the environment in a good and right way and consider nature as a source of life. The use of folklore as instructional materials can contribute to the shaping of sensitive mentality of young generation, not only to appreciate life but also to the efforts of rescuing and preserving the environment as well as triggering awareness of the potential catastrophe caused by human ignorance to the environment (Sukmawan, 2016).
Indonesia, as an archipelago nation, has thousands of folklores belongs to hundreds of tribes living in the islands. These folklores, if all are documented properly, can become valuable teaching resources for foreign language classes oriented to local culture and local wisdom. In its position as a literary work, Indonesian folklore has a set of literary characteristics and has a potential to be the object of literary criticism. In its function as a medium of representation attitude, outlook, and the public response to the surrounding environment, the Indonesian folklore potentially brings the idea of the environment, including the values of environmental wisdom. This is reasonable since Indonesian folklore developed and sourced from their natural environment.

Folklore as literary works benefits language learners in many ways. It enriches the students’ competence in linguistics and cultural awareness as well as introducing the students with real life context and triggering their personal involvement (Floris, 2004). Floris (2004) further argues that literature has its richness to be used in EFL classroom. Similarly, Rahimi (2014) also says that literature has an important role in helping the students to achieve its best. In addition, Babaee & Yahya (2014) confirm that literature is an influential tool in foreign language teaching.

In relation to the research on the use of literature in language teaching, some researchers are interested to find out how literary work benefits learners. Setyowati (2016) analyzes the students’ ability to write essays by using literary works. The result shows that many students are able to state their thesis in the introduction, although they are not able to develop their essay based on the thesis. Other finding also shows that only twenty five percent of the students that are able to restate their thesis in the conclusion and two thirds of them produce less than 250 words essay. Fabusuyi (2014) conducted a study focusing on the use of folktales for teaching German. He concludes that the use of folktales in foreign language classroom are practical and effective since they serve not only as authentic materials for language teaching, but also provide the cultural awareness and the value of appreciation for other individuals.

Unfortunately, not many researchers work in the area of environmental literature which focused on Indonesian folklore. However, few still can be found. Firstly, Sukmawan (2014) investigates the verbal folklore used by Arjuna Slope people in East Java. He finds out that the verbal folklore used by the community contains many apocalyptic ideas which are identifiable from the story of the giving names of certain places in the area, such as the name of the village, and the name of the sacred sites in the region. Secondly, a study conducted by Kaltsam & Utami (2015) who explore the type of Indonesian folklore appropriates for teaching English to young learners. They use Javanese and Sumatran folklore under study and investigate the intrinsic elements of the folklore. The result of the research shows that Lake Toba, Roro Jonggrang, Timun Mas, Malin Kundang, and Ande - Ande Lumut are the folklores appropriate for young learners development since they contain religious, individual, and social values.

In relation to language teaching, the previous studies only see the use of folklore from the point of view of the students and in how folklore benefits them. Moreover, the previous researcher also only explores the values dealing with human to human relationship and human and self relationship. In this present research, the folklores studied are those that revolve around the origins of a place or the name of a particular area, such as mountains, lakes, swamps, water
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spring, and hills. Nurcahyo (2014: 17-18) states that these sort of folklores are included in the geo-culture or geo-mythology because they attempt to associate the relevance of culture, myths, legends, folklore of an area with geological events. Within Indonesian context, there are many folklores featuring disastrous events caused by human behavior. A type of folklore that display the events of destruction of nature implicitly or explicitly can be called as apocalyptic literature (Thompson, 1997; Garrard, 2004). This present study, therefore, is aimed at investigating the Indonesian folklores that deliver environmental values either literally or symbolically, and how the English teachers perceive the use of folklore in their language classes.

Method

This research uses qualitative content analysis design as it attempts to describe objectively the apocalyptic literature represented by Indonesian folklore. The procedure of the research is to analyze the text content that results in descriptive data, that is in the form of words and sentences. The instrument used to analyze the data is mainly documentation. The researchers documented Indonesian folklore published in the collection of Indonesian folklore books. The data collection of the folklore took place in December 2016, and January 2017 for the interview. There were 60 Indonesian folklores from 16 Indonesian provinces. These narratives were published by Skylar Books entitled Dongeng dan Cerita Rakyat Nusantara written by Siregar in 2015 and published by Pustaka Agung Harapan Surabaya, entitled Kumpulan Dongeng Binatang written by Ikranegara (In press). The researchers synthesized Thompson (1997) and Garrard (2004) ideas to set up the indicators of apocalyptic literature, a type of literature that features environmental disaster. Simple codification was used to ease the researchers to analyze the data. Based on the list of indicators, the Indonesian folklores categorized in the apocalyptic literature were reduced into 17 folklore appropriate with the indicators.

To answer the research problem in relation to whether the folklore is relevant to be used for teaching foreign language, the researchers used interview. The researchers interviewed the English teachers in secondary school in Pasuruan, East Java, Indonesia. There were six English teachers interviewed by the researchers by using semi guided interview. The questions on the interview ranges of whether the teachers have applied Indonesian folklore in their teaching of language skills, the reasons why they chose the story, its relation to environmental issue, the advantages of using them for language classes, and how they used them. Simple codification was used to analyze the data of the interview.

Finding and Discussion

Indonesian Folklore with Environmental Messages

Based on the theory of Apocalyptic literature, it was found that there are 17 folklores that fulfill the criteria. The criteria of apocalyptic literature are synthesized from Thompson (2007) and Garrard (2004). Two stands out characteristics of this type of literature are firstly, the narrative has a crisis because the world is in catastrophe as a result of the destruction of nature in which the damage cannot be reversed and secondly, the story tells about the end of the world with the basic theme is the fight between the good and the evil.

Human Causes

Based on the data, the environmental messages found in folklores are classified into two, namely the cause and the prevention. Firstly, natural disaster can happen because of human's
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greed, rage, stubbornness, and disobedience. There are 12 Indonesian folklores belong to this group. They are the folklores that come from North Sumatra (The Origins of Lake Toba, Samosir Hill), West Sumatra (The Origin of Maninjau Island, Malin Kundang), Riau (The Legend of Senua Island, The Origin of Dumai), Jambi (The Origin of Negeri Lempur), Bengkulu (The Origin of Tes Lake, The Legend of Balai Stone), West Java (Sangkuriang, The origin of Cianjur), and Bali (Calon Arang). In other words, the disaster happens because it is ‘encouraged’ by the character.

One of the examples of the narratives is The Origin of Tes Lake from Bengkulu. The story tells about a powerful man, named The Bitter Tongue who cut down trees in the forest to make paddy field. He threw away all the soil he shoved to the river every day.

The Bitter Tongue started his job by cutting down the trees with his axe and cleared the bush with a machete. After that, he was soon plowing the vacant land, and threw the soil into Air Ketahuan River. (HC/The Origin of Tes Lake, p.50)

In the narrative, he had been reminded by the people and the elder of the Kutei Donok Village not to cut down the trees too many and not to throw the soil to the river because it would clog the stream and could drown the village. But he was so stubborn and ignorant because of his ambition to planting paddy as much as he can. In the end, the piling soil formed an island that stopped the flow of the river. Then the overflow water drowned the entire village.

The story of Tes Lake shows a clear message that excessive land conversion became the beginning of the emergence of environmental disaster. The human greed of wanting more have caused problems not only for himself, but also for other people. Human behavior becomes the central node of all mischief on the earth, including environmental damage.

The example of the narrative which symbolically deliver environmental message is the story of Malin Kundang from North Sumatra. This folklore is so famous that almost every Indonesian and Malayan are familiar with it. The story tells about a boy named Malin Kundang who lived with his old mother. They lived poorly until one day Malin Kundang decided to go on a sail, and saw a merchant's ship raided by a small band of pirates. He helped the merchant and defeated the pirates. As a sign of a thankfulness, the merchant asked Malin Kundang to sail with him. Years passed, and Malin Kundang became the merchant himself, had a beautiful wife, and a good life. One day, his ship anchored in his village. People recognized him and told Malin's mother. The poor lady went to see Malin Kundang because she missed him. But Malin denied her because he was ashamed of his old, poor and ugly mother. He expelled his mother from his ship and set a sail.

Malin pushed his mother and denied her. Malin’s mother was very sad. She cried and prayed to God to turned his son into a stone. Thunderstorm came and the sea became angry. The huge wave wrecked and drowned the ship with all people in it, but it threw Malin Kundang away to an island. There, he turned into a stone. (HC/Malin Kundang, p.19)

In Indonesia, the figure of a mother is highly respected. The Indonesians called their home (country) as Ibu Pertiwi or the motherland. The values of respectfulness to a mother come
from Islamic teachings and cultural norms. Therefore, since in early childhood, kids are taught to respect their parents, especially their mother, and were forbidden to speak loud to them. For Minangkau people in North Sumatra, it is believed that God will get angry if the son/daughter makes the mother angry (Yusriwal, 2014). Reading at a glance, this story seems to have nothing to do with environmental messages. But, the world of literature works with symbols. Plant (1980) asserts that women have long been associated with nature because women and nature share many similar characteristics, such as having the traits of sensitivity, submissiveness, a giver and supporter of life in which both have two faces, one, submissive and nurturing; the other " wild and uncontrollable " as was the storms, droughts, earthquakes, hurricane, and other natural disasters.

If the narrative is analyzed further, Malin's mother can be symbolized as the motherland. When Malin treated his mother badly, nature became angry and disaster happened. The sea drowned his ship with every innocent person on board. In reality, that would happen if human treats the nature badly. The act of a person that damages the environment would affect other people. Those who are innocent would also suffer from one's misconducts.

**Human Prevents**

Secondly, the natural disasters are prevented from spreading wider because human has intention to stop the catastrophe. Some Indonesian folklores have a hero/heroin character that becomes the savior of others by defeating the evil and prevent disaster because he/she has power to do so. The folklores that belong to this category are *The Legend of Timun Mas and Ajisaka* (Central Java), *Si Kelingking* (Jambi), *The Legend of Bali Strait* (Bali), *The Legend of Gading Cempaka Princess* (Bengkulu), *Beru Dayang* (North Sumatra).

One of the example of the narrative in the second category is *Beru Dayang*, a folklore from North Sumatra. The folklore tells about an extreme drought and a famine that endanger human life. Two children found a strange plant which was the incarnation of *Beru Dayang*, a child who died of hunger. A voice told the king to plant the seeds and to take care of it to end the disaster. From the story, it can be seen that the value was transferred to the reader to always take care of the nature so that the same crisis would not repeat itself.

When the King and the people gathered around to see the fruit, suddenly a voice from the sky was heard, saying that the fruit was the incarnation of a boy, named *Beru Dayang*. The voice ordered the people to plant the seed of the fruit and to take care of it very carefully. ...If the request was carried out, the people would never starve. (HP/Beru Dayang, p.8).

Other well-known folklore in Indonesian context is the tale of *Timun Mas* or the Golden Cucumber from Central Java. The story is about an old widow who wanted to have a child. She prayed and a giant heard it. The giant had her magical cucumber seeds and said that a baby would come out from the cucumber. In the deal, the giant said that he would eat the child if it was a girl, but he would let the child alive if it was a boy. It turned out that the baby was a girl and she grew up into a beautiful one. She was named *Timun Mas* (The Golden Cucumber). The giant came to the widow's hut to eat the girl, but the widow asked *Timun Mas* to run away before the giant arrived at their hut.
“Timun Mas, I’m happier of you go. The giant will eat you alive if you stay. Here, take these with you. Use these whenever you are in danger.”

The old widow gave Timun Mas some magical stuffs; cucumber seeds, needles, salt, and shrimp paste. (HP/Timun Mas, p.109)

In the narrative, it was told that whenever the giant almost caught her, Timun Mas threw each of the magical stuff. The cucumber seeds became a wide cucumber field, the needles became the bamboo forest, the salt became the sea and the shrimp paste became a quicksand. In the end, the giant was tired chasing, and drowned in the ocean of quicksand. This folklore is a survival narrative and full of symbolisms. The giant is the symbol of disaster, and the magical stuffs brought by Timun Mas are symbols of nature. When human befriended with nature, the disaster can be prevented if not minimized.

The environmental messages delivered by folklores either explicitly or implicitly show the importance of treating nature appropriately or maintain balanced relationship. Folklore which contains the beliefs system can help human to have decent attitudes to the environment that can play an important role in conservation practices (Schmonsky, 2012). Disaster happens because of two things. Firstly, it happens because of a change in natural phenomenon (natural disaster), and secondly because man made them as a result of human negligence (man-made disaster) (Adams, 2011). The man-made disaster, such as forest fires, draught, floods, and global warming are the natural response of the mother land because human should take responsibility for their actions. The only one that can prevent the man-made disaster is human himself by living in harmony with nature and start realizing that whatever human does to the environment, whether it is destructive or inventive, will affect other biological life.

**The Relevance of Folklores in Language Classes**

Six English teachers were interviewed by the researchers to find out their opinion of the relevance to using folklore in teaching English. The result shows that all of the teachers agree that the use of Indonesian folklores can be used to teach English especially for narrative genre.

"I think folklore can be used for teaching narrative. Yes, it's good because the students can appreciate their own culture." (Dt 1/Di/Q1)

"Sure can. Folklores are included in narrative text which have to be taught to the secondary level students." (Dt2/ld/Q1)

"Yes Sure. Myth and legend are in the form of narrative. I think they are folklore too. I use it for writing materials." (Dt 3/Ba/Q1)

When the teachers were asked how they applied folklore in their teaching to teach particular skills, they came up with different answers.

"I use folklore for teaching narrative reading. The students are familiar with the story, only that it is written in different language." (Dt 1/Di/Q2)
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"I use Indonesian folklore for narrative speaking. In my class the students do retelling stories. I often use Malin Kundang, a folklore from West Sumatra. Well, sometimes I use Western folklore as well." (Dt 4/An/Q2)

"I use folklore usually for writing skill." (Dt 3/Ba/Q2)

For speaking activity, folklore can be presented only in pictures without words. The students tell the series of events illustrated with the series of pictures and retell them. Research shows that the use of Indonesian folklore pictures series can enhance the students' speaking ability in narrative text (Mirza, 2014). In her research, the students were given a set of picture series of Indonesian folklore, then they were asked to retell them.

The researchers also asked the teachers why they choose to use folklores in their classes. Most of them said that Indonesian folklores are rich in moral values and cultural values. Furthermore, some of the folklores are rich in symbols that represent nature.

"Indonesian folklores are good for the students. They will not only learn the language, but also the moral value of the story. They should not forget themselves as being Indonesians, the root and the culture. Folklore can help them to preserve their identities." (Dt 5/Id/Q3)

"Some Indonesian folklores talk about nature. We need environmental literature especially these days, when the issues of environmental problems are widely talked. We need to recall a type of literature that talks about environment so that the students can learn the value of being friendly with the nature." (Dt 3/Ba/Q3)

"The students will be familiar with their own culture, and they will not feel being a stranger in their own community. Folklores give a lot of moral values, values to other people and values to the environment." (Dt 4/An/Q3)

"I think the students will not only learn the language, but also the cultural and moral value found in the story. They can also appreciate their environment better if the folklores talk about environmental issues." (Dt6/It/Q3)

The answer of the respondents shows that they are aware of the responsibilities to make the students appreciative to their own culture and identity, as well as aware of the environmental problems. This is line as suggested by Cates (1990), that teachers have moral and personal responsibilities to solve global issues. As teaching materials folklore is rich in cultural values and some are rich in environmental values. Magliocco (1992) states that folklore is an ideal instruments for bridging the linguistics aspects and culture. She further states that the use of folklore in language teaching can broaden not only the language competence but also values, history, and other world issues knowledge.

Some teachers gave information how they used folklores in their language classes. The instruction used by teachers was a step by step procedure before they finally came to the targeted skill.
Content Analysis of the Pedagogical Content Knowledge  
Sukmawan & Setyowati

"This is how I do it. I give them the pictures related to the folklore, then I ask them to read the story. Then we discuss the structure before the students retell the story in their own words" (Dt 4/An/Q4)

"For teaching narrative reading, I often use folklore. But I use pictures to help students understand the story. I use picture series." (Dt1/Di/Q4)

"First, give students the model text, then we discuss its generic structure. The students are stimulated to mention other folklore they are familiar with. After that, they are instructed to make the narrative text in paragraphs." (Dt3/Ba/Q4)

The use of folklore in language class may utilize pictures as instructional aids. The use of picture series for narrative is considered appropriate because pictures series help the students to understand the events occur in the story better. Research has shown that the use of picture series can improve the students' ability in narrative writing (Gutierrez, Puello & Garvis, 2015), in narrative reading (Fitriyaningsih, Sutarsyah, & Simanjuntak, 2013), and in narrative speaking (Windihastuti, 2013). The teacher also presents the model text before asking the students to write by using folklore. Through the use of model text, the students can identify the structure of genre and model it for their production. Setyowati & Widiati (2014) state that presenting the students with the model text is helpful for the student not only to get the idea of how the text is constructed that is the orientation, conflicts, and resolution, but also the diction, tenses, and phrases to connect the events. It can be concluded that to make folklore is effectively used in foreign language classes, the teacher should help the students with instructional aids, such as picture series, and present the model text before asking the students to produce one.

Conclusion

Folklores are rich of values. They are derived from the beliefs system of a particular community and region. Folklores help human to act accordingly with their surrounding preserving their culture and nature. In Indonesia, there are particular folklores which present environmental messages either literally, or symbolically. Some folklores use feminim word, such as mother to symbolize nature (earth). There are two messages brought by the folklore in the study, namely, human is basically the cause of the disaster because of the negligence and wrong treatment to nature, and human himself who can stop, or at least minimize, the disaster. The man-made disaster can be stopped only if human lives side by side with nature, respect it, and use the resources accordingly, setting aside the basic human trait, that is greed and arrogance.

The folklore with ecological messages can be used for teaching language skills as a type of instructional materials. These folklores can cultivate a character to love, respect, and protect nature within individuals as well as sharpen their cultural literacy. To be used effectively in foreign language classes, the teachers need to use instructional media and present a step by step instruction to enable the learners maximize their communication skills.

This research however, has some limitations. This research does not cover in what way folklore benefits learners either in receptive skills or productive skills. The information whether folklore with ecological messages is able to increase the students environmental awareness as reflected on their language performance also remains unknown. Therefore, future researchers are...
suggested to investigate those areas to have better understanding how folklores indeed help learners in learning and acquiring the foreign language.

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<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Details</th>
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<td>Mirza, I.E.Z. (2014)</td>
<td><em>The Effect Of Using Indonesian Folklore Pictures In Series On The Eleventh Grade Students' Speaking Achievement In Story-Telling At Sman Arjasa In The 2012/2013 Academic Year.</em></td>
<td>(Unpublished Undergraduate Thesis), Universitas Jember, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education.</td>
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Do Multiple Intelligences Improve EFL Students’ Critical Reading Skills?

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Abstract
This study examines the potential effect of a program based on multiple intelligences on improving the Jordanian tenth grade English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students’ critical reading skills in English. The researcher claims that multiple intelligences strategies have the potential to provide a suitable resource to empower the quality of TEFL in Jordan. The study follows a quasi-experimental design in which an experimental group and a control group were purposefully chosen from AzZarqa First Directorate of Education (Jordan). In the experimental group, 30 students were taught by multiple intelligences strategies and 29 students of control group were taught by the conventional teaching method as outlined in the teacher’s book. A pre-post achievement test was utilized. The findings reveal statistically significant differences at (α ≤ 0.05) between the two mean scores of experimental and control groups in the post-test in favor of experimental group. The study recommends to examine the effect of using multiple intelligences on EFL students’ achievement in other language skills and sub skills. A number of implications are put forth to enhance the students’ critical reading ability.

Key words: critical reading, EFL students, multiple intelligences

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Introduction and Background
Reading in general and critical reading in particular are considered among the most significant language skills (El-Maleh, 2006). Critical reading has taken much attention from researchers and educational practitioners (e.g., Andrews, 2006; Okeke, 2010) to cope with the expansion of knowledge and information which requires a critical reader not a naïve reader. Moreover, critical reading skills help in being competent in the technological revolution.

Although critical reading skills are necessary for all learners, the literature has a plethora of research (see, for example, AbdKadir, Nsubki, Jamal & Juhaiaida, 2014; Al Balushi, & Osman 2013; Al-Oqaili, 2007; El-Maleh, 2013) which show that the learners lack the ability to use the critical reading skills adequately. However, critical reading skills help students to analyze, synthesize and evaluate what is read. They also give the students the ability to be critical thinkers, see the cause and the effect, compare between ideas and be fully aware of reasons of reading (AbdKadir, et al 2014). Tashman, Alkhrash, Almasaeed & Almqasqas (2012) state that there is a general consensus among educational practitioners and researchers that developing thinking is considered one of the vital aims to improve students' learning. Moreover, the Ministry of Education has recommended the inclusion and the development of learners' thinking ability. (Ministry of Education, 2006).

Varied definitions have been given to critical reading. While Harris and Hodges (1981, p.74) state that critical reading is the “process of making judgment in reading; evaluating relevancy and adequacy of what is read ....and inferences are used to judge the worth of what is read according to established standard?”, Collins (1993) points out that critical reading is the learner’s ability to draw inferences, reach to conclusions, make decisions, solve problems, develop reasoning, compare ideas, formulate hypothesis, and evaluate ideas, events, characters and situations. Freeley and Steinberg (2000) add that critical thinking is "the ability to analyze, criticize, and advocate ideas; to reason inductively and deductively; and to reach realistic or judgmental conclusions based on sound inferences drawn from unambiguous statements of knowledge or belief" (p. 2).

Moreover, AbdKadir, et al. (2014) pinpoint that critical reading skills develop learners’ ability to be critical thinkers by looking at reading as a process rather than a product. Critical thinking skills help learners to succeed and become competent in learning the language since they can as Jawarneh, Iyadat, Al-Shudaifat, and Khasawneh (2008, p. 83) state "organize and evaluate the information they receive from reading books and by attending school". A need for new effective strategies to teach critical reading skills will have beneficial effects on students' reading ability in comprehending the reading texts.

Thus, looking for effective reading strategies may help learners to be avid readers and improve their reading abilities. Many researchers believe that multiple intelligences theory has proved their significance in helping learners succeed in their academic achievement and they played an essential role in the process of improving reading ability (cf., among many others, Hashemi, 2007; Abdullkader, Gundogdu & Eissa, 2009; Haboush, 2010; Hajhashemi, Akef & Anderson, 2012). Gardner, (1999) defines the multiple intelligences theory as “a biopsychological potential to process information in certain ways, in order to solve problems or fashion products that are valued in a culture or community.” (p.33-34).
Intelligence was considered to be a static and single construct but that was a traditional and narrow definition of intelligence (Berman, 2005). However, Gardner (2004) states that intelligence is multiple abilities rather than single ability. It is also a set of skills which allow people to master learning in various ways. Moreover, Gardner introduces three different uses of the term intelligence; it is a property of all people, there are no two people have exactly the same profile of intelligences and the way in which the individual performs a task. He pinpoints eight different intelligences which are, linguistic intelligence, spatial intelligence, logical intelligence, kinesthetic intelligence, musical intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence and natural intelligence.

Furthermore, Nolen (2003) stresses that EFL teachers should select their lessons and activities which meet all the students’ intelligences. They have to look into the EFL students’ needs to encourage them to be active and successful students. In addition, most of the students who get the appropriate encouragement and instruction will be able to develop the eight multiple intelligences. According to Armstrong (2000) multiple intelligences are gates for a great number of teaching strategies which might be easily applied in the classroom. Moreover, multiple intelligences assist teachers to use modern teaching strategies through using various activities and exercises.

Chapman (1993) suggests a great number of implications to Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences which meet the students’ levels. Some of these implications are while at least one intelligence is strengthen in each person, other intelligences are weaker which may cause distress. He also claims that the weaknesses can be strengthen with reinforcement and practice. Moreover, Modirkhamene and Azhiri (2012) points out that multiple intelligences theory which is based on reading tasks has a positive effect on students' reading ability. Students who used activities based on multiple intelligence have opportunities to overcome their problems in the process of reading. In line with Modirkhamene and Azhiri, Solmundaardottir (2008) concludes on her project that multiple intelligences can be applied in EFL classrooms by providing teachers with theme – based series of English language lesson plans based on multiple intelligence theory as well as designing various numbers of activities that meet students’ levels.

Thus, the study investigates the potential effect a program based on multiple intelligences on improving the Jordanian tenth grade students’ critical reading skills in English.

Purpose and Question of the Study

The researcher claims that multiple intelligences strategies have the potential to provide a suitable resource to empower the quality of TEFL in Jordan. Thus, the purpose of this research is examine the effect of multiple intelligences instructional Program on improving Jordanian tenth grade students’ critical reading skills in English.

More specifically, the study aims to find answers for the following question: Are there any statistically significant differences at (α ≤ 0.05) between the means scores of the students’ performance of on the critical reading test due to the teaching strategy; conventional teaching and multiple intelligences?
Significance of the Study
To the researcher’s best knowledge, few studies have investigated the effect of multiple intelligences on reading comprehension (e.g., Boudraf, 2012; Haboush, 2010). It is hoped that this study will shed light on the expected effects that the multiple intelligences strategies may have on improving students' critical reading skills. Thus, the English language curriculum designers, policy makers and teachers may find in this study some practical implications or insights for developing students' reading skills.

Literature Review
Shifting the focus from the teacher-centered model to the learner-centered one has been witnessed during the last century. This focus helps the learners to have the communicative competence. The theory of multiple intelligences was one of theories that affected the learning environment and increasing the value of language performance. (Kezar, 2001).

Gardner (1983) define human intelligence as multiple abilities which can be achieved and identified at an early age and then one can develop and expand these intelligences to the maximum. Gardner also pinpoints that IQ test alone does not show the real abilities of learners. Accordingly, multiple intelligences came to give emphasis to all of the learners' abilities.

Moreover, multiple intelligences theory allows teachers to have a close look at the students' learning in a meaningful and beneficial method. It proved to have many benefits to the students by empowering them with various activities to learn by using their strong intelligences or through enhancing their weak intelligences. (Koura & Al-Hebaishi, 2014). Eksi (2009) pinpoints that teachers are responsible for implementing the activities with different multiple intelligence strategies in order to reach all students in the classroom and to provide the opportunity for all students to learn. Barrington (2004) and Emig (1997) stated that multiple intelligences help students to be more engaged in the learning process and motivated. therefore, they will increase their confidence and their performance on standardized tests.

For each intelligence, various activities and strategies can be implemented and developed. Armstrong (2000, p.104 - 106) suggests the following activities for each intelligence as follow:

1. Verbal/linguistic: describes the ability to use words spoken and written language. The activities include reading books, word building games, student speech, storytelling, debates, writing essays, letters, stories, poetries or emails, giving presentations, using technology to write and conducting an interview.

2. Logical/mathematical: involves the ability to use the analysis, numbers and logical reasoning. This can be seen through scoring sheets, puzzles, games, translating mathematics into a formula, create a story problem, problem solving activities, logical sequential presentation, categorize facts and information, graphing activities, design and conduct an experiment and use deductive and inductive reasoning.

3. Musical intelligence: deals with music, rhythm and hearing that include write lyrics, compose music, explore sounds, present a short class musical, make an instrument and demonstrate it and create a musical game.
4. Bodily/ kinesthetic: refers to the ability of doing and moving things that includes mime, role plays, exercise in seats, marching, do a reader’s theatre, interactive spelling, design a product and make a model.

5. Spatial/ visual: refers to visual and spatial images such as mind maps, art work, visualize, make a film, invent a card game, illustrate, draw, paint, use technology, charts, and imaginative story.

6. Intrapersonal: is the ability to understand or be aware of oneself and that can be achieved through reflective journal, self-assessment activities, describe one of your personal value, process emotions and learner diaries.

7. Interpersonal: is the ability to deals with others successfully. The activities include peer review, cooperative learning, board games, pair work, group problem solving, teaching others and debate teams.

8. Naturalistic intelligence: deals with natural environment and nurture. Describing changes, drawing natural objects, planting a garden, going to the beach or mountain, dissecting animals, listening to the rain or wind and identifying plants or animals are very useful activities for this type of intelligence.

Tyler (2011) insists that students will gain much benefit if they are given a choice of activities that matches their strengths. Gardner (2004) argued that intelligences can be strengthened or weakened. Therefore, he urged schools to develop students’ intelligences. In the multiple intelligences, the role of the teacher is different in which multiple intelligences encourage teachers to know their students very well by fulfilling their needs and involve them in the learning process. Teachers should be involved as well in designing activities that contain various intelligences in one class period. Students can act out, draw or write down what they read in order to activate the kinesthetic intelligence, for example. (Haboush, 2010).

Some of the empirical evidence about multiple intelligences contribute to the improvement of reading comprehension. Lowe, Nelson, O’Donnel & Walker (2001) develop a program for improving pre-reading and reading skills. The target population consists of first and fourth classes. The fourth grade students of the target school indicated lack of critical thinking, comprehension and vocabulary. The multiple intelligences strategies were selected through daily lessons and the units of the study. The results indicate improvement in pre-reading and reading skills, listening skills, and writing abilities. An increased interest in books and reading was also developed.

Gaines & Lehmann (2002) lead a project for improving reading comprehension through the use of multiple intelligences. The sample of the study consists of fourth grade students. The instruments of the study are surveys, Illinois Standard Achievement Tests and anecdotal records. The results show that the use of multiple intelligences strategies improved reading comprehension and enhanced the students’ performance in academic area.
Dale (2004) investigates the relationship between multiple intelligences and academic achievement in reading among a sample of 288 fourth grade students. Teree list for multiple intelligences and achievement test are administered. The findings of the study reveal that there was a correlational relationship between multiple intelligences and the level of academic achievement in reading.

Albalhan (2006) identifies the effectiveness of the methods of multiple intelligences among middle school students in Kuwait in predicting better reading skills through academic performance. The sample consists of 210 students who suffer from reading difficulty. The results show that there are significant differences between the experimental and the control groups in favor of the experimental group which is taught by multiple intelligences.

Hashemi (2007) investigates the relationship between reading ability and undergraduate English major students’ multiple intelligences profiles in Islamic Azad University. The sample consists of 122 senior students from English department. IELTS test and McKenzie’s questionnaire to identify the students’ intelligences profile are used. The results show that the verbal linguistic intelligence is found to be a predictor of reading ability and there is a high correlation with between reading ability and existential intelligence.

Abdullkader (2009) investigates the effectiveness of multiple intelligences instructional program on improving fifth grade learning disabled students’ reading comprehension in word recognition. The sample consists of 30 students. Two instruments are administered word recognition test and reading comprehension test. The results show that the program affects the students positively in the experimental group on improving their reading and word recognition skills.

Haboush (2010) examines the effectiveness of instructional program based on multiple intelligences theory on eighth graders’ English reading comprehension skills. The sample consists of 65 EFL male students studying at Az-Zaitoun Preparatory ‘A’ Boys’ School in the Gaza Strip. An achievement test and weekly quizzes are administered. The results show that there are significant differences in favor of experimental group in skimming, scanning and knowing the meaning of words through context but not for making inferences and sequencing skills.

Boudraf (2012) examines the relationship between the students’ multiple intelligences and reading comprehension. The sample of the study is fifty-two English major students at Mohamed Boudiaf in Mislia in Algeria. The instruments of the study are McKenzie survey and TOEFL reading comprehension test. The results of the study reveal that there is a significant relationship between multiple intelligence profile and the reading ability. In addition, the results show that naturalistic intelligences and interpersonal intelligence as the predictors of the reading ability.

Hajhashemi (2012) investigates the relationship between multiple intelligence and reading proficiency of Iranian EFL pre-university students. The sample of the study consisted of 128 pre university students. Three instruments were used: 1) a demographic questionnaire; 2) the Persian version of Mckenzie’s multiple intelligences Inventory; and 3) a standardized reading proficiency test retrieved from paper-based TOEFL® tests. The study findings show that statistically significant difference in the mean of musical-rhythmic intelligence scores of the low
achievers and the high achievers, which is positive and stronger among the low achievers. But there is no significant difference was found between the male and female students in their reading proficiency scores.

Iyitoglu & Yildiz (2015) explore the integrated impact of multiple intelligences and reading strategies on EFL learners’ reading performance. Multiple intelligence profile, achievement test and observation checklist were administered in the study in which 60 high school EFL learners from one of the Anatolian high schools in Istanbul, Turkey participated in this study. The results of the study reveal that females are more successful than their males' counterpart in EFL reading. Moreover, the results show that those successful readers in EFL tended to use musical and intrapersonal intelligences.

There are a variety of studies that aimed to investigate the effectiveness of a proposed program based on multiple intelligences on students’ reading comprehension (for example, Abdulkader, 2002; Lowe, et al 2001; Gaines & Lehmann, 2002; Haboush, 2010). All of the studies showed that multiple intelligences strategies have a positive effect on the experimental group in reading comprehension in particular and language achievement in general (for example, Hajhashemi, 2012; Hashemi, 2007).

Subjects, Instrumentation and Data Collection and Analysis
Ninety-five tenth grade male students’ who were purposefully chosen from AzZarqa First Directorate of Education schools during the second academic year 2014-2015. One school was selected purposefully Jabal Tareq Basic School for boys. A simple toss of a coin was used to assign the two sections into an experimental group (n= 30), taught by the multiple intelligences Program and a control group (n= 29) students and taught by the conventional method as described by teacher’s book. After deciding the critical reading skills, the researcher designed different reading activities based on the multiple intelligences strategies in order to achieve the objective of the Program.

This study adopts the quasi-experimental design to investigate the effect of multiple intelligences Program on improving Jordanian tenth grade students’ critical reading skills in English due to the relevance and the nature of this study. A quantitative data is collected by using pre- and posttest.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments
To achieve the purpose of the study, the researcher designed an instructional Program based on multiple intelligences strategies which was taught to the experimental group, to improve the students’ critical reading skills and creative reading skills. After deciding the critical reading skills, the researcher designed different reading activities in order to achieve the objectives of the Program.

Moreover, the instructional Program focused on the teaching strategies that are included in the four intelligences; verbal linguistic intelligence (word game, and discussion), logical mathematical intelligence (compare and contrast, classification, problem solving and questioning), intrapersonal intelligence (personal connection, one-minute reflection) and interpersonal intelligence (group work, pair work and board game). The researcher made use of
the pre and post critical reading test instrument. The critical reading test included two reading passages with 16 multiple choice questions.

The validity of the instrument was gained by giving the test and the Program to a group of university professors, supervisors, and experienced teachers to express their views and give their suggestions. Modifications were done according to their recommendations. To achieve the reliability of the pre-/posttest, it was administered to an outside sample of 15 tenth-grade students. Two weeks later, the same test was administered to the same sample. The correlation between the first and the second administrations amounted to 0.81 which was deemed appropriate for the purpose of the research.

Data Collection
The data were collected from one school (viz., Jabal Tareq Basic for Boys) in AzZarqa First Directorate of Education. The experiment started on the 15th of March and lasted for two months (24 class sessions). At the end of the experiment, the test was re-administered to gauge any potential gain in achievement and provides grounds for comparison.

Findings and Discussion
To answer the question of the study, are there any statistically significant differences at (α ≤ 0.05) between the means scores of the students’ performance on the critical reading test due to the teaching strategy, conventional teaching, multiple intelligences? the means and standard deviations were calculated for the students’ overall scores on the pre- and post-tests, as shown in

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations of the Students’ Scores of the Pre and Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching method</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Critical Reading Skills Pretest (Covariate)</th>
<th>Critical Reading Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple intelligences</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 1 shows the differences in the means of the students’ performance in the critical reading on the post-test. ANCOVA was calculated on the students’ performance in the critical reading posttest, as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: ANCOVA Results of Students’ Performance of the Pre-and Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial η2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Critical Reading Skills Pretest (Covariate)</td>
<td>80.47</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>80.47</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>7.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Program</td>
<td>192.36</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>96.18</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>15.68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>1034.28</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>12.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1360.44</td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows that there were statistically significant differences at \((\alpha \leq 0.05)\) between the means of students’ performance in the post-test critical reading to the Program. To determine which group has the significant differences, the adjusted means and the standard errors of the students’ performance on the post-test critical reading, were calculated as presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Adjusted Means of the Students’ Performance of the Post-Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching method</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Intelligences</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the adjusted means and standard errors for the students’ performance in post-test on critical reading based on the program. Moreover, since the program has multi-level, Bonferroni test for post comparisons was used to determine the significant differences between the adjusted means for the students’ performance on the post-test critical reading based on the program. The results are presented in the Table 4.

Table 4: Bonferroni Results of Post Hoc Test for the Students’ Performance in the Critical reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching method</th>
<th>Conventional</th>
<th>Multiple intelligences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bonferroni</td>
<td>Adj. Mean</td>
<td>5.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Intelligences</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows a significant difference in favor of experimental group who was taught using multiple intelligences Program compared to the control group who was taught by the conventional method. Moreover, it can be seen that the effect of the Program has reached (15.68%).

The results of the question showed that there were statistically significant differences at \((\alpha \leq 0.05)\) in the critical reading test between the students’ post-test scores among control group and experimental group in favor of the experimental group. The experimental group has also benefited from the instructional program and affected the students positively in their critical reading skills due to the activities and strategies that have been used. The results of this study came in line with the results of Gaines & Lehmann (2002) and Lowe, et al (2001) who report that multiple intelligences improved students’ achievement in reading.

The researcher believes that multiple intelligences activities designed in a proper method in which they help students move gradually from the easiest to the most difficult tasks since they
were also asked to compare and contrast, complete the tables, and fill in the box. Such activities are interesting for students and attractive to pay their attention which also meet their needs and break the routine of studying the reading texts.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

Although the literature reveals an emphasis on the role of the multiple intelligences in the educational process and its significant effects on student’s achievement or reading comprehension, no studies were found on the effect of a program based on multiple intelligences on improving the critical reading skills. Thus, since this study may be insufficient to provide adequate insights into the potential effect of the multiple intelligences in Jordan, further research using more variables and additional instruments may prove valuable towards this end.

Since the critical reading skills are deemed necessary for students, it is assumed that more responsibility from teachers, textbook designers and policy makers to provide to enhance the quality of teaching and learning. As the scope of this research is limited to certain basic stage level, it is recommended that it be extended into other sages as well.

The findings of the study have given rise to the following pedagogical implications:

1. When designing any instructional program, students’ needs should be taken into consideration in order to guarantee their effectiveness, success and continuity.
2. EFL teachers should be encouraged to integrate multiple intelligences strategies in their instructions to enhance their students’ critical reading ability.

Note: This article is an extract from the author’s doctoral dissertation per regulation of Yarmouk University.

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Alqatanani
Formative Evaluation on Course Structure and Credits at English Language Teaching Curriculum

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Abstract
This study aims to describe the appropriateness of the real condition of the course structure and credits on the 2010 Curriculum at English Education Department at Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar (called UIN Alauddin Makassar) compared to the ideal conditions. The significance of this study is being primary data in developing the existing curriculum at the department. It adapts Stake’s Countenance Model as the design evaluation. The data collected in this study are quantitative and qualitative data. The findings show that the appropriateness level between the objective conditions and actuality standard/objective intensity on curriculum design components with overall subcomponents on the course structure is categorized as moderate. In this case, some of the subcomponents still require limited amendment or revision in accordance with the instructions of National Education Standards Agency (called BSNP). Then, the appropriateness level of the learning burden between the objective conditions and actuality standard/objective intensity on the overall components is categorized as low. It indicates that the learning burden management through Semester Credit System still requires major changes or revisions in accordance with the instructions of National Education Standards Agency. Furthermore, the students and lecturers have relatively different attitude in viewing at the course structure and learning burden based on the curriculum. In this case, the students point out that the course structure and learning burden are less eligibility to be maintained with score 42.86%; whereas the lecturer point out the two components are totally not eligibility to be maintained with score 9.25%

Keywords: Curriculum design, curriculum evaluation, ELT curriculum, Formative Evaluation on Course Structure

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Introduction

Formative evaluation of curriculum as the object of this study was based on the need analysis (Li, 2014; and Nepomnayshy, et.al., 2016) dealing with the course materials, and the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum utilized at English Education Department of Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar. It was evaluated to ensure its appropriateness with the demands of the society development and stakeholders’ needs. It aimed to repair or adjust and refine it. It was intended that the graduates had high competitiveness and their knowledge was relevant to the demands of the science and the users of the graduates.

Related to this study, in the process of developing K-10 PBI through a consortium, there still remained some problems that the settlement requires time lapse with monitoring during the implementation of the curriculum. The problem that was most prominent and widely discussed among students and lecturers was the number of credits. In this case, there were several subjects in the group of scientific and skills belonging to faculty tend to overlap with some subjects in the group skills belonging to department. For example, *Pengembangan Kurikulum* course from faculty overlapped with Curriculum and Materials Development course from department. The contents of both courses are just the same.

Furthermore, in the structured-course (Kelch, 2011) especially on micro-language skills such as *Listening I, II, and III*, the materials presented were overlapped among the courses. It was supported by the evidence that the materials for *Listening I* were repeated in *Listening II*, and so on. In addition, *Translation I* and *II* required the mastery of Linguistics and Applied Linguistics such as *Semantics, Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Sociolinguistics, Anthropological Linguistics* (not covered in the curriculum) and *Cross Cultural Understanding*. Some of the courses were presented after translation course completed. According to some lecturers, the lecturers were often not equipped with the course syllabus so that the direction of students’ development depends on the contents presented and the willingness of the lecturers (Richards et.al. 2016). Furthermore, the number of credits on some courses seemed like less balanced or less proportionately. This was indicated by the level of difficulty of the course as well as the students’ cognitive abilities.

Blenkin et al. (1992) view curriculum as a framework of knowledge or scientific content that utilizes education as channels of its delivery process with a variety of methods. Then, it is as a structure providing guidance in the form of procedures that can be done to achieve the short and long terms of learning objectives. Shawer (2010) points out curriculum as a guidance containing principles or rules implemented by teachers/lecturers in various ways as a part of the educational process. Furthermore, Saylor et al (1981) conclude that there are three concepts of the curriculum – they are as a subject, experience, and goal. Thus, it can be concluded that the curriculum is a guideline document of education programs covering a set of macro learning designed in all aspects to achieve the learning objectives in educational institutions. This conclusion is also consistent with Candlin’s view (1984). He states that the curriculum is also related to the planning, evaluation, implementation, management, and administration of education program.

Curriculum evaluation is defined as the process of collecting and analyzing relevant information systematically to evaluate and determine the effectiveness of curriculum development purposes (Richards, 2013; Atai & Mazlum, 2013; Uztosun & Troudi, 2015; Kelch,
2011; Kocer, 2013; Bell & Cole, 2008; Harris, 2010; Nichols, et al., 2006; Simons, 1987 as cited in the Marsh, 2004; and Brown, 1989 cited in Brown, 1995). This definition is very clear portrait that curriculum evaluation is a process that is carried out systematically assess the effectiveness of the curriculum (Assel et.al., 2007). Effectiveness is meant by achieving the results that have been formulated (Picho et.al. 2015; Zeng & Li, 2015; and Ebbeck et.al., 2012). In the process, the device needs evaluation in a variety of formats to capture the required information. The information obtained was then analyzed and the results were used as a material correction and further development. In short, curriculum evaluation is a process and not a product.

Holt (1981) identifies six models of evaluation as follows: 1) classical studies; (2) research and development; (3) illuminative; (4) decision maker conference; (5) lecturer’s research; and (6) case studies. Then, Cohen (2007: 87) also identifies three schematic model of curriculum evaluation; 1) Curriculum Content Analysis Scheme (CCAS) developed by the Education Consortium of Social Sciences; 2) Curriculum Material Analysis Scheme Sussex developed by the University of Sussex; and (3) Curriculum Material Analysis Scheme for Science developed by the German Federal Government.

In addition, the most widely adopted and adapted evaluation model is proposed by Print (1993: 164), namely: (1) Tyler Goal Orientation Model (Creed & Hennessy, 2016); (2) Social Experiment Model; (3) Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) and Environment, Input, Process, Outcomes (immediate) and Long range outcomes (EIPOL) Model (Mirzazadeh, 2016; and Baturay & Fadde, 2013); (4) Stake's Countenance Evaluation Model; (5) Discrepancy Evaluation Model; (6) Responsive Evaluation; (7) Transactional Evaluation; (8) Free-interest Evaluation; (9) Investigative Approach; and (10) Illumination Evaluation (Hall, 2014). From all the models offered by experts, practitioners, and researchers in curriculum, this study offers a Process Evaluation Model proposed by Davies (2001). This model is quite simple to do in a relatively short time and with a focus on processes that occur in the implementation of the curriculum.

The following describes the coverage of curriculum evaluation on two orientations proposed by Rahman (2005). First, Programs Evaluation/Curriculum Document (antecedents) – the evaluation of the components of curriculum documents can be done by selecting the components and sub-components in accordance with the purpose of evaluation. Second, Curriculum Implementation Evaluation (Transactions) – the evaluation of the curriculum in the implementation context, according to Rahman (2005), is more focused on the suitability of the planning to the curriculum implementation. One of the implementation evaluations is the problem identification to implementation procedures (Stufflebeam, 1986). Third, Curriculum Evaluation Outcome – the evaluation of the outcomes is one coverage curriculum evaluation conducted to measure the success in achieving its intended purpose (Stufflebeam, 1986; Khalil & Jayawickramarajah, 1991; and Vartuli & Rohs, 2009).

The design of Curriculum 2010 (called K-10) of English Education follows a common pattern used by the study program within UIN Alauddin Makassar. First, introduction covers some rational components such as objective circumstances, the ideal conditions, and major characteristics; the legal basis, vision, mission, and goals. Second, the graduates’ competences are directed to the main profession (teaching staffs in formal and non-formal institutions) and
additional professions (professionals out of the field of language teaching such as an Islamic preacher in English, and so forth). Third, it deals with the structure and content curriculum. Fourth, the support for students in the learning process includes new student supervision, academic supervision, teaching practice supervision, guiding thesis supervision, and so forth.

Fifth, the student intakes are graduated from Senior High School, Vocational School, Senior Islamic High School, and Islamic Boarding School. They have passed the selection one of entrance tests of UIN Alauddin Makassar with certain criteria. Sixth, evaluation method, the improvement of the quality and standard of the learning process is done by evaluating the learning process by the monitoring team of quality assurance at English Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar. Also, there is a feedback dealing with the students, staff development, and internal academic quality assurance. Seventh, the stipulation of graduation criteria includes; 1) finishing study by having maximum load of 150 credits, GPA ≥ 2.00 (scale of 0.00 to 4.00); 2) having no E (0) score; 3) have conducted teaching practices to schools and regular or profession community service; 4) having TOEFL score at least 400 score for prediction test; and 5) have completed a comprehensive and thesis examination. Eighth, academic performance assessments are conducted through the evaluation with academic achievement index calculated based on the score of A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, D = 1 and E = 0.

![Diagram of 2010 Curriculum (K-10) of ELT in UIN Alauddin Makassar](image)

*Figure 1. Theoretical Framework*
Further, the theoretical framework is illustrated schematically in Figure 1. It shows the framework of this study referring to Disciplines and Broad Fields Design. The curriculum is applied to students of UIN Alauddin Makassar PBI starting in 2011 until today. Then, it is implemented by lecturers who teach the main courses in the department. Curriculum element evaluated is the curriculum design that covers the course structure and learning burden. The data from these elements is in form of students’ and lecturers’ view on the components. Then, it is analyzed to find contingency and congruence, as well as whether there is a difference between the views of students and lecturers of the curriculum in some segments.

Research Method

It was a research evaluation using case studies to: 1) produce a detailed description of a phenomenon; 2) develop explanations of the data obtained from the case study; and (3) evaluate the phenomena (Gall and Gall, 2003: 439). This study adapted the evaluation design of Stake's Countenance Model developed by Robert E. Stake consisting of three stages, namely’ input (antecedents), processes (transactions), and the results (outcomes) (Thanabalan et.al. 2015; Wood, 2001; and Appelhof, 1984. However, the researchers only adopt one step – it is the input stage (antecedents) divided into two phases, namely; description and decisions/judgments. Stake design focuses on actual decision oriented at any stage of the evaluation by conducting measurements at each focus of evaluation that is summarized in a matrix adapted to the case-order effect matrix (Sabarguna, 2005: 27). Based on this theory, the researchers developed the research design as follows:

![Research Design Diagram](image-url)
Formative Evaluation on Course Structure and Credits  Sukirman, Ahmad & Mardiana

This study was conducted in English Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar in July-September 2015. The informants were selected purposively based on the research objectives. Criteria in selecting the informants were; 1) the chief and secretary of English Education department as supervisors; 2) the lecturers as the secondary implementers of the curriculum; and 3) the students as the primary implementers of curriculum.

The main variable in this study is the design of the curriculum (antecedents). It refers to the concept and the format of the curriculum interpreted as curriculum design in the form of a document with rational content, vision, mission, and objectives, graduates profile, graduates competence, competence elements, materials, credits, courses, curriculum structure, academic calendar, and evaluation. The evaluation criteria refer to the principles of relevance, completeness, efficiency, significant, effectiveness, and practicality (Yang, 2014; Schug, 2012; Chen & Dai, 2015; Sconce & Howard, 1994; and O’Byrne, et.al., 2015).

Generally, quantitative data obtained from observation checklists, behavior assessment, assessment format of the students learning outcomes, and attitude questionnaires were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The qualitative data obtained from interviews were analyzed, presented, interpreted and discussed qualitatively using the most coherent description. Furthermore, the data obtained from the technical documentation using observation checklist were analyzed with descriptive statistics (percentages). Scoring was done by summing the responses for each subscale and written in percent (%). Then, the percentage scores were compared with the interval scores with the suitability standard on three levels as shown in the following table:

**Table 1. Appropriateness Qualification**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score in Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Appropriateness Qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>67 – 100</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34 – 66</td>
<td>Moderate/Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 – 33</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To obtain a degree of correspondence between the objective condition and the actual standard, it was used a number of criteria being the reference assessment. These criteria are the measurement of objective standards. The results of the evaluation or the objective intensity of the field compared to objective standards that have been set previously.

Decision-making techniques of the actuality at any stage or aspect of evaluation was conducted by performing measurements on each of the evaluation focus that was summarized in a matrix adapted to the case-order effect matrix (Sabarguna, 2005). The characteristics of this model present the effects of the comparison between the objective standard in forms of normative standard criteria predefined previously and the objective intensity in the form of real field recordings. The comparison produced the effect of a conclusion in the form of actuality decision on any cases observed (Stake, 1967; and Issac & Michael, 1983).

Then, the obtained data from questionnaires conducted with students and lecturer were analyzed in two ways. First, it was analyzed through descriptive analysis by summing the respondents in the same category to get the dominant view and percentages. Second, it was conducted by assessing the dominant answer with 1 score for accepting existing conditions,
and 0 score for rejecting the conditions. Total scores on each component were calculated the percentage to determine the component eligibility standard assessment whether the components were eligible to be maintained or needed a change. The following table was used to determine eligibility standards:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score in Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Eligibility Standard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>81 – 100</td>
<td>Totally Eligibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 – 80</td>
<td>Eligibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 60</td>
<td>Less Eligibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 40</td>
<td>Not Eligibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 – 20</td>
<td>Totally not Eligibility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results and Discussion
Curriculum Design Description (K-10)

The required data from the document of K-10 curriculum in this research focused on the structure component or the courses organization and the learning burden through the system Semester Credit Units (SKS) by considering the time and problems occurred (trending problems).

Course Structure (Organization)

The objective condition of the course organization was obtained from 16 descriptors and 9 observations indicators of K-10 curriculum. The findings were compared with standard topicality and objective intensity in accordance with the law on the Content Standards and techniques manual from National Education Standards Agency (called BSNP) dealing with curriculum design for Universities. The evaluation findings dealing with the course structure categories were presenter in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Ideal Score</th>
<th>Grade (%)</th>
<th>Appropriateness Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Course Distribution</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Formulation of Graduates Competence</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Course Cluster:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Competence-Based</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Competence Element</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Compulsory and Elective</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. Cluster-Based</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Course Mapping</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Course Description</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Course Management Description:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Formative Evaluation on Course Structure and Credits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Structured/conditional Course</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Elective Course</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Integrative Course</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 The fulfillment of the principles in designing course structure</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 The orientation of course presentation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Development of students’ mental and maturity</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Relevancy of the work field</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Referring to the findings of self-evaluation of the department</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Dynamic of Science and Technology development and the innovation of graduate users’ needs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Description of graduates competences</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total                          | 28   | 68   | 41.17% | Moderate|

The data on the previous table (Table 3) show the degree of conformity between the objective conditions and actuality standard objective intensity on curriculum design components with subcomponents of the course structure. Overall, the total score of the findings dealing with the course structure was 28 out of 68 as the ideal score. The score of 41.17% categorized ‘average’ implies that some subcomponents still require changes or revisions in accordance with the BSNP instructions.

The following are the descriptions of the findings and discussion on each component and subcomponent on the course structure variables:

**Course Distribution (DSK-1)**

The objective conditions of the course distribution contained in K-10 document cover course materials related to the graduates competence (profession) and patterned by grouping competence elements, namely: (a) the personality foundation; (b) the mastery of science, technology, art, and/or sports; (C) the ability and skill to work; (d) the attitudes and behaviors in the work according to skill level based on the knowledge and skills mastered; (e) the mastery of the social life rules in accordance with the elective expertise in the work. The distribution has met the criteria required by BSNP although it still needs to be organized in terms of grouping them based on their cluster in to obtain score 3 categorized “high”.

**Formulation of Graduates Competence referring to National Qualification Framework (DSK-2)**

The formulation of the graduates competence found in the documents of K-10 curriculum was stated in the objectives that refer to the standards of National Qualifications Framework Indonesia (called KKNI) in Level 6 in line with bachelor degree. The formulation has fulfilled the BSNP requirements. It also obtains score 3 as in the case of disclosure or language as well as content described still needs revision and refinement.
Course Cluster (DSK-3, 4, 5, and 6)

The indicators in clustering the courses consist of four sub-indicators. They are basic competence, competence elements, coverage, and cluster base. Clustering the course that has been done is a grouping them based on the graduates competence consisting of general competences (general courses), core competences (specific courses for the department), and special competences (subject expertise). Then, the general competences are coded 'UIN' (courses belong to university), core competences were coded 'FTK' (courses belong to faculty), and special competences were coded 'PBI' (courses belong to department). The sub-indicators obtained score 4 categorized “high”.

Then, the clustering dealing with competence elements refers to at least five elements of the graduates competences. First, the personality foundation was coded MPK. Second, the mastery of science, technology, art, and/or sport was coded MKK. Third, the ability and skill to work was coded MKB. Fourth, the attitudes and behaviors in working according to skill level based on the knowledge and skills mastered was coded MPB. Fifth, the mastery of the social life rules in accordance with the elective expertise in the work was coded MBB. In addition to all five elements, there are still elective courses that refer to elements of skill competences in working (MKB). The sub-indicators obtained score 4 categorized “high”.

Furthermore, the courses are also distinguished on compulsory and elective courses. The K-10 document contains a number of general (compulsory) and expertise (elective) courses aimed at developing the graduates’ competences in professional education program. The compulsory courses are assigned in accordance with the standards of learning burden set by BSNP dealing with the implementation guidelines that must be solved student by the students. The scores 3 categorized “high” still need to be revised in clustering the elective courses.

In accordance with the course cluster, there are no data from K-10 document that shows the indicator so the score is 0 categorized “low”. The meaning of clustering courses is grouping the courses based on the cluster. For example, the courses belong to Linguistics clusters are Introduction to Linguistics, English Phonology, English Morphology, and English Syntax. Then, micro-language skill clusters consist of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. The advantages offered by clustering among other courses are systematizing the course arrangement, and preventing the overlapping course materials.

Course Mapping (DSK-7)

Course mapping found in K-10 documents K-10 is the course mapping pattern based on competence and semester mapping in presenting courses as well as the credits. There were no mapping based learning strategies or curriculum inter-component relationships, especially the relations between courses, materials, and clustering in line with Kepmendiknas No. 232/U/2000. This can be conducted if there is a document dealing with the review of the curriculum content map and the materials realized in the form of courses and their credits scope respectively. Therefore, this sub-indicator obtains score 2 categorized “moderate”.
**Course Description (DSK-8)**

Course description is a brief description of the contents for each course. It is also like a synopsis presented in order to provide an overview and a preliminary understanding of the course content. Generally, it is designed in the form of a catalog that contains code, number, course name, and the number of credits. For this indicator, it has not found any document dealing with a catalog in K-10 curriculum or designed as a stand-alone document for the sake of dissemination. Therefore, this indicator obtains score 0 categorized “low” as the consideration for further curriculum improvements.

**Course Management (DSK-9, 10, and 12)**

Course management is related to the improvement efforts of the K-10 curriculum developer dealing with structured conditional, elective, and integrative courses that contain > 60% credits similarly. The courses classified in the previous categories should be described clearly to be understood by students.

In the structured as well as tiered courses, there is no a written statement as well as explanation dealing with the content on each structured or tiered course. It is not also described whether based on the level of difficulty or difference in the materials, especially with the unavailability of the catalog dealing with the course description. It will be potential to create course differences if it is taught by different lecturers. Besides, it will also create the materials similarity at each level. Likewise, the requirements needed to program the subsequent courses such as Structure II should only be prescribed after completing Structure I, and Translation after finishing the component of Linguistics, Discourse, and Cross Cultural Understanding.

Further, elective courses also have a similar phenomenon with the compulsory courses. It is not clear how many credits can be programmed by students to support the compulsory courses or related to their specialization. Similarly, the number of credits that have been completed to then program the elective courses in the semester is not clear. In addition, the more confusing is the presentation of elective courses. In fact, it is not chosen by the students but it is presented like compulsory courses.

The integrative courses are relatively similar in the cluster of scientific and skill courses (coded FTK). Then, the cluster of work skills course (coded PBI) is also not done well. The Lesson Plan Course (coded FTK3218) contains materials related to the competence learning program development from the annual programs to daily lesson plans; from planning, implementation, to the assessment. Also, the learning process in the classroom to the practical tasks can basically be integrated with TEFL II (coded PBI4255) that contains approximately equal materials. The difference is only in form of the course specification. Both of these courses also include conditional course that can only be programmed if the student has completed a course on the teaching and learning strategies, instructional media, and language testing and assessment.

Learning Strategies Course (coded FTK2320) can be integrated with the TEFL I course (coded PBI3254). The difference is only in the content specification of the course. Then, Learning Evaluation Course (coded FTK3319) can be integrated with Language Testing course (coded PBI3256). Also, Learning Technology course (coded FTK2321) can be...
integrated with Language Laboratory Management course (coded PBI2270). In addition, Curriculum Development course (coded FTK3222) can be integrated with Curriculum and Materials Development course (coded PBI3353). Further, Research Methods course (coded FTK3223) can be integrated with Research in ELT course (coded PBI3257) and Classroom Action Research course (coded PBI4258). The course integration described previously is designed in order to apply one of the principles in developing curriculum by enlarging the credits and reducing the courses. The model implementation can be done by team-teaching synergism between lecturers who teach courses coded FTK and lecturers who teach courses coded PBI.

The third sub-indicator was given score 0 (categorized Low) because of the absence of the component observed. Therefore, the curriculum developers collaborated with the lecturers should conduct a deep study dealing with the curriculum development.

Principles in Designing Course Structure and Credits (DSK-11)

The principles in designing the course structure and credit, enlarging the credits and reducing the courses, has not been fully executed in K-10 curriculum, especially on course integration models. In addition, there are not oral statements or written evidences concerning with the mechanisms in determining the course credits (Sheridan, 2005; and Lozano & Young, 2013) for each course. Therefore, this sub-indicator obtains score 0 (categorized Low).

Orientation of Course Presentation (DSK-13, 14, 16, and 17)

The course presentation in K-10 document is oriented to courses related to the field of teaching science profession. Curriculum development is not based on need analysis of students but it is designed based on the user needs or absorbent graduates. With the basic model, the development of the mental aspect of students will not be used as the main indicator in determining the course credits, except on the difficulty level and learning of the course presentation (DSK-14) is relevant enough to the working world with the score 2 (categorized Moderate).

Furthermore, the curriculum changes at the secondary schools from KTSP curriculum to 2013 Curriculum being tested for a wide-scale validation should be anticipated by K-10 curriculum or at least the next two years there should be a change in the course structure. For example, the language specialization program in the cultural context such as Anthropological Linguistics. Therefore, there should be Anthropological Linguistics course that can be integrated with subjects Sociolinguistics and Cross Cultural Understanding. For this sub-indicator, it has been in line with the BSNP instructions although the implementation still has some problems. Thus, it obtains score 3 (categorized High).

In addition, the orientation of course presentation does not deal with the availability, adequacy, and appropriateness of the facilities and infrastructure, lecturers, staff, and other resources. Secondary data showed that the number of lecturers both civil servants and non-civil servants in this department is still far from enough qualified. Meanwhile, the applicants have increased very rapidly in the last 10 years. Therefore, this sub-indicator obtains score 0 (categorized Low).
Description of Graduates’ Competence Related to Their Professions (DSK-15)

There are two graduates’ competences described in the introduction to K-10 document K-10 after the description of the study program’s objectives. First, primary profession (Major) is depicted as English teachers in the formal and non-formal institutions. Second, additional professions are out of their primary profession such being Language Instructional Designer Banking Staff, Islamic Preachers who can speak English, on so on. For this sub-indicator obtains score 4 (categorized High).

Course Credits

English Education Department at UIN Alauddin Makassar applies a semester credit system where the management still has a number of problems and ambiguities that need revision based on the findings. Related to the statement previously, the following is presented the findings as well as the discussion dealing with the data stated in K-10 document.

Table 4. The Findings of Course Credits Appropriateness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Ideal Score</th>
<th>Grade (%)</th>
<th>Appropriateness Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Learning Burden</td>
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Learning Burden (DSK-18)

On instrument, item 18 is written a statement that K-10 document contains credits for each course. Related to the statements, the findings indicate that the learning burden for each course is measured in units of semester credit with the range of 2-3 credits. It has been mapped in accordance with the decision of the consortium with a variety of considerations. Therefore, this sub-indicator obtains score 4 (categorized High).

Semester Credit System (SKS) (DSK-19, 31, 32, and 33)

Semester Credit System that has been implemented in English Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar does not totally meet yet with the requirements set out in Kepmendiknas No. 232/U/2000. In planning (DSK-19), the department has not imposed the credits system by not totally giving opportunity for students to set out the credits being programmed based on their capacity. The students who have average ability have not given the opportunity to program the courses at higher semesters. In this case, they must wait until they are at the semester. Thus, the degree of conformity is assessed by giving score 2 (categorized moderate).

Dealing with the descriptors 31, 32, and 33 given score 0 (categorized Low), it can be stated that there is no description of the system and the terms in programming the credits system. In addition, the required number of eligible credits and the terms of programming the tiered and/or conditional courses are also not stated. All the descriptors have not been included in K-10 document and there is no explanation outlining the reasons why the system has not totally been adopted. This is, of course, potentially harm the students who may be able to complete the study in 3.5 years should not be in 4 years.

Description of Weighting Course (DSK-20 to 29)

There are only two items found in the description of weighting for the descriptors 20-29. First, the general course weighting (DSK-20) obtains score 2 (categorized moderate). Second, thesis weighting (DSK-29) obtains score 4 (categorized High). The other descriptors have not been fulfilled and then obtain score 0 (categorized Low). The lectures weighting generally is stated as a weekly learning activities per semester consisting of face to face activities for 50 minutes (per credit). However, there is no description dealing with the structured assignment for 60 minutes and self-study for 60 minutes. Similarly, the tutorial program, laboratory, teaching practice programs, research activities, and general courses weighting are in line with the BSNP guidelines in weighting the general and expertise courses. Especially for thesis weighting, it is clearly defined and weighted by 6 credits and should only be programmed after taking off all the required courses.

Description of Study Duration for Undergraduate Program (DSK-30)

K-10 Document has posted an explanation that the duration of the study to achieve a bachelor's degree at least 4 years by completing at most 150 credits with GPA ≥ 2.00. In addition, there should be no score E (0) and has completed Teaching Practice Program, Community Service Program, TOEFL test at least 400 for predictions, and has completed a comprehensive examination and thesis. The weakness of this description is the duration of the study (at least 4 years), meanwhile the credits system required at least 3.5 years. In addition,
there is no description dealing with the maximum duration to be registered students. Therefore, this component obtains score 3 (categorized High).

**Conclusions and Suggestions**

**Conclusions**
The appropriateness level between the objective conditions and the standard actuality/objective intensity on curriculum design components with subcomponents of the overall course structures is categorized Medium by score 41.17%). It means that some of the subcomponents still require limited amendment or revision in accordance with the BSNP instructions. Then, for the study burden, the appropriateness level between the objective conditions and the actuality standard/objective intensity on the component as a whole is categorized Low by score 23.43%). It means that the management of the study burden through Semester Credit System still also requires major changes or revisions in accordance with BSNP instructions. Then, students and lecturers have relatively different attitude in viewing at the course structure and study burden stated in K-10 Curriculum of English Education Department at UIN Alauddin Makassar. The students view that the course structure and study burden are less worthy to be maintained with the score 42.86%). Meanwhile, the lecturers view that the two components are totally not worthy to be maintained with the score 9.25%.

**Suggestions**
The findings of this formative evaluation should be followed up in the form of curriculum improvement; especially on the components that obtain lower scores in the conformity with the actuality standards established by BSNP for college curriculum. Out of all the evaluated components, the improvements needed are mainly targeted at fundamental changes in the course structure and study burden that are unwell-designed as well as unwell-organized. Furthermore, the subjectivity of the students and lecturers’ points of view still need additional data and expansion of the sample as a form of real-time verification to ensure the validity of the data. The students and lecturers’ views in this evaluation are still in form of preliminary data so it can only be used as guidelines in developing further curriculum evaluation instrument. Finally, curriculum formative evaluation at the department level needs to be conducted regularly (every year) to guarantee the quality of the program and anticipate the changes and needs development of the workforce.

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References


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Second Language Learning and the Clash of Civilizations

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Abstract
This research investigates the relationship among second language learning, identity, culture, and motivation in Saudi Arabia (SA). SA’s education system concentrates on teaching, while identity and social aspects have only been given little attention. The researcher seeks to redress this balance by exploring the impact of pupils’ negative views toward the linguistic communities and of themselves as Muslim pupils. It aims to investigate how negative views toward the English language speaking communities could affect or demotivate Arab Muslim female learners to learn the language. The researcher supports the arguments using a qualitative approach and data drawn from pupils’ focus group interviews and one-to-one teachers’ interviews. The current study involves 132 second-year pupils from a secondary public school in Taif city, in SA and three Saudi English language teachers. The findings indicate the impact of various social factors relevant to the Saudi identity and culture on pupils’ English as a second language (ESL) learning in the Saudi context. Participants’ beliefs and practices of ESL appear to be influenced by certain negative views toward the English-speaking communities. Finally, the study recommends extending the setting of the sample for future study to include more than one city in order to compare cultural and social attributes that impact ESL, ascultures and identities vary from one area to another in SA.

Keywords: Beliefs; culture; identity; motivation; second language learning

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Background
English has been the only foreign language taught in Saudi Arabia’s (SA) public schools for more than 50 years, starting from year seven to year eleven in secondary school (Al-Mutawa & Kailani, 1989); recently, it has been taught during year six, and from an age as early as kindergarten in most private schools. Furthermore, English is the language of instruction in all science university courses. As a result of SA’s leading economic role at the international level, the Saudi Arabian government has realized the great demand to learn English as a means of communication with the outside world. In addition, beside Arabic, English is the only language used in hospitals, shops, and other public places; therefore, English could be regarded as a second language in SA. However, learning English in the Saudi context might clash with the mother tongue and the local cultures. This clash could result from certain social images created toward the target language culture and speakers, which as a result could affect or even demotivate language learners and discourage them to use English.

The proposed study intends to enrich the research of English learning and teaching in SA and fill this gap between cultural differences by interviewing a number of pupils and teachers in order to explore how demotivating factors can affect pupils’ learning process. It also investigates teachers’ and learners’ attitudes toward English and explores what could discourage pupils from learning English.

Basic objectives of the study
The main aim of this paper is to discover factors that may impact ESL pupils’ attitudes toward the speakers of English on motivating their learning in the Saudi context. The objectives of the study are as follows:
- To explore pupils’ attitudes toward English language and culture.
- To explore pupils’ assumptions about English language and culture.
- To describe how learning English is related to pupils’ identity construction.
- To explore the influence of negative images toward the English-speaking communities on ESL that could affect or demotivate female learners in the Saudi context.

Literature review
This section attempts to review the relative literature to the proposed paper. It briefly examines language in relation to identity, culture and motivation. It subsequently explores the relationship between motivation and ESL. It also discusses how culture and identity can affect ESL, especially in the context of Islamic countries such as SA.

Motivation in ESL
Given the complicated nature of motivation, which varies according to the dynamic changes in a person’s psychology, it is not an easy task to define this phenomenon. Harmer (1991) describes motivation as the internal drive that pushes somebody to do something. If we think that our goal is worth doing and attractive for us, then we try to reach that goal; this is called the action driven by motivation. Learning and motivation are two fundamental components necessary to reach a goal; learning enables us to obtain knowledge, while motivation attracts us to become involved in the learning process (Parsons, Hinson, & Brown, 2001). Teachers also argue that pupils interested in language learning perform better than those who are not motivated.
Much debate has surrounded the importance of motivation in language learning, and it has been agreed that motivation is one of the influential factors in ESL. Ellis (1994) states that “SLA research... views motivation as a key factor in L2 learning” (p. 508). McDonough (1986) supports this argument, pointing out that the “motivation of the students is one of the most important factors influencing their success or failure in learning the language” (p. 142). Moreover, Karahan(2007) explains that “positive language attitudes let learners have positive orientation toward learning English” (p. 84). Researchers have also defined motivation as a complex task that could be explained through two aspects: the pupils’ need to communicate during class and their attitudes about the language speakers (Lightbown, Spada, Ranta, & Rand, 2006). An exploratory study conducted by Dornyei and Ushioda(2011) found that negative attitudes toward language learning and negative views toward the communities in which the language is spoken could also decrease learners’ enthusiasm.

Moreover, numerous studies have stressed the importance of parental encouragement in enhancing learners’ motivation (Gardner, 1985; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; Ryan, 2009; Williams & Burden, 1997). Indeed, certain social and cultural variables, such as parents, society and teachers, could be vital factors affecting ESL by influencing pupils’ motivation.

**Language and culture**

Language is one of the most significant elements in identifying a society or a social group in which it transfers its cultures, customs, values, beliefs, and social attributes. “Knowing a second language allows one to transcend the cultural borders of one’s own language group and access the views and ideas of another culture” (Kim, 2003, p. 150). According to this view, some people might think that English can serve as a tool for transferring values, ideas, and beliefs that threaten Islamic beliefs and the preservation of Saudi cultural values, thereby demotivating pupils to learn English. Other people believe that language learning might positively impact people by transferring positive and useful ideologies from other cultures, such as modernity and respect, without any clashing with local cultures.

Due to the strong relationship between language and culture, it is difficult to analyse them independently (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Hinkel, 2005; Peterson & Coltrane, 2003). In this regard, Lafayette (1988) argues that:

> Language is a part of a culture and a culture is a part of a language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture. The acquisition of a second language … is also the acquisition of a second culture (p. 19).

Kramsch and Widdowson(2001) refer to language and culture as two inseparable components. Language is the tool of communication, whereas culture reflects the content of our communication. They argue that:

> The words people utter refer to common experience. They express facts, ideas, or events that are communicable because they refer to a stock of knowledge about the world that other people share. Words also reflect their authors’ attitudes and beliefs, their point of
view that are also those of others. In both cases, language expresses cultural reality (Kramsch & Widdowson, 2001, p. 3).

Morgan (2001) also describes language as a means of understanding beliefs, values, attitudes, and all other attributes that shape our lives. Cognitive developmentalists such as Lev Vygotsky have explained the relationship between language and culture as “the overlapping parts, thought and speech coincide to produce verbal thought” (Wink & Putney, 2002, p. 42).

In some societies, language is dramatically empowered by culture for various reasons. For example, in the Islamic Arabic context, the Arabic language has cultural significance (Chejne, 1969) as the greatest language in the world in addition to English, French, Russian, Latin, and Greek. This designation stems not only from the number of people who use it, but also from its cultural and religious position in Islamic Arabic societies. The Arabic language is also a tool for identifying the Arabic national identity (Suleiman, 2003). Suleiman’s (1999) study explores the relationship between language and society in the Middle East and North Africa. He argues that, as the Arabic language plays a vital role in the construction of the Arabic and Islamic identities, both language and culture must be considered in the creation of language policy. Thus, some people feel threatened by the act of learning English because they think that speaking other languages such as English will lead to the disappearance of the Arabic language and its culture.

Moreover, some Muslims in the Islamic world, such as Saudi Arabia, consider language and religion to be two crucial powers for cultural colonization (Al Ahmed, 2011). In some Muslim countries, people feel they risk westernization if they communicate with Western people, who will impact their Islamic identity. Therefore, some researchers and journalists have recommended imposing penalties for those people who use English without any need such as using certain English words, especially in Arabic newspapers and magazines (Donya, 2010). These reactions illustrate the status of the English language for many people in SA, such a status is consistent across almost all Arab nations. In light of the empowered position of the Arabic language, any other language might conflict with Arabic within the Islamic Arabic context. Harris and New (1991) describe learning the English as a challenge for Muslims and a cultural battle between Islam and Christianity, two important elements of the culture embodied by the English and Arabic languages. Shafi (1983) suggests that the spread of language and religion is the clearest indicator of colonialism. Therefore, the English language is regarded to some extent as a threat to Islamic societies.

Examining the status of the English language in the Arab world, we notice the collision some people experience between the native and target languages and their cultures and ideologies. Indeed, “it is through language that a person negotiates a sense of self within and across different sites at different points in time” (Norton, 2000, p. 5). The relationship among language, culture, and identity can help people understand and perceive themselves and others, while also giving them a sense of belonging to a specific group or groups with which they want to identify by using specific language markers (Falout & Maruyama, 2004). According to this view, people might think that English can serve as a tool of westernization that threatens Islamic beliefs and the preservation of Saudi cultural values, thereby demotivating pupils to learn English. Gray (2000) argues that forcing learners in the target culture to learn English might lead to the complete rejection of language learning. Within the Saudi context, some people feel that
the English language inputs do not match the Arabic and the Islamic society and culture (Al Ahmed, 2011).

Based on the arguments discussed thus far, we can conclude that the environment could be a motivating or a demotivating factor for language learning. In addition, social and cultural surroundings and their relevance to language learning could influence learners’ identities and attitudes to use English interactively as well as affect the process of language learning. Previous research has also shown the impact of culture on ESL learning. Such influence of culture in ESL learning could be shaped by several local and global variables, including values, religion, and tradition. The current study findings further indicate that ESL learning in the Saudi context is also affected by certain local and global social variables that sometimes clash and at other times agree.

In the next section, the author introduces an overview of the nature of these multiple identities and how they are employed in multilingual settings in an attempt to understand the situation of females learning English in SA.

**Bilingual speakers**

When a speaker chooses certain linguistic forms, he or she is conscious of the social meaning they present. Garret (2007) asserts that when bilinguals “use particular linguistic resources in a particular context or at particular moment of interaction” (p. 234), they purposely want to show their identity. For female Saudi bilinguals, this interrelationship between languages and the social meaning they present is obvious and complex; it is affected by local religious and cultural variables. The goal of being an ideal Muslim woman influences females’ choice of certain linguistic forms. They attempt to reflect a preserved image of themselves as an ideal Muslim woman within the religious and sociocultural borders. (Baker, 2008; Holmes & Meyerhoff, 2008; Kobayashi, 2002; Norton, 2000; Pavlenko, 2004). Such negotiation between the two languages’ ideologies may result in a hybrid culture and environment, which occurs with identity negotiation and modification between the native and the target languages. Therefore, some have argued that to understand a second language, a speaker of another language should adapt to the new culture. However, learning another language in a non-native setting may lead to culture shock resulting from the contradictions between the native and the target language cultures; therefore, learners may become confused regarding how to use the new linguistic forms and how to adapt them within the native culture and identities.

The status of the English language in the Saudi context is complicated as it is influenced by different social factors. Saudi Muslim females sometimes feel confused when adapting both the Arabic and the English codes, as the ideologies and cultures held by these codes may differ or even clash with the individuals’ perceptions of themselves as ideal Muslim Arabic females.

**Methodology**

This section discusses the research design, methodology, and methods used in the current study. It also explains the rationale for using a case study approach, with some brief information about the research participants and the research ethics.
Case study approach
In order to fulfill the current study’s objectives, a case study method was adopted that included one secondary school with ESL pupils and teachers. A case study is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2003, p. 13). The choice of a case study approach for the current study is significant and appropriate for answering the why and how questions proposed in this study. Moreover, this approach is suitable for studying complex settings involving social aspects such as identity, culture and religion.

Research participants
The current study sample involved 132 second-year pupils from a secondary public school in Taif city and three Saudi English language teachers. The researcher interviewed 30 pupils, divided into five groups of five to six pupils. The study sample groups met at least half an hour three to seven times over a period of four months.

In addition, the researcher interviewed three English teachers individually once or twice at the end of the study according to their availability. The researcher was the only person who had access to these data. Only females were involved. It would be difficult to include male students due to cultural reasons that do not allow direct contact between males and females.

Methods of data collection
According to Silverman (2013), methodology encompasses the process of studying a certain phenomenon and selecting a case study, tools and methods used for data gathering and analysis. Meanwhile, „methods refers to the procedures, tools and techniques utilized to collect the data (Kaplan, 1973), including quantitative and qualitative techniques such as questionnaires, interviews, surveys and case studies. This research has used focus groups and individual interviews, classroom observations and multimodal materials.

Interviews
The current study relied on interviews because “interviews can reach the parts which other methods cannot reach … allowing a researcher to investigate and prompt things that we cannot observe like interviewee’s thoughts, values, prejudices, perceptions, views, feelings and perspectives” (Wellington, 2000, p. 71). Pupil group interviews are preferred in order to “discover how interpretations were collectively constructed through talk and the interchange between respondents in the group situation” (Morley, 1980, p. 33). This method is also useful for reflecting the social realities of a cultural group and is relevant for identifying pupils’ implicit beliefs and thoughts about their English learning and how it might be affected by certain cultural practices, whether inside the school or in everyday life (Hughes &DuMont, 2002). Teachers’ one-to-one interviews were friendly conversations informally arranged according to the availability of the teachers.

Discussion
This section analyzes and discusses how English language learners who desire to be members of the global linguistic cultures negotiate their identities as Muslim, Arab, and Saudi. It discusses the origins of negative views toward English and how they develop within the cultural and social ideologies. It discusses how negative views about English could affect or even restrict language
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learning in the Saudi context, where culture and social principles play significant roles in everyday life.

During data collection, it was noted that pupils refer to the terms “West, Westernization and Western” when expressing their feelings toward English and its cultures; drawing the attention to the concept of “Westernization” and its impact on language learning. The outcomes suggested that some pupils perceive English as a threat to their own ideologies, which affects their learning. Furthermore, just as positive and idealistic views toward English and its users can motivate language learners, a negative image can be a demotivating factor and might lead to resistance, confusion or the complete rejection of English.

El-Sayed (1993) observed Arabs as foreign language learners and noted a relationship between pupils’ low proficiency and negative perception of English cultures. He proposed that:

…The hostility and suspicion one notices in the Arab students’ attitudes toward western language and cultures is natural since it stems from the fact that the west colonized the Arab World and English is viewed by Arab students as a product of imperialism. … They feel that they are compelled to acquire English and they resign to a status of subordination as a result of the cultural and ideological dominance of the native speakers of English in Britain and America. Our students move through the stressful episodes of western acculturation and, as a result, it becomes difficult for truly successful EFL learning situations to occur in Arab classes (pp. 63-64).

This theme sheds light on how some people perceive English as a danger that threatens their identity as Arabs and Muslims. This fear of Westernization seems to affect pupils’ attitudes toward English learning along three trajectories:

1. Some pupils overcome their fear through a balance between what they believe about English and its cultures on the one hand and their need for and interest in English on the other. Although these pupils can find their path in language learning, they still might struggle to construct their second language identities within their local beliefs.

2. As a result of negative social views toward English, the second group hesitates and stands confused between being for and against English.

3. The third group includes those pupils who reject English learning due to dissonance between what they believe in themselves and the external belief that English language use is part of Westernization.

Pupil interviews

Quotations from pupil and teacher interviews, collected at different time periods, reflect these trajectories. Typical examples of these three groups are presented below, starting with those who can balance between their fear and their desire to learn English.

Muna: I think that people in our age and the new generation accept English, however, some of them still feel that English might harm their identity, and all parents, old parents, feel that English is dangerous.
They are not aware that we need English, English is important and everything depends on English, in using the computer and the internet, in hospitals in schools and universities. I remembered when I want to buy a bag, this was in Saudi, and the bag’s name was in English, which I could not buy because I did not know its name in English. We should benefit from English but without changing our Islamic beliefs.

We will never lose our identity, our English teachers are examples. They are still Muslims and Arabs (ps laughing). It depends on the person’s personality. Some people may change since they want to change, but if they are convinced with their identity, as a Muslim or as an Arab, it is not easy to be influenced.

If you use English to facilitate your life, this is fine, but if you like non-Muslim ideas, it is different. Why do you learn English? to understand or just to imitate Westerners? (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

Muna was aware of the notion that English might be dangerous and might harm Islamic ideologies. She divided people’s perceptions toward English into two groups: old and new generations. She thinks that most old-generation people, such as parents and grandparents, reject English because they might not trust new schools and might perceive English to be a threat to their own way of life. Yet, Muna argued that the new generation might accept English and might reject the negative views toward its speakers. Thus, her need to learn English encouraged her to create a balance that allowed her to benefit from English in facilitating her life without affecting her own Islamic identity. Muna’s life experiences were motivating factors motivating her to invest in English. Her need for English pushed her to accept it within this unenthusiastic environment that perceives English as a danger, as exemplified in her shopping story about buying a bag whose name she did not know in English. Her experience serves as an example of how some people in SA struggle to learn English and communicate with its speakers. She said that English is essential in our education and healthcare, as well as technology use, but its use should remain within the borders of our own lives and ideological beliefs. She justified her desire to learn English without any fear about creating a balance between what she believes about herself and what she believes about English speakers; for example, she believes that Saudi English-speaking teachers can benefit from English without harming their own identities as Muslims and Arabs. However, she knows that beliefs are not easy to change if people are convinced of their truth.

Maram: …Travelling to a Western country will help me learning English and knowing about other cultures. I will not be worried about my religion because there are a lot of Muslims studying abroad without being influenced by the Western culture. Of course, I might face culture shock and extremely different beliefs, but I know how to deal with this. This will not change me. It will help me to communicate with people there and introduce myself as a Muslim to those people.

… It's impossible to be isolated from the whole world. We need to be aware of other cultures. I don't think that the English culture might influence our Arabic language, religion or culture. This might influence those people who spent the whole of their life in Western countries. We learn English because we need it in everyday life, not because we
want to convert to the Western culture. English language is not something that deals with our beliefs. Even our religion Islam encourages us to learn other languages (2-2 S: pupil interview, May 2012).

The data also contain other examples of pupils’ creation of a balance in constructing a second language identity that suits their Islamic ideologies. This balance enabled them to benefit from English and its cultures in the context of their own identities as Muslims and Arabs. Maram’s opinion was similar to Muna’s as she believes that English is important, but considers local social and religious rules and beliefs to be significant as well.

Maram was aware of the tension between Islamic and cultural ideologies and English language cultures; however, she thinks that ideologies are not easily changed. She thinks that English can only influence those people who are not convinced of their own ideologies or those who spend their entire lives in a Western country, admiring its culture with no consideration of their own identity. This balance allowed Maram to make steady steps in English learning while feeling that she was keeping her own Islamic identity safe.

Moreover, she also employed Islamic ideologies that advocate language learning as a motivating factor to learn English. Applying these Islamic ideologies reduced Muna’s worries about losing her identity and facilitated her English learning within her Islamic environment. Furthermore, she considered English to be as a tool for accessing other cultures and introducing herself to the world as a Muslim. This investment in English encouraged Maram to learn English without fear.

**Teacher interviews**

Teachers also suggested that some pupils’ views of English and its users might be influenced by their parents’ and relatives’ views, thereby providing an implication for language teachers to select their teaching materials with their pupils’ ideologies and perceptions in mind.

**Teacher ‘N’:** I think that starting English at an early age is better. I started English when I was five-years-old in America because my father was studying there. I have chosen to be an English teacher because I have a good background in English. I think that our society still has some fear of learning English at an early age because they think that this might influence our religion, our language and our identity as Muslims. However, I think that this is not always the case, I started English when I was five years old and I am still an Arabic person and I speak Arabic fluently. I hope to see my kids fluent in English (Teacher interview, June 2012).

Teacher ‘N’ explained how language teachers can help their pupils build a balance between their need for English and their fear of losing local ideologies. She recommended that teachers be careful in selecting suitable teaching materials and strategies to ensure that they are consistent with pupils’ ideologies and cultures. Teacher ‘N’s’ own experience when she was young served as an example of the balance her parents created to reduce their daughter’s fear toward English. She spent part of her childhood in an extremely Western culture without being affected by its ideologies that contradicted her Islamic beliefs. This experience encouraged teacher ‘N’ to
support the idea of teaching English at an early age and to have her three children learn English in an international school without worrying about their identity as Muslims. However, she does worry about parents who still prefer not to teach their children English because they are anxious about the impact of the language on their children’s identity and beliefs. This anxiety stems from their belief of the conflict between local ideologies and linguistic cultures.

Teacher ‘W’: I always integrate useful things from the English culture things that are suitable for pupils as Arabic persons and for Muslim society. Language is not only a tool of communicating with people; it is values, beliefs, and ideas. However there are good things from the English culture that do not impact our beliefs or values, such as organization and respect (Teacher interview, May 2012).

Teacher ‘W’ also confirmed that language is not only a tool of communication, but also a holder of values, beliefs and thoughts. Therefore, the selection of teaching materials should take into account learners’ identity and culture as Muslims so as in order to create a balanced atmosphere that enables learners to enjoy learning without fear. She mentioned that choosing suitable ideas that reflect pupils’ beliefs, such as respect for time, and that do not contradict local ideologies is a priority in her teaching approach. This strategy allows language teachers to integrate the linguistic culture without threatening pupils’ own beliefs and might motivate learners and facilitate the process of language learning.

The following quotations are examples of pupils’ confusion between Islamic and cultural ideologies on one hand and linguistic cultures on the other. The sense of tension conveyed might force learners to acquire English with hesitation and confusion.

Sarah: I feel that those people who speak English are special and more communicative. Here in the Arabian countries our chance to speak English is very limited and restricted, we are forced to speak Arabic everywhere. We are not against English learning. We want to learn it and to keep our Arabic language, I know that English learning might influence our Arabic language and weaken it, but Arabic is our first language. No way to lose it. I don’t like those people who speak English everywhere and lose their Arabic language. And I noticed that their Arabic language is weak. I would like to keep my Arabic language and benefit from the English(2-2 S: pupil interview, May 2012).

This quotation reveals the second type of pupil, who views English as a danger and cannot adjust to learning it. These pupils might struggle and feel loss as a result of the strong pressure exerted by this belief. Sarah is an example of this confusion that results from social restrictions. She clearly stated her admiration for those people who speak English, describing them as special and more communicative people. However, her social belief that English is harmful to the Arabic identity has forced her to avoid using English and to hate its speakers. She worries about losing her identity as an Arabic person and dissolving into the English language cultures; she provided examples of English users who had lost some of their Arabic language and identity. She could not imagine herself following the same trajectory. This confusion between what she feels and what she sees in real life caused to hesitate in her English learning. Such a confusing situation could demotivate learners or even lead to loss stemming from their wish to speak English versus negative real-life models and the fear of becoming like them.
Amal: Some parents are scared of English and its effects on their kids as Muslims, so they want them to pass rather than to learn. When I say some words in English like (yes, no) my mum asks me to speak properly, she does not want me to speak English at home, one day I asked her to give me money and I said ‘money’ in English, but she refused to give me money because I said it in English (laughing).

… My grandmother, uncles and aunts do not prefer us to speak English as they think that it is something associated with non-Muslims. My grandmother, God blesses her, died long time ago, asked us not to speak this language.

… They feel that Western people are wrong; they look at the bad side of the Western culture that contradicts with our culture and religion. They just see the negative side of the European culture.

… Sometimes I feel that English might impact us, but at the same time I feel that we are a conservative society. Our religion and culture have priority over other thing. If we change our beliefs and ideas, our society won’t accept this, and we won’t accept this as well. And Quran will protect Arabic language and our identity as Muslims.

… Even children are well raised to be good Muslims. They won’t forget their identity since they live in an Islamic environment, and those people who change their identities are exceptions (2-1 L: pupil interview, May 2012).

Various extracts from Amal’s interviews as part of the pupil focus group were collected at different points in time. Initially, Amal’s perception of the impact of English and its cultures on learners’ identities appeared positive as she described her desire to speak English. However, she indicated that she struggled to find opportunities to use English among parents and relatives, who perceive English as a threat. She relayed how her mother considers speaking English to be an improper behaviour. Amal’s mother’s refusal to give her money because she asked in English is evidence of some parents’ fear and anxiety toward using English. This experience affected the way Amal’s perceptions of English. Her grandmother’s advice to avoid English was still vivid in Amal’s memory and influenced her view of English as associated with non-Muslims. These negative views stem from focusing on the contradictions between Western and Muslim ideologies. Amal’s uncomplicated and monocultural view of her society and of English speakers reassured her that her conservative society and protection of the Quran could protect her identity from the dangers of English and its cultures. Moreover, she explained how changing Muslim ideologies could be rejected by society and the people themselves as a way to reduce her fear of English. However, all these factors appeared useless in eliminating Amal’s hesitation and confusion because she mentioned that she still sometimes felt that English might affect her identity as a Muslim. This confusion and loss might demotivate Amal in particular and language learners in general and might lead to resistance to language learning.

Eiman: My grandma likes me to speak English, because she lives in America, while my mother is the opposite. She doesn’t want me to speak English. She allows me to speak English with my friends but not at home with my family. She says that you should speak Arabic and protect your language.

Eiman: English is cool … but the language of arrogant people.
EFL Learners’ Attitudes towards the Proper Pronunciation

...We need English everywhere. Everything now is in English, in supermarkets, in hospitals, with our maids, everywhere. It’s very cool to speak English. It’s the language for high-class people. However, if I speak English, people will think that I am arrogant. This is because some people speak English just to show off. It’s still unacceptable to speak English with some relatives. I mean my older my relatives except my grandmother. They become upset if I speak English in front of them, to my cousin, or my nephew for example (1-G F: pupil interview, April 2012).

Eiman also discussed her confusion and contradictory beliefs toward English, which are a result of her mother’s fear of English and her grandmother’s influence. Her grandmother, who lives in America, loves English. Having reduced her fear of English through positive experiences with Americans, she recommended that Eiman learn it. This encouraged Eiman to learn English, which she perceives to be necessary in everyday life, such as in hospitals and supermarkets and with maids. This positive view also influenced Eiman’s view of English as the language of high-class people. However, her mother’s perception of English as a threat to the Arabic language has restricted Eiman’s use of English and provoked her fear and anxiety. These contradictory views toward English caused Eiman to experience loss, hesitation and confusion. This mixture of feelings might influence language learners in similar contexts and could affect their motivation and proficiency.

The following quotations are examples of those pupils who rejected English as a result of their negative views of English and its speakers.

**Pupil interviews**

**Salma:** There is no need to speak English with them, even just words. We should avoid using English. It is useless. We really do not need it...English might influence our Arabic language. I do not use it at home at all...My family members do not like English as well (1-G F: pupil interview, April 2012).

Salma is typical of those in the study sample who held negative views of English and its communities; such views might negatively affect language learning and lead to the complete rejection of English. Even with the high status English has gained in SA, Salma feels that using English is a form of Westernization that leads to a loss of identity. She perceives English as a threat to her identity as a Muslim and Arabic person and has refused to integrate even a few words. Salma’s use of the pronoun ‘we’ when saying ‘we always avoid using English’ indicates the strong impact of her family’s and relatives’ negative perception of English on the way she views English. This shows how parents and relatives play a significant role in influencing their children and creating positive and negative attitudes toward English that might facilitate or restrict its use.

**Teacher interviews**

**Teacher ‘N’:** Speaking English in all the Arabian Gulf countries is better than in Saudi, I don’t know why it is better in Kuwait, in Emirate, in Qatar, and in Egypt. This is even the case if they are uneducated. Maybe this is because people in SA have more fear about
losing their religion than in other countries. Rejecting the teaching of English from primary school is good evidence of this. Many people refuse to allow their kids to speak English and criticize parents who do allow their kids to speak in English (Teacher interview, May 2012).

Teacher ‘N’ explained that some pupils can create a balance between their fear of English and their desire to learn it. She clarified that negative views in some families can be passed on to their children and resulting in a rejection of English. She noted from her experience as an English teacher in the Saudi context that some parents refuse the integration of English in primary school as they fear losing their identity as Muslims who perceive Islam as a priority in everyday life. She mentioned that some families do not allow their children to use English because of their perception of English as a threat to their ideologies. This feeling of danger could affect language learners negatively and might lead to language rejection; therefore, ideological perspectives should be addressed in language learning.

Conclusion
In the current study, the findings highlighted some pupils’ negative beliefs about English. Pupils’ narrations during their interviews appeared to indicate that perceiving English culture as a danger to their own culture could negatively affect their feelings toward the English language. Pupils seemed confused, uneasy, or even unable to learn English within this frustrating setting. These findings are similar to those from Gray’s (2000) study, which revealed that forcing English language learners in the target culture might lead to the complete rejection of language learning. Some pupils justified their fear of the English language and culture with the contradictions they experienced between their local Islamic cultures and the cultures represented by the English language. Others seemed to justify their resistance to language learning with their family’s desire to protect their Islamic Arabic identity and preventing it from disseminating in the non-Islamic cultures; consequently, they do not allow their children to speak English at home and to perceive speaking English as improper. These negative beliefs about English appeared to impact some pupils’ attitudes and increasing their anxiety and resistance to learn English, which could sometimes lead to a complete rejection of English. These findings are similar to those of other research (Al Ahmed, 2011; Harris & New, 1991; Shafi, 1983) emphasizing the perception of English language learning among some Muslims as a threat to Islamic identity and culture. However, the findings also appeared to indicate that some pupils were able to challenge their fear and use English even within these demotivating settings. In other words, some negative views toward the English language and culture do not necessarily lead to resistance to language learning. This point needs further investigation regarding ESL in Islamic countries, taking into account the context and social surroundings and the different cultures within the Saudi context. This should be researched using bigger samples from different areas to be observed for longer time.

To conclude, some pupils struggle to learn English notwithstanding their socially acquired negative views toward English and its communities. This research explained the impact of negative beliefs on pupils’ use and perception of English. The outcomes indicate that perceiving English as a threat to identity and culture can affect pupils’ learning. Moreover, negative images of the English language and its users can demotivate pupils and might lead to resistance or even to the complete rejection of English. Pupils’ resistance seems to be influenced by various perspectives, such as local ideologies and social surroundings. Some pupils’ interest
in English and need to use it can reduce their fear toward the English language and culture. In contrast, other pupils feel confused or even reject English learning due to dissonance and the clash between their own beliefs and the incompatible ideologies they think might be inherent in the English language.

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References
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EFL Learners’ Attitudes towards the Proper Pronunciation</th>
<th>Al harthi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
EFL Learners’ Attitudes towards the Proper Pronunciation


The Effect of an Integration-Based Instructional Strategy on Developing EFL Students' Listening Skills at Al-Al Bayt University

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Abstract
Listening is a language skill that people in general and students in specific may need it more than some of the other language skills such as reading and writing in their everyday life and communication. Yet, the integration of the four language skills should be always emphasized when learning any foreign language since this reinforces each other and represents the natural acquisition of the language. The current study aims to examine the effect of an instructional program based on integrating the four language skills on Jordanian undergraduate EFL students' listening comprehension skills and to find out their attitudes regarding the effectiveness of this program on improving their listening skills. In order to collect the data, the researchers used two instruments: pre-post test and an interview. The study is a quasi-experimental one, and the subjects of the study were 61 students from Al Al Bayt University in Jordan. The subjects were divided into two groups: the control one had 24 students while the experimental one had 37. The findings of the study reveal that there is a significant difference at (α= 0.05) between the means of the two groups at the listening post-test due to the program. In addition, the instructional program proves to be effective for the students of the experimental group who believe that the program improved their listening skills.

keywords: listening comprehension, skills integration-based instructional program

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Introduction
Listening plays a major role in people's everyday communication and it is a basic skill among the other language skills, speaking, reading and writing. Its significance stems from the fact that it is the first skill that people learn or acquire, and it is the most frequently used skill in communication. In spite of its significance, the listening skill has been the neglected skill in foreign language studies, research and teaching. However, in the past few years, teaching foreign language research "has given a major boost to listening" (Nunan, 1998:1), since a learner's success in foreign language classrooms depends heavily on what he/she hears, and which, in turn, helps him/her to interact with others and be creative in communicating with the foreign language. In this regard, Brown (2001) has the same point of view and asserts that what necessitates to use Communication Language Teaching is the awareness that foreign language learners. He adds that although these learners are equipped with the knowledge of grammar, they cannot communicate with that language, i.e., they cannot express themselves or negotiate with others freely. Abbas (2012) also believes that one of the goals for teachers as well as learners is to be able to master the English language listening skill.

Accordingly, there has been a worldwide shift and interest toward the teaching of listening and developing the listening performance for learners as well as creating and designing strategies to develop foreign language learners' listening skills. Among these strategies is the skills integration in which learners use the four language skills in learning one skill, such as the listening skill, to communicate interactively with each other, in a way that is similar to their everyday communication. Tajzad and Ostovar-Namaghi (2014) believe that one of the first applied linguists who calls for skill integration is Widdowson (1978). Widdowson (1978) calls for the need for skill integration asserting that one of the advantages for implementing skill integration inside classrooms is that it closely associates linguistic and communicative abilities with each other, and this in turn leads to the development of learners' productive and receptive skills.

Skills integration according to Mekheimer & Aldosari (2013) is "a skill-based approach to teaching language skills all in one"(p.1265). Furthermore, a number of researchers (Brown, 2001; O'Malley & Chamot, 1994; Mekheimer & Aldosari, 2013; Sanchez, 2000; Tavil, 2010; Wu & Alrabah, 2014) highlight the importance of skills integration in foreign language classrooms. They confirm that among the advantages of skills integration is that it helps learners to use the language they learnt in the classes. Brown (2001) confirms that learning one skill by integrating the other ones motivates and reinforces the learning of the other skills, which in turn helps, according to Wu and Alrabah, (2014), learners to develop their "overall communicative skills" (p.121). Furthermore, Jing (2006) adds that skills integration fulfills and meets the different learners' styles. Extrovert learners participate a lot in the class, introverts like to listen or read, learners who prefer analytical or visual styles can also see the way words are written and the construction of sentences.

Recent research studies show that skills integration helps not only learners, but also teachers of the foreign language. Sanchez (2000) and Akram and Malik (2010) assert that skills integration motivates teachers to vary the activities in language classes and helps learners as well to use the language they learn freely, vividly and naturally; thus, it increases the dynamicity of the classes and the interaction among learners themselves. In this regard, Oxford (2001)
The Effect of an Integration-Based Instructional Strategy

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considers the teaching of English as a second or foreign language a tapestry and this tapestry "is woven from many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages"(p.1). She also elaborates that another significant strand is the integrated-skill approach in which the four skills are "interwoven within instruction", which in turn, leads to an optimal communication efficiently and effectively.

Statement of the problem
In almost all Jordanian universities, the English language department presents a course in the listening comprehension, but most of the time students face difficulties in such a course. Being instructors in the English Department at Al Al Bayt University for fourteen years, the researchers have noticed that their students suffer from many problems when communicating in English and their scores in the listening course are low compared with other scores in other language skills courses. A number of local research studies report this lack of listening proficiency by the Jordanian students (e.g. Al-Jamal 2009, and Al-Karain, 2011).

In order to be active in EFL classes, especially in the listening comprehension ones, students should be motivated and encouraged to use their four language skills in order to learn English communicatively, appropriately and authentically in a way that is similar to their mother language context. Therefore, the researchers designed a strategy that would improve their listening comprehension performance.

Questions of the study
The study aims to answer these two questions:
1- Are there significant differences between the students’ scores in the experimental group and control group on the listening test as a whole due to the teaching strategy (integration-based instructional strategy and the conventional strategy)?
2- What are the students’ opinions concerning the effectiveness of the integration-based instructional strategy in developing their listening skills and their suggestions to enhance it and improve the teaching of this skill at the university level?

Significance of the study
This study presents a strategy that is based on skills integration approach which highlights the use of the four language skills in learning each skill. Also, the instructional program in this study focuses on the importance of a number of activities inside the classroom which motivate students to work in groups and take notes while listening to the listening texts. These activities may be helpful for both learners and instructors since they can add vividness to the listening classes and learners would mimic the real life communication.

Participants of the study
The participants of the study were 61 Jordanian undergraduate EFL freshmen who enrolled in the Listening Comprehension course in the English Department at Al Al Bayt University during the first semester of the academic year 2015/2016; they were enrolled in two sections. The two sections were chosen purposefully. The experimental group included 37 students, while the control group had 24 ones. The control group was taught the material in the textbook, NorthStar, whereas the experimental group was taught the same material after redesigning it according to the skills integration strategy. The researchers taught the two groups.
Instruments of the study
1- To collect the data, the researchers used two instruments:

   pre-post listening test to measure the students’ listening performance before and after the treatment with regard to their improvement in these four listening skills listening to support answers with information from the lecture, listening to compare and contrast points of view, listening to infer meaning from context, and listening to recognize personal assumptions about some topics. In each test, students had to answer two types of questions: response and true/false questions after they listened to the listening texts for three times, and after they were asked to write notes that would help them to write the correct answer. At the end of the two tests, the researchers corrected the students' papers and recorded their scores (see appendix A for the test).

   2- In order to investigate the effectiveness of the instructional program, the researchers held semi-structured interviews with the students of the experimental group at the end of the semester. The interviewees answered the questions individually and their answers were recorded and analyzed for frequent themes (see appendix B).

The redesigned material
The researchers redesigned the same listening material in the textbook which was taught to the control group and taught it during the first semester of the academic year 2015-2016. During the semester, students met in two 75-minute lectures a week. The material consists of six listening texts. They were taught interactively using different reading and writing activities.

Validity and reliability of the instruments and the redesigned material
In order to judge the validity of the listening tests, the redesigned material and the interview questions, a jury of seven professors from Yarmouk University, Jordan University of Science and Technology (JUST), and Al Al Bayt University were asked to provide their feedback and opinions with regard to their suitability to the purposes of the study; they looked into their language and their content. Their suggestions were taken into consideration in the final versions of the instruments and the material.

   In order to establish the reliability of the listening test, it was given to 30 students of a pilot study group who did not participate in the study, two weeks later the same test was given to the same group. The researchers calculated the correlation coefficient between the students' scores on the two tests; it was (0.83) which is considered suitable for the study.

Analysis of the results of the study
To answer the first research question, means, standard deviations, and the ANCOVA of the repeated measures were calculated and used to find out whether there are any significant differences in the students’ listening performance due to the instructional program. The students' responses to the interview questions were analyzed qualitatively where the common themes were detected.

Findings of the study
In order to answer the first question of the study, means and standard deviations of the students' scores on both the pre- and post-tests were calculated for the listening skills: pre-listening, supporting answers with information, comparing and contrasting points of view, inferring meaning from context, recognizing personal assumptions about some topics were calculated. In
addition, the adjusted means for the posttest, and the standard errors according to the listening skills and the teaching strategy were also calculated. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Means, standard deviations, adjusted means and standard errors of the students' scores on the pretest and posttest of the listening comprehension skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listening Skills</th>
<th>Teaching Strategy</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Adj. Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>24</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.34</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting answers with information</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.21</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.21</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comparing and contrast points of view</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.27</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.40</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.27</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inferring meaning from context</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.15</td>
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<td>0.28</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.25</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recognizing personal assumptions about some topics</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.26</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
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<td>0.25</td>
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<td>0.25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Whole</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
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<td>0.22</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that there are observed differences between the means of the posttest for the listening skills. In order to investigate the observed differences, the researchers used the ANCOVA of repeated measures of the students' scores on the pretest and posttest of the listening comprehension skills due to the teaching strategy; the results are presented in Table 6.

Table 2: Results of the ANCOVA of repeated measures of the students' scores on the pretest and posttest of the listening comprehension skills due to the teaching strategy and Listening skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests of: Source of variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares df</th>
<th>Mean Square F Significance Partial η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Within-Subjects Effects</td>
<td>[Mauchly's W=0.53; Approx. χ²=32.90; df=9; ε (Greenhouse-Geisser)=0.75]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>0.51  2.98  0.17  2.7  0.  4.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills×Teaching Strategy</td>
<td>1.58  2.98  0.53  8.5  0.  13.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Effect of an Integration-Based Instructional Strategy

Table 2 shows that there is a statistically significant difference at (α 0.05) between the adjusted means of the students' posttest due to the teaching strategy. Because of the differences in the levels of the listening skills, Bonferroni test for multiple comparisons was used to verify the differences between the posttest adjusted means for the listening skills, the results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Results of Bonferroni Post-Hoc test of the students' scores on the posttest of the listening comprehension skills due to the Listening skills.
Table 3 shows that the results were in favor of the listening skill "supporting answers with information" in comparison with the skills of "recognizing personal assumptions about some topics, inferring meaning from context, and comparing and contrasting points of view". The Table also shows that the results were in favor of "pre-listening" in comparison with "recognizing personal assumptions about some topics". It should be pointed that the effect of the posttest explained 4.86% of the variance which is classified as very low according to the standards of Al-Sharbeeni, (2007).

Furthermore, Table 3 indicates that there is a significant statistical difference at (\(\alpha=0.05\)) between the two adjusted means of the skills; pre-listening, supporting answers with information, comparing and contrasting points of view, inferring meaning from context, and recognizing personal assumptions about some topics due to the teaching strategy in favor of the students of the experimental group in comparison with the students of the control group. It should be pointed out that the effect size of the teaching strategy explained 23.15% of the variance for the means of the listening comprehension posttest which is classified as less than the average according to the standards of Al-Sharbeeni (2007).

Table 3 as well shows that there is a statistically significant difference at (\(\alpha=0.05\)) between the adjusted means of the students' posttest due to the interaction between the listening skills and the teaching strategy. Chart 1 presents the 2-way ranked interaction between the adjusted means of the posttest according to the interaction between the listening skills and the teaching strategy.

**Figure 1:** 2-way ranked interaction on the adjusted means of the of the students' scores on the posttest of the listening comprehension skills due to the listening skills and teaching strategy.
Figure 1 indicates that the performance of the students who were taught by the integration-based strategy was better than the performance of those who were taught by the conventional way in the posttest for the listening skills: pre-listening, supporting answers with information, comparing and contrasting points of view, inferring meaning from context, recognizing personal assumptions about some topics. The effect of the interaction between the listening skills posttest and the teaching strategy explained 13.60% of the variance which is classified as low according to the standards of Al-Sharbeeni, (2007).

To look deeply into the effects of the skills integration on the students' listening skills, means, standard deviations, adjusted means and the standard errors if the students’ scores on the pre-post tests were calculated according to the listening stages and the teaching strategy. Table 4 presents the results.

**Table 4: Means, standard deviations, adjusted means and standard errors of the students' scores on the pretest and posttest of the listening comprehension stages due to the listening stages and teaching strategy.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Teaching Strategy</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Adj. Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warming-Up</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td><strong>0.48</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.43</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.43</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.04</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Listening</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td><strong>0.54</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.22</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.54</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.02</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-Listening</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td><strong>0.39</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.21</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.38</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.02</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Listening</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td><strong>0.29</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.30</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.27</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.03</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 indicates that there are observed differences between the posttest' means according to the listening stages and the teaching strategy. In order to test the observed differences, the ANCOVA of the repeated measures was used; the results are presented in Table 5.

**Table 5: Results of the ANCOVA of repeated measures of the students' scores on the pretest and posttest of the listening comprehension stages due to the teaching strategy and listening stages.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests of: Source of variance</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial $\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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Within-Subjects Effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Mauchly's W</th>
<th>Approx. $\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$\varepsilon$ (Greenhouse-Geisser)</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>42.40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>10.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage×Teaching Strategy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage×Warming-Up (Covariate)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>10.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage×Pre-Listening (Covariate)</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>4.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage×While-Listening (Covariate)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage×Post-Listening (Covariate)</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (Stage)</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>111.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11.67</td>
<td>124.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Between-Subjects Effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Strategy</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warming Up (Covariate)</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Listening (Covariate)</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-Listening (Covariate)</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Listening (Covariate)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows that there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha=0.05$) between the adjusted means of the listening skills on the posttest in the two groups due to the listening stages. Bonferroni test for multiple comparisons was used to check the significance of these differences. Table 6 presents the results.

Table 6: Results of Bonferroni Post-Hoc test of the students' scores on the posttest of the listening comprehension stages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Post-Listening</th>
<th>While-Listening</th>
<th>Warming-Up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bonferroni</td>
<td>Adj. Mean</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-Listening</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warming-Up</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Listening</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is noted that the results were in favor of the pre-listening stage in comparison with the while-listening and post-listening stages. In addition, the results were in favor of the warming-up stage in comparison with the post-listening one. Table 6 also shows that the results were in favor of the while-listening stage in comparison with post-listening one. It should be known that the
effect size of the posttest for the listening stages explained 10.42% of the variance for the listening posttest classified as low according to the standards of Al-Sharbeeni (2007).

Furthermore, Table 6 shows that there is a statistically significant difference at (α= 0.05) between the two adjusted means of the posttest of the listening stages: warming up, pre-listening, while-listening and posttest in favor of the students of the experimental group. It should be taken into consideration that the effect size for the teaching strategy explained 27.76% of the variance of the posttest’ means for the listening stages which is classified as below the average according to the standards of Al-Sharbeeni (2007).

In addition, Table 6 indicates that there are statistically significant differences at(α=0.05) between the adjusted means on the pre-listening test for Warming-up, pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening stages due to the interaction between the listening levels and the teaching strategy. Chart 2 explains the 2-way ranked interaction between the adjusted means for the posttest for the listening stages due to the interaction between the listening stages and the teaching strategy.

![Chart 2](image)

*Figure 2: 2-way ranked interaction on the adjusted means of the students' scores on the posttest of the listening comprehension stages due to the listening stages and teaching strategy.*

Chart 2 shows that the performance of students who were taught by the integration-based strategy was higher in the posttest than those who were taught by the conventional way. It should be noted that the effect size of the posttest interaction for the listening stages with the teaching strategy explained 16.83% of the explained variation for the posttest listening stages which is classified as low according to Al-Sharbeeni (2007).

To answer the second question, the researchers interviewed the participants in the experimental group at the end of the first semester of the academic year 2015/2016, and recorded their responses. The researchers listened to the answers and analyzed them qualitatively, then classified them into themes according to the similarities in the participants' responses.
As for the first interview question, concerning the participants' opinions about the effectiveness of the strategy, all of them reported that they liked the use of the four language skills in the listening comprehension course. Such integration alongside with group work improved their English language proficiency, self-confidence to speak in front of their colleagues, as well as their openness to make friendships. Furthermore, most of them mentioned that having the summary and the box of vocabulary before listening to the tape, helped them understand the topic of the Unit and to have a general idea about what they would listen to. A large number of participants clarified that note-taking through pre-, while and post-listening stages was of great use that helped them remember the content of the listening text.

With regard to group work, the majority of the students mentioned that it was of great benefit since it helped them to reach the true and best answer after they discuss the information and the notes they wrote together. A few students liked the use of writing because this could help them to spell the words correctly.

According to the second interview question which asks students to provide their suggestions to improve the teaching of listening comprehension, they gave a number of varied ones. Few students mentioned that the accent was difficult for them to understand everything, thus, they suggested that it would be of great benefit if speakers speak slower or use simpler language and simpler vocabulary. Some students preferred that the speakers in the cassette were British, not Americans, while some stated that it would be better to hear the texts from Arabic speakers. Furthermore, a great number of students assured that they would get much more benefit if they had headsets, or listen to the texts in the labs through computers or use data show while listening.

A considerable number of students suggested that dividing students into groups of four or five would be much better than groups of three in order to have better opportunities to conversate and so develop their speaking abilities. Few students mentioned that being exposed to more listening texts would help them to better develop their listening comprehension skills.

Some mentioned that using technology applications would help them more. For example, one of them mentioned that they would benefit more if they had an application which is directly connected to Al Al Bayt University. Some suggested that they would learn more if the listening comprehension course was through a mobile application. However, a number of students had no comments and stated that this strategy was very good for them and they liked it as it is.

**Discussions**

The findings of the present study show statistically significant differences in the overall listening performance and the listening sub-skills in favor of the participants in the experimental group. This, in fact, stresses the effectiveness of the integration-based strategy in developing students' listening skills.

This positive development could have resulted from a number of reasons. First, the number of activities that the students in the experimental group participated in throughout the different stages in the listening class could have developed their understanding of the listening text. Furthermore, the fact that they were asked to write some notes to help them answer the questions in each activity, may have helped them to execute these activities.
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Also, one of the significant factors that may have contributed to the effectiveness of the strategy is the students' cooperation in the class. In groups, they discussed each question and each answer and exchanged their ideas and omitted unimportant information and added significant ones in order to reach out the right answers. In addition, they expressed their opinions about their classmates' answers and accepted points of view to them. This group work had a positive effect on the students' overall development since it mirrors the real life communication in which people, not only students, use the four language skills in their everyday life communication.

Moreover, they were exposed to the listening texts more than once, which enabled them to focus more on the questions and their answers. Besides, they had the opportunity to read the summary for each listening text and a box of vocabulary which contains the main words in each listening class. This way helped them direct their attention to the main idea in the listening text as well as the main words. Also, they were asked to share their information and experiences with their classmates about the listening topic, which in a way or another raised their self-confidence and helped them express themselves freely.

Conclusion

The findings of the study warrants the following conclusions:

1- The instructional program resulted in the development of the students' listening skills and performance in the post-test which could indicate that there is a relation between the integration of the four language skills and improving the listening skills.

2- The students' answers to the interview questions signal their appreciation at the skill integration strategy, which enabled them to use the four skills in learning one skill. They also expressed their acknowledgement at the strategy which made learning easier for them since they could listen to the text for more than once and they could also write notes.

3- The interview questions indicated that it was a new experience to them to work in groups and conversate with their classmates during the class. That made them feel the freedom inside the class to express and accept opinions. Group work also helped them make new friendships.

Based on the findings of the study, the researchers present the following recommendations:

1- Integration of the four skills in teaching the listening skill should be introduced and enhanced. EFL teachers should be advised to design proper listening activities and introduce them to listening comprehension learners. These activities should be based on integrating the four skills in teaching the listening skill and they should focus on giving learners the opportunity to listen to the text more than once and should also encourage learners to work in groups.

2- Curriculum designers should take into consideration the significance of such integration in designing EFL textbooks.

3- More research needs to be carried out on the effect of integration-based instructional strategy on listening comprehension. In the future, research may involve a larger sample in other EFL contexts.
The Effect of an Integration-Based Instructional Strategy

About the Authors:
Hana' Abu Mwais is an English teacher in the Department of English Language and Literature at Al Al Bayt University. She has been teaching for over 15 years. During this period, she has taught different courses such as Listening Comprehension, Reading, Writing (1,2), Grammar, Speaking, Translation (1,2).

Prof. Oqla Mahmoud Al-Smadi is a professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education at Yarmouk University. Professor Al-Smadi has a number of research studies which are related to his interests in TEFL and TAFL, Contrastive Linguistics and Discourse Analysis.

References


**Appendix (A)**

The pre-post listening test

**Pre-post Listening Comprehension Test**

Name:……………………………………. (Time:75minutes)

Dear student,

You are going to listen to a text twice. Please, read the summary and be prepared to answer the questions below.

**Summary:**

The listening text for this exam is a dialogue between a reporter and a number of people who discuss the issue of spanking children. In the dialogue, there are some people who are with spanking children as a form of discipline, while some others are against it. Both groups present their reasons that support their opinions.

**Pre-listening Questions:**

Before listening to the tape, answer the following questions:

1- What do most parents do when their children do something wrong?

2- How did your parents punish you when you were a child?

3- Are you with or against punishing children who do wrong? Why? Why not?
4- In the future, if you want to punish your children, what would you do?

Objective: To support answers with information from the lecture

Activity One:

Listen to the beginning of the text then take notes with your partners to answer the questions below: (3 points)

1- Why was the father arrested?

2- How old was the child who was spanked?

3- How did the police know that the Dale Clover spanked his child?

Activity Two:

Decide whether each of the following statements is True or False, and write the answer in the provided place. (3 points)

1- The man and his children were at a restaurant………………

2- Spanking has approximately the same meaning of corporal punishment………

3- The report will be about the difference between spanking and child abuse……

Activity Three:

Listen to the whole report. While listening, take notes that would help you to write the correct answer. (3 points)

1- According to the listening text, what happened to Dale Clover? Why?

2- In Taylor Robinson's point of view, what does spanking teach children?

3- According to the listening text, what makes people afraid to discipline their children according to Dr. John Oparah?

Now, decide whether each of the following questions is True or False and write the correct answer: (3 points)

1- Dale Clover is a father of six children………………

2- Rhonda Moore says that child abuse happens when a parent loses control……

3- In Dr. Oparah’s opinion, some parents may be treated like criminals because they abuse their children………………

Activity Four:

Objective: To compare and contrast points of view
Listen to the tape for the second time and take notes to answer the following questions: (3 points)

1- According to Rhonda Moore, what is the difference between spanking and child abuse?

2- What is the difference between Moore's and Robinson's opinions regarding spanking?

3- Dr. John Oparah and Taylor Robinson have contradictory views according to spanking. What are their views?

Now, decide whether each of the following questions is True or False and write the answer in the provided place. (3 points)

1- Dale Clover confessed that he hit his child.
2- Rhonda Moore says that burning a child's hand is necessary to teach him that touching fire is wrong.
3- Dr. Beverly Lau says that spanking is the best way to get a child's attention.

Activity Five:

Objective: To infer meaning from context

Answer the following questions: (3 points)

1- How can you express the meaning of the word *punishment* according to the listening text?
2- How can you express the meaning of the word *arrest* according to the listening text?
3- How can you express meaning of the word *effective* according to the listening text?

Circle the best answer: (3 points)

1- The word "debate" means:
   a- a disagreement.
   b- a belief.
   c- a law.
   d- A system.

2- The word "issue" means:
   a- Problem.
   b- Subject or case.
   c- Conversation.
   d- Dialogue.

3- The synonym for the word "spanking" is:
   a- Hitting.
   b- Child abuse.
   c- Discipline.
Post-Listening Questions:

Activity Six:

Objective: To recognize personal assumptions about some topics

Answer the following questions: (3 points)

1- In Rhonda Moore's opinion, why is it O.K. to cause a little bit of pain to children?

2- Why does she spank her children?

3- Why does not Taylor Robinson spank his children?

Now decide whether each of the following statement is True or False and write the answer in the provided place. (3 points)

1- Dr. John Oparah says that some parents are afraid to discipline their children because their wives might call the police………………..

2- Dr. Beverly Lau concludes from his own experience and studies that spanking can lead to more violent actions………………

3- Taylor Robinson is against spanking………………..

Appendix (B)

The interview questions

1- What is your opinion about the effectiveness of the skills integration-based strategy that was used in teaching Listening Comprehension throughout the whole semester?

2- Do you have any suggestion for developing the teaching of the listening skills?
Investigating the Metacognitive Online Reading Strategies employed by Iraqi EFL Undergraduate Students

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Abstract
This study aims to investigate the use of metacognitive online reading strategies among Iraqi students. The research seeks to answer the following research questions: (i) What are the metacognitive online reading strategies of Iraqi fourth year undergraduate students when they read online academic text? (ii) What are the difficulties faced by Iraqi fourth year undergraduates when they read online academic text?. Using a quantitative approach, the study deployed questionnaires which were administered on 50 fourth year students of Al- Salam University College, Baghdad Iraq. The response of the metacognitive online reading strategies among the students was assessed differently. The students adopt online dictionaries, reading e-books and online journal articles are some of the ways to increase the students’ reading ability and enhance online reading among English as foreign language (EFL) students from Iraq. The researcher analyzed students metacognitive reading strategies usage and their problems. Based on the quantitative analysis of the students’ responses to the SORS questionnaire, the students showed that problem-solving reading strategies (µ=3.59) is the most frequently used strategy followed by support reading strategies (µ=3.49) and global reading strategies (µ=3.42). All these identified themes provide and help the students to improve their reading skills. The researcher recommends that future research examine other reading strategies with online or even print text. Moreover, reading strategies should be taught to English as foreign language (EFL) students.

Key words: English reading difficulties, Iraqi EFL students, metacognitive strategies, online reading strategies

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Investigating the Metacognitive Online Reading Strategies

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Introduction

Modern learning environment revolve around the use of digital and online tools for education and English language acquisition. The proficiency and strategies for comprehend and critically analyze information on the Internet plays a crucial role in students’ achievement. Existing study has examine the metacognitive online reading strategies undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), who use different strategies in their reading (Mesgar et al., 2012). It is necessary to consider metacognitive online reading among Iraqi-Arab EFL students. In computer-based reading, it may be most useful from navigational aspect of hypertext which focuses on the “broader dispositions and foundational metacognitive skills that people bring to reading and learning in hypertext in order to recognize the features of reading in certain environment” (McEneaney, 2003, p. 6).

Many Arab learners face various problems with online reading, because of the lack of background knowledge on how to deal with the reading materials. Unfortunately, in education, reading is regarded as the most essential skill for acquiring knowledge and gathering information for academic achievement and research (Alfassi, 2004; Wei, 2005). Therefore, mastering online reading skills can enhance learners’ reading ability, increase their reading process and assist them in comprehending many difficult online texts (Noor et al., 2011).

There are several strategies involved in the reading process. Competent students often use these strategies effectively while reading. One of these strategies is the metacognitive reading strategy which has been defined by Flavell as "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and outcomes or anything related to them” (Flavell, 1976, p. 232). In fact, various studies have revealed that reading is a very complex and demanding process which require students to actively use metacognitive processes (Mukhlif, 2012). Metacognitive strategies refers to methods used to help students understand the way they learn; in other words, it means processes designed for students to 'think' about their 'thinking. As a reading strategy, metacognitive reading strategy deals with ability of students to think about what they are reading. According to Veenman (1993) metacognitive learning or reading could take another dimension and process in online or computerised learning environment.

Two aspects of this phenomenon were discussed by Kuhn (2000), Veenman (1993) and Flavell (1979). The first aspect is the students’ self-awareness of a knowledge based on which information is stored that is connected to how, when, and where to use the various cognitive strategies. Secondly, the self-awareness and access to strategies that facilitate direct learning (e.g. monitoring difficulty level, awareness). In addition, the consciousness required in metacognitive reading has been found to be developmental and relies on a continuum (Jetton & Alexander, 2001). Proficient readers use one or more metacognitive strategies to comprehend the texts. During reading, metacognitive processing is expressed through strategies, which are “procedural, purposeful, effortful, willful essential, and facilitative in nature”; and in addition to this, “the reader must purposefully or intentionally or willfully invoke strategies” (Jetton & Alexander, 2001: 295).

Online reading has become a major source of information for students and teachers. Therefore, metacognitive level of online readers becomes a necessary factor in modern research. Hsieh and Dwyer (2009:1) attributes this online dimension to metacognition to the” increasing
globalization and the rise of the World Wide Web which has made online reading to become a major source of learning for second language (L2) readers”. Similarly, information explosion and the shift to electronic information have enhanced the ability of learners to access more online learning materials rather than reading printed texts. Some researchers stated that the differences between print and online environments are so immense that they cannot be compared well, with the newer technologies requiring new conceptualizations of both literacy and literate practices (Leu et al., 2004; Liu, 2005). Although, many challenges could affect the students’ reading, especially with online reading where the ability to choose a good strategy is crucial, metacognitive strategies can help EFL students to better understand what they are reading online (Taki, 2015).

Many attempts have been done to describe the importance of reading academic text in general and online reading strategies in particular. Brown (1987) believes that in order to monitor and regulate thoughts during reading, students are required to use online reading strategies. Therefore, it would be valuable to investigate the metacognitive online reading strategies by Iraqi EFL undergraduate learners.

Literature Review
This paper relies on existing studies on themes such as metacognitive learning, online reading and learning EFL. Reading has become a significant skill in EFL teaching. Anderson (2008) focuses on the art of reading which he explained as an active, fluent process which involves the reader and the reading material in building meaning. Álvarez (2012) examines the difficulties in typical reading task and the impact of computerization or online environment. He asserts that although some learners face difficulties when dealing with typical reading tasks, advances in information and communication technologies, and the constant development of interactive and multimedia dynamics on websites can help students overcome their problems.

In the last few years, reading online has become important for teaching and learning. It is also a significant skills for finding different types of materials (Karbalaei, 2010; Mesgar et al., 2012). In line with reading online, metacognitive awareness requires individual cognitive and motivational processes in the reading process (Fatema et al., 2009; Pammu et al., 2011; Songsiengchai, 2010; Temur & Bahar, 2011). According to Álvarez (2012), there has been notable increase in development of information and communication technology in the last few years. In line with this, Mesgar et al (2012) assessed the cognitive need of effective readers. The study added that readers should be armed with a large amount of online metacognitive reading strategies in order to comprehend online reading materials.

Furthermore, the eagerness of students to read in an online environment is the focus of Konishi (2003) The study examined the reading strategies among Japanese students within the context of hypertext online material. Amer (2010) extends the study to reading strategies and engagement between students and teachers in an ICT enabled environment with a special focus on English as a Second Language (ESL). Study by Konishi (2003) reveals that Japanese students were eager to use online reading strategies in their reading. In addition to concerns about presenting content in meaningful ways, they mentioned issues relating to students interaction via the internet. The result of this study shows the effectiveness of each form on students, independent preferences, group preferences, and technological preferences.
Hsieh & Dwyer (2009), in their article, state the different online reading strategies and different styles that learners use to make their reading useful. Therefore, the study encourages the learners to use re-reading keyword strategy. Songsiengchai (2010) investigates the reading strategies for online and print materials among third year English major at Srinakharinwirot University. The categorization of students into low and highly proficient readers was one of the findings of the study which was dissected from the study by Singhal (2001). Despite the categorization Songsiengchai (2010) finds that there are some difficulties encountered by good and poor readers as well as both use different strategies in online and print texts. The participants are lacking in the use of suitable strategies especially poor readers. This result can be transposed to Arab students who are learning to read and understand English online.

In relation with metacognitive online strategies, Ilustre (2011) discovers that the problem solving strategies among students correlates positively with the text comprehension. Further findings indicate active beliefs, and not passive beliefs about reading, were positively correlated with text comprehension. Similar findings have been reiterated by Jafari & Shokrpour (2012) which focused on ESL learning among Iranian students based on expository texts. In addition, problem solving strategies contribute to gradual understanding text.

In the online mode of delivery English language, Cubukcu (2008) argues that access to learning materials via the internet is necessary. The study finds that readers learn actively and take responsibility for their own learning in this situation. Similarly, Dörnyei (2003) explores the motivation and attitude of students which can force them to develop their metacognitive online reading skills. This study supports the conclusion by Cubukcu (2008) on the effectiveness of systematic direct instruction of multiple metacognitive strategies intended to assist students in comprehending text.

**Materials and methods**
The current study adopted a Survey of Reading Strategies questionnaire (SORS) which was developed by Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001). It consists of two main components, which are; the demographic questions and while the second part incorporated SORS. The data collected were analysed statistically based on certain variable which will enhance insight into the Metacognitive strategies used by Iraqi students in online reading. The demographic questions were designed to collect general background information about the respondents, which includes; gender, age, the student’s status, the regularity of accessing the online reading material and reading performance. The main SORS section focused on the metacognitive reading strategies with the purpose of collecting responses on statement such as “I have a purpose in mind when I read online”. The researcher also provided a short explanation about the questionnaires, the purpose of the study and instructions on how to respond to the questionnaires.

Regarding the content of the questionnaire, it is categorised based on predefined acronyms such as Global Reading strategies (GLOB), Problem solving strategies (PROB), and Support strategies (SUP). Moreover, the questionnaire has included 33 items and five Likert scales such as (1) which means ‘I never or almost never do this, (2) which means ‘I do this only occasionally’, (3) which means ‘I sometimes do this’, (4) which means ‘I usually do this’ and (5) which means that ‘I always or almost always do this’. After the students go through each
statement, they are expected to circle one of the numbers (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) based on their level of agreement with the statement (Jamieson, 2004).

The respondents in the current study were fifty EFL university students (37 females and 13 males; see figure 1). They were undergraduate students of English in their fourth year, at Al-Salam University College. The students were in the last two months of their final academic year of the study, to obtain bachelor degree. The participants were different in their abilities to understand and speak English language; ranging from proficient and to less proficient. Since they are Arabs and the mother tongue is Arabic, their English proficiency was at intermediate and high intermediate level. As it can be seen, that the majority of respondents are between the ages 19-29 years old, and this formed 74% of the study’s population size, this was followed by 20% who are 30-39 years old, and lastly, 6% who are 40-50 years old (refer to figure 2).
Procedure for Data collection
The research used email as a procedure to be accessed and traced to collect the questionnaire. This type of procedure has been considered more appropriate in online research which requires that an electronic mailing system be used to send and receive data between the subjects and the researchers (Wright, 2005). The benefit of adapting such a developed procedure is to allow the researchers to evaluate the response quicker and at a lower cost (Dörnyei, 2007; Mehta & Sivadas, 1995). Some parts of the questionnaire were translated into Arabic, to help students for better understanding and be able to answer all items of the SORS questionnaire.

Data Analysis
Since the study uses questionnaire, the data will be analyzed in two ways i.e. descriptive analysis and inferential analysis (Allen & Seaman, 2007; Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). Firstly, descriptive statistics requires the discussion of frequency distribution and percentage of specific responses. Secondly, inferential statistics in this study is conducted using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 17.0 version. SPSS has been used in previous studies and the present study because it is suitable for quantitative data (Aron et al., 2013; Dörnyei, 1990; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995). The first part of the questionnaire was employed to identify the variables which are feasible using descriptive statistical analysis based on frequency distribution and the percentage. This will help to explain the demographic variables. The analysis of the second part of the questionnaire for strategies in reading online academic text is conducted through the use of Likert scale response to address the following research questions. Firstly, the use of the metacognitive online reading strategies among Iraqi fourth year undergraduate students when engage reading online academic texts. Secondly, the difficulties these students face when they read online academic texts.

Results and Data set
As mentioned earlier, the sample for this study (n = 50) consists of students who were studying in the field of English Language Studies (ELS) between 2011-2012 academic years. The students were asked to provide the researcher with their demographic information which included age and field of study. The respondents’ background information is tabulated in Table 1. In this study, 37 respondents (74%) were between 19-29 years old, 10 (20%) were between 30-39 years old while 3 (6%) were more than 37 years old. It was further revealed on the table that the total number of the respondents is 50 (100%).

Table 1 Summary of samples for the respondents’ (Age and fields of study)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-29 Years Old</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39 Years Old</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-50 Years Old</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field of Study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS)

This section discusses the responses of student with respect to the SORS which was adopted based on the study by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) which used 3 strategy subscales or factors: Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB), and Support Reading Strategies (SUP).

On the specific reading strategies adopted by Iraqi EFL Undergraduate Students when reading online materials in English, the statistical analysis obtained from the use of individual reading strategies used by the respondents while reading online materials, is reported in Table 2 in terms of Mean and Standard Deviation. According to Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), learning strategy usage scores of an average 3.5-5.0 are considered high; 2.5-3.4 are designated moderate strategy use; and scores ranging from 1.0-2.4 are often assigned as low strategy utilization. Hence, it can be seen that the means of the individual items range from the high 4.26 (GLOB-6) to the low 1.86 (GLOB-2) mean (in bold). There are 8 individual items, that is, more than half of the 15 items in GLOB, in the high usage category (mean of 3.52 and above). Other 6 items fell in the moderate usage category (mean between 2.50-3.49) was reported, and just one item (GLOB-2) fell in the low usage (mean of 2.49 and below) category.

Regarding the PROB reading strategy, there was 6 items marked as high and 6 item marked as moderate usage category. The maximum mean of 4.06 was found in (PROB-22), whereas the minimum mean of 3.16 was found in (PROB-24). The 8 items in the SUP reading strategy were divided equally between the high and the moderate usage category. The highest mean of 3.88 was found in (SUP-28), whilst the lowest mean was found in (SUP-27). Both the PROB and SUP reading strategies registered no item in the low usage category. This indicates that these two strategies are preferred by the Iraqi EFL Undergraduate Students when they read online materials in English.

Table 2 Reported of the three strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I have a purpose in mind when I read online.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I participate in live chat with other learners of English.</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I take notes while reading online to help me understand what</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I take an overall view of the online text to see what it is about</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When online text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help understand what I read.</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I try to get back on track when I lose concentration</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I use tables, figures, and pictures in the online text to increase</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I use context clues to help me better understand what I am</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The fifth most frequently used and the 5 least used strategies are reported in Table 3. The results in Table 3 indicated that Iraqi EFL Undergraduate Students showed a mixed usage of the three reading strategies (GLOB, PROB and SUP). However, the items belong to the GLOB and SUP appears among both the most and the least often used reading strategies. On the other hand, the PROB item appears only in the most often used category.
Table 3 *Most and least often used reading strategies*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy Name</th>
<th>Most often used strategy</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GLOB-6</td>
<td>I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading online.</td>
<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLOB-4</td>
<td>I take an overall view of the online text to see what it is about before reading it.</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROB-22</td>
<td>When online text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLOB-15</td>
<td>I scan the online text to get a basic idea of whether it will serve my purposes before choosing to read it.</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUP-28</td>
<td>When reading online text, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy Name</th>
<th>Least often used strategy</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GLOB-2</td>
<td>I participate in live chat with other learners of English.</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLOB-11</td>
<td>I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the online text.</td>
<td>2.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUP-27</td>
<td>I think about whether the content of the online text fits my reading purpose.</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUP-26</td>
<td>I think about what I know to help me understand what I read online.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUP-32</td>
<td>I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the online text.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 reports the mean measurement of the variable. The preferred reading strategies adopted by most of the Iraqi EFL Undergraduate Students when reading online materials are read slowly and carefully (GLOB-6). The total average for overall view of the online text (GLOB-4), and scan the online text to get a basic idea (GLOB-15). It is shown that the respondents also preferred to use the re-read strategy to increase understanding (PROB-22) as well as using reference materials (SUP-28).

Two strategies were reported to be least or often used. Instead of these strategies, respondents used text live chat with other learners (GLOB-2) and critical analysis of information in the online text (GLOB-11). In addition, the results indicated that the respondents preferred not to use strategies involving thinking and asking question represented by (SUP-27, SUP-26, and SUP-32).

Regarding the second research question (Q2) which says that are there any significant differences between the three reading strategies among Iraqi EFL Undergraduate Students when reading online materials in English? Table 4 reveals the mean and standard deviation of each strategy group i.e. global (GLOB), problem solving (PROB), and support (SUP) strategies. The overall mean of the GLOB across all the items in this group was found to be 3.42±0.58 which is considered to be in the moderate usage category. While the overall mean of the SUP was found to be 3.49±0.30 which also fell in the moderate usage category. Interestingly, the respondents...
showed a clear preference for the PROB reading strategies which were most frequently employed with high means of 3.59±0.24.

The paired t-test was employed to analyse the significance difference between the highest mean founded in PROB and the two other strategies GLOB and SUP (Hendrickson et al., 1993). As shown in Table 3, the GLOB and SUP reading strategies are significantly different than the PROB reading strategy.

Table 4. Differences in Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Among Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Strategy</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global reading Strategy</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>GLOB PROB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p=0.009&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving Strategy</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUPPORT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SUP PROB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p=0.02&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Reading Strategy</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Based on the above analysis, it was found that the respondents employed all three reading strategies which are GLOB, PROB and SUP reading strategies. This findings is in agreements with previous literature Ilustre (2011) and Jafari & Shokrpour (2012) which were conducted in similar circumstances. Similarly, it was found that problem-solving reading strategies most be used by the students based on the output (3.59±0.24). The use of online English compendium among students was found to be an important tool for understanding English among the Iraqi Student. The students reported that note taking is also adopted to understand unfamiliar words (Piolat et al., 2005). Furthermore, the respondents also indicated that they used global reading strategies developed by (Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002) which include reading aloud, purposeful reading and predicting or guessing the meaning of the text. In addition to using support reading strategies, thinking about information in both English and mother tongue and use of reference materials such as online dictionary were also found to be helpful to the respondents.

With regard to the use of hyperlinks, it is evident that some of the respondents made predictions and inferred connections between the reading text, their background knowledge, and their reading purpose. In contrast, there are others, who indicated that they tend to click on links when they were uncertain of words or concepts embedded in the reading text. Therefore, for these students, new links are widely observed as source of word knowledge, rather than target locations where readers navigate pertinent and efficient pathways through online reading texts. As stated by the respondents, they tried to use different type of strategies to overcome their problems with online reading. These findings corroborate with the theoretical framework underpinning the study and the Metacognitive online strategies developed by Sheorey and Mokhtari, (2001). In addition, based on the results of the study, it appears that the respondents use the three online reading strategies to help them to overcome their problems when reading online texts.
Conclusion
This paper investigated the metacognitive reading strategies that Iraqi EFL students used when they read online materials. As indicated previously, the majority of the students had little experience or opportunity to increase these online reading skills and strategies as part of classroom instruction. The ultimate goal of educators is to enable students to be aware of these new technological tools for online reading. This will also enable them to overcome the learning challenges of the 21st century and educators will have to play an important role in enhancing students' awareness of such strategies. Educators should make conscious effort in assisting the students so that they can contribute to useful academic reading and develop their skills and strategies for online reading so the students become highly motivated in facing the challenges of online reading and have a certain level of confidence that would affect their classroom performance positively. It was found that there are facilities and tools such as dictionaries, search engines and hyperlinks that can help to make online reading for EFL learners efficient and effective. Nevertheless, as evident in the study, Iraqi English learners will become successful online readers, if they go beyond the ability to not only navigate site to locate important information. The use of search engines must be adopted to assess the helpfulness and dependability of the information encountered in the Internet. Most importantly, the findings show that the use of online reading strategies can improve the Iraqi EFL learners' attitude in increasing their reading process, and thus this signifies the importance of EFL learners mastering and knowing how to apply these reading strategies effectively.

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Mending Students’ Speaking Deficiencies in Moroccan EFL Classes

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Abstract
This paper presents an attempt to help students enhance their speaking skills in Moroccan English as a foreign language (EFL) classes. It was observed that students in Moroccan high schools are generally not able to speak their minds out freely and imaginatively in English. This paper studies the causes for students’ weak speaking skills in the English language and suggests solutions to mend the situation. An observation of the teaching and learning practices took place in a sample Moroccan high school and interviews as well as questionnaires were administered for the aim of tracing the obstacles students face in their learning process as well as their preferences that they wish to have applied in the speaking sessions. Several speaking activities were tested and proved effective in encouraging students to speak English in class and defeat their shyness and reluctance to express their opinions. These activities are provided in this paper for teachers to use starting from common core classes passing by 1st year Baccalaureate (Bac) and ending with 2nd year Bac (common core being the first year of high school in Morocco and so on) and include watching films and conducting projects in the framework of a cooperative learning. They outline a project of forming good speakers of English in Morocco and maybe elsewhere in the Arab world.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Moroccan high school EFL teaching, English speaking activities, English speaking obstacles

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Mending Students’ Speaking Deficiencies in Moroccan EFL Classes

El Hannaoui

Introduction
Speaking has always been considered the most essential skill to be mastered along the history of foreign language teaching and learning. The need for mastering the speaking fluency in English has dramatically increased due to globalization and thus the strengthening position of English as a language for international communication. Students of English as a foreign language (EFL) in general consider verbal communication more significant and valuable than knowing how to read and write. The emphasis put on speaking proficiency recently is also the result of the widespread popularity of audio-lingual methodologies in the 1960s, and the communicative competence movement that began in the 1970s.

Observing Moroccan high school students in EFL classes has led to the conclusion that they are extremely reluctant to speak in class. Students did not take part in conversations, avoided eye contact with the teacher, refused suggesting topics to speak about, hardly asked any questions and obviously did not volunteer answers. This paper discusses the findings of a study conducted to investigate the students’ perceptions on their English speaking skill development, the hindrances that prevent them from speaking in class and the activities that would help them overcome any obstacle they may encounter while trying to speak English.

To sum up, a problem is observed in Moroccan EFL classrooms: the students’ reluctance to speak English in class. The objective is: help those students develop their speaking abilities in English. The tool is: investigating the problem from its roots and suggesting remedies for the situation.

Literature Review

Definition of Teaching Speaking in EFL classes
Speaking as an EFL skill is defined as “students' ability to express themselves orally, coherently, fluently and appropriately in a given meaningful context to serve both transactional and interactional purposed using correct pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary and adopting the pragmatic and discourse rules of the spoken language” (Torky, 2006, p. 30).

On the pedagogical level, teaching speaking manly revolves around a number of skills. Nunan (2003) explains that a correct speech sound patterns of English including word stress, intonation and rhythm patterns are a very important step for learners to master. In addition, Nunan (2003) argues that language fluency is reached through using the right words according to the social setting, audience and subject and by organizing one’s thoughts logically and meaningfully and expressing them with few unnatural pauses.

A brief historical background on approaches to teaching speaking
Methods and approaches to teaching languages started emerging in the 1900s. Some achieved wide levels of acceptance and popularity but were then replaced by other methods having more appealing ideas and theories. The Grammar-Translation Method was the first to be introduced in the 19th century. According to this method “understanding literary texts is the primary focus of foreign language study and there is little need for a speaking knowledge of the language…oral work was reduced to a minimum” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Following this came the Direct method in the mid and late 19th century which was a reaction to the previous one and where oral communication was organized around question and answer exchanges between
students and teachers in small intensive classes (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This method is framed by the certain rules such as demonstrating rather than translating, acting rather than explaining, asking question rather than giving a speech, correcting mistakes rather than imitating them and speaking normally and naturally rather than speaking too slowly, too quickly or too loudly (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Afterwards, in the 1950s appeared the Audio-Lingual Method. This method started as an Army Specialized Training Program and initially aimed at making general learners attain conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). It was described as an intensive, oral-based approach to the learning of a foreign language. Finally, in the 1960s, the Communicative Approach made its way to the teaching practices of speaking foreign languages. The principles of communicative language learning as per Richards and Rodgers (2001) include using dialogues to communicate needs and feelings, enhancing the importance of correct pronunciation of words and encouraging learners to interact with other people through through pair and group work, or in their writings.

**A brief theoretical overview on teaching speaking**

One of the most important suggestions of Krashen’s Theory of Second Language Acquisition, (1988) is the differentiation between the “learning” and “acquisition” processes. Krashen (1988) pinpoints that “learning” refers to the formal instruction system where the learner is aware of the language rules he/she is learning. This process leads to machine-like production of language where sentences are formed according to the rules learnt. In the context of teaching speaking as an activity in English classes, students’ input would be unnatural. On the hand, language “acquisition”, according to Krashen (1988) is compared to the way children acquire their mother tongue; i.e. through natural exposure to language in authentic contexts. Acquisition then, refers to the situation where learners subconsciously utter meaningful sentences to convey a certain message and where the communicative act is reinforced rather than the form of the language spoken (Krashen, 1988).

In order to demonstrate the importance of this differentiation of both “learning” and “acquisition” concepts in the classroom context, Krashen (1987) stresses the importance of reducing anxiety in learning environments by addressing issues students are interested in. Therefore, the mechanical drilling students face while studying language activities mainly speaking is highly unadvisable because it puts them in a situation where they are forced to apply rules to a language they were not exposed enough to. This generally leads to immediate and short-term results where the function learnt is quickly forgotten, if not misunderstood by students because it was not associated to any social situation they are familiar with. Supporting that, Krashen (1987) explains that “These methods do not force early production in the second language, but allow students to produce when they are 'ready', recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production” (p.7).

In parallel, Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1997) quote Richards (1991) who argued that there were “two major approaches to teaching speaking skills”, a direct and indirect approach. The direct approach, Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1997) explain, recalls the principles of the Grammar Translation Method and “involves planning a conversational program
around the specific micro-skills, strategies, and processes that are involved in fluent conversation” (p.141) while the indirect method leans more towards the principles of the Communicative Approach “in which conversational competence is seen as the product of engaging learners in conversational interaction” (p.141). In this context, Cabrera and Bazo, (2002) discuss that “in order for any speaking activity to be successful, children need to acknowledge that there is a real reason for asking a question or giving a piece of information” (para. 6). Therefore the activities presented to learners should “provide a reason for speaking, whether this is to play a game or to find out real information about friends in the class” (Cabrera & Bazo, 2002, para. 6).

Teaching speaking in the Moroccan context

The Standards Based Approach recommended for high school teachers in Morocco has been adopted by the Ministry of National Education for the last two decades. It embraces the pillars of the National Charter of Education (which are: the respect of Islamic principles, the Moroccan identity and the cultural heritage) and is based on the principles of the Communicative Approach which suggest that “real communication requires attending to messages and reacting to them appropriately, teaching speaking gives learners a high level of self-confidence, motivation for learning, and an appropriate training for real-life tasks, a lot of speaking takes place in real life; this lends credence to the belief that teaching this skill is not just a fad, but it is a necessity and teaching speaking provides learners with the opportunity to grow as effective world citizens; able to transmit, share and compare ideas, information and cultural patterns of different speakers” (Chaibi, 2006, p. 12).

According to this approach, Chaibi, (2006) argues that speaking is not taught as an individual skill “a conversation, for example, might lead to writing, listening, reading or a written report or a short presentation” (p. 15) explaining that skill integration enhances learning by encouraging more contextualized practice. Also, it aims at familiarizing learners with such speaking aspects as turn-taking, negotiation of meaning, different levels of formality, stress patterns, rhythm, and intonation, appropriate use of vocabulary and appropriate use of idiomatic expressions (Chaibi, 2006, p. 15). Among the activities stated in the Guidelines to help students develop their speaking skills are “listening to authentic conversations, information gap activities, role plays and simulations, discussions, debates and conversations, short presentations and oral reports” (Chaibi, 2006, p. 16).

As a matter of fact, the Standards based Approach does not focus on one skill at the expense of the others (like the case for the Grammar Translation Method and Audio-Lingualism), but rather makes all skills integrative in the sense that by teaching one skill, the other ones are taught as well either implicitly or explicitly. It is learner-centered where the teacher is just a facilitator and an interested listener. Supposedly, this approach should frame the teaching practices of EFL in Moroccan high schools.

Methodology

Participants

The participants selected for this study were 40 Moroccan high school students from both art and science streams and studying English as a foreign language (French being the first foreign language taught in Morocco). All participants are native Arabs and belong to the three
high school study levels: Common Core, First Year Baccalaureate and Second Year Baccalaureate. Before that, those participants had never studied English in their primary or secondary schools except some who claim having studied it “vaguely” in the last year of secondary school right before the Common Core level. The students were selected randomly to complete questionnaires and their participation was voluntary.

**Tools of the study**

This study is based on two main activities: observation and a questionnaire. Concerning observation, it relied on two types of observations: 1. Passive observation based on carefully watching students interact in EFL classes 2. Active observation based on directly asking students about the problem at hand and how they felt about it. It is also based on conducting interviews with students and administrating a questionnaire to help get a detailed analysis of the problem.

The questionnaire investigates the reasons behind the students’ reluctance to speak and their say in the matter. It was administered to obtain quantitative input in order to determine the students’ perceptions on their EFL speaking development. The questions were written in Arabic as they targeted mainly the low achievers. The respondents were around 40 students randomly selected from the 1st year and 2nd year Baccalaureate. The seven questions included in the questionnaire can be divided into three categories. The first concentrates on students’ perceptions on the subject. The second centers on the reasons behind their reluctance to speak (reasons related to the teacher, the textbook and themselves as well). The last one aims at knowing the students’ preferences in terms of ways of teaching, activities, topics, etc. that would make them willing and eager to speak in class. As for the Common Core students, it was too early to assess their level of achievement in EFL so their contribution was helping the researcher form a general picture on how English is taught and perceived at its very early stage through observation and interviews.

**Data collection**

The researcher visited students in their English classes and explained the goal behind the research. Questionnaires were distributed to each of the participants willing to contribute to this study. The researcher is an English teacher so the participants she chose where mainly students from classes she teaches or had already taught.

**Case study**

**Investigation**

**How Students Feel About English as a School Subject**

The first observation of students’ behaviors in class towards the activity of speaking was the obvious unwillingness to speak and lack of care towards the subject. The questionnaire administered to those students and the interviews conducted with them showed that 99% of students actually do realize the importance of English and the mastery of its speaking skill for their future careers and higher studies. The choices given for the question “what does the English language represent for you?” in the questionnaire were:

1. Just like any other school subject
2. An important skill for my future career
3. A worthless school burden
Among these 99% of students, one third admit that their level in English is too weak, that they hardly understand the teacher and cannot interact with her and two thirds say that their level in English is average; that they can understand what the teacher says but cannot respond or interact. The choices given for the question of “how do you evaluate your level in English?” were:

1. Very weak: I hardly understand the teacher and I can’t answer her.
2. Average: I can understand what the teacher says but I can’t give my feedback.
3. Good: I understand what my teacher says and I answer her fluently.

On the other hand, very few declared that they were good and fluent. In numbers, 5 out of 40 students chose the third statement.

These findings say one thing: if the majority of students were aware of the importance of English as a speaking skill in their lives, it would not make any sense to conclude that they were unwilling to learn it and not interested in it as a subject for no reason. Also, if most of them were average to weak in terms of mastery of the language and its speaking skill, then it had to be something else hindering them from being good speakers.

**The reasons behind the students’ unwillingness to speak in class**

During the observation stage, many phenomena were taking place in the classroom. Sometimes, a student is really willing to speak his mind out about a certain topic but feels failed by their words and end up babbling in English or talking in Arabic which is highly unacceptable in class. Other times, some students have the right answer but utter it very shyly and quietly hoping that it will not be heard and checking their sides to see whether their answer was noticed. At times, students are uninterested in subject taught. They do not pay attention to the teacher. They do not care about the topic of the activity and are not even aware of what they are supposed to learn and produce. As a result, they resort to either mischief as a form of expressing boredom or to disclosure for fear of being asked to speak. These intriguing data helped gather a number of possible reasons that pushed students away from participating in oral activities. These reasons, as included in the questionnaire are as follows:

1. The complexity of the textbook.
2. The topics of the textbook are not interesting for students.
3. The teacher adopts a boring way of teaching and does not make efforts in looking for interesting material.
4. Lack of self confidence and fear of error and of others’ mocking remarks.
5. The teacher speaks in a strange language and does not provide enough clarifications.
6. The absence of a warm and close relationship between students and the teacher.
7. The students do not have enough vocabulary to express their ideas.

These statements were given to students who were asked to classify them from the most to least relevant reasons behind their reluctance to speak. 99% of students agreed that their major and primary hindrance to speak in class was the penury of English vocabulary in their cognitive repertoire. They all agreed that they, sometimes, understand and like the topic of the lesson but are unable to speak about it simply because they do not have the words to do so.
In order to understand why students lack the necessary vocabulary to make meaningful interactions, an observation of the teaching practices vis a vis speaking took place among Common Core students. It was observed that little or no room was given to oral activities at that stage of language learning. Most students argued that they study English in the traditional way following the course of the textbook and seldom have the opportunity to speak in class. It was also observed that the textbook at the level of Common Core (and the other two levels for that matter) was overloaded with material and lessons to be taught; that their volume was too big for a nine-month-long period of time. As a result of that and of the Ministry of Education’s instructions to teachers to finish the textbook within the school year, teachers find themselves between caring for their students’ needs and abiding by the ministry’s instructions. Very often, they resort to the second option.

The second most significant reason hindering students’ effective oral participation was chosen to be “Lack of self-confidence and fear of error and of others’ mocking remarks”. It is known that adolescents are more sensitive to people’s remarks than people at any other stage of life. They are in the phase of personality development and anything that is likely to shake that would be a red line to them. It is also understood that students shun speaking to avoid any situation that would cause embarrassment and hence make them lose face in front of their comrades.

The next most relevant reasons behind the students’ reluctance to speak chosen equally by the great majority are: “The complexity of the textbook”, “the topics of the textbook are not interesting for students” and “the teacher adopts a boring way of teaching and does not make efforts in looking for interesting material”. These three statements are related to the textbook and its adaptation by the teacher to meet the needs and interests of the students. The latter judged some parts of the textbook challenging and uninteresting and argued that the teacher adds to the matter by the boring way they teach the lessons and their indifference towards students’ needs and interests.

Finally, students chose “the teacher speaks in a strange language and does not provide enough clarifications” and “the absence of a warm and close relationship between students and the teacher” as the last most significant hindrances for their participation in speaking activities. These components show the role of the teacher in making the learning process smooth and enjoyable for students.

The questionnaire administrated also included a blank space for students to express their minds on the reasons hindering their oral fluency; their answers were the following:
1. Some students learn English in the last year of secondary school and some don’t which makes the latter weak relatively.
2. Students do not value a language called “second foreign language” and do not make efforts to learn it. (noting that French is the first foreign language in Moroccan schools)
3. The textbook is outdated and does not tackle contemporary issues.

*The teacher’s role in helping students speak in class*

The learning process is a matter of giving and taking. This section investigates how students view the roles and duties of their teacher in enabling them to improve in English and
mainly in their oral proficiency. A list of six duties was provided to students who were asked to order them from most to least important. The findings were the following:

According to students, the teacher should:

1. Design lessons that relate to the interests and lives of adolescents.
2. Adopt fun activities in class.
3. Talk less and give a chance for students to speak and discuss.
4. Give extra marks to motivate students and reward good answers.
5. Be patient and accept students’ mistakes.
6. Give sufficient time for the students to think and not suppress them.

_The student’s role in improving their speaking skills_

As for the students’ awareness on their duties towards their learning process, the findings have shown that they are unexpectedly mature and sensible about their duties and obligations in their learning process. They classified their duties as follows:

According to students, they should:

1. Do their homework as instructed by the teacher.
2. Participate in class activities and give them attention.
3. Not be afraid of making mistakes.
4. Practice English outside of class.
5. Prepare projects and present them in class.
6. Trust their teacher and accept their remarks.

_The activities that would help students participate and speak in class_

The questionnaire included a section where students could suggest the topics and activities that interest them and that would make them eager to learn and speak in class. Among these were:

**Topics:**
1. Tackling issues related to Morocco such as: history, culture and traditions…
2. Using and teaching Information and Communication Technologies (ICT).
3. Sensitization on social issues.
4. Sports.
5. Sciences.
6. Communication in a globalized world.

**Activities:**
1. Adopting simple discussion activities in class where all students get to give their opinion about a certain subject.
2. Having drama/theater clubs.
3. Having lessons explained on visual aids through pictures and videos instead of writing on the board and giving a lecture.

In general most students agreed that the topics discussed in class should be updated and should relate directly to their daily lives and areas of interests. Also, students obviously need
entertainment while learning English. They seem to have had enough with the traditional way of teaching and want some innovation and some liveliness in their class. On the other hand, in order to support the previous ideas, students were asked to classify some classroom activities from most interesting to least interesting and the list was ordered by the majority as follows:

1- Having games and competitions during class.
2- Watching films in English and discussing their themes.
3- Presenting projects by students and discussing them in class.
4- Listening to English songs and studying their lyrics.

**Results of the study**

**Remedies to help students improve their speaking skills**

The investigation has led to shape a general picture of the teaching and learning situation in Moroccan high schools. The speaking activity should be an integral part of teaching at all levels of high school. Students will be able to speak when they are taught so. If, for example, the first lesson is on greeting and introducing oneself, students can easily perform and even make up small dialogues greeting each other and using the different expressions accordingly. Vocabulary is better understood and more effectively when practiced in authentic situations. Among the speaking activities appropriate to the common core level are:

**Giving real-life speaking patterns to students:** Native speakers of English have a natural flow, emphasizing certain words and running others together. Students should drill these patterns in practice in the classroom as often as possible in order to be acquainted with the English language as spoken by natives.

**Teaching functional lessons in group scenarios:** For example, the teacher chooses one topic, like restaurant language, and the many possible dialogues and vocabulary that could occur in such a setting. Then students role-play with each other to practice. The teacher constantly makes changes in the scenario to help students acquainted with different situations in real life. This activity includes language items like “restaurant language, asking for help, asking for/giving directions….”

**Find Someone Who:** This activity consists of giving the students a checklist which they use as they walk around the room trying to find a person who has a certain characteristic. When, for example, students find “someone who has been abroad” or “someone who was born at home,” they write that person’s name on their checklist and move on to the next person. The goal is to meet and talk to as many people as possible within the time limit in order to put one name by each of the characteristics. This game or activity allows students to break the ice between each other and do some constructive chatting. The noise will be inevitable but the teacher should bare in mind what is called a “healthy noise” atmosphere and tolerate some disorder as students will be moving around looking for answers. It is also a nice opportunity for student to let out all the stress and excess energy they have and which they are likely to use as disturbance in a traditional course of teaching.

**Describing a Picture:** This one consists of giving students one picture and having them describe it. For this activity, students can form groups and each group is given a different picture.
Students discuss the picture with their groups, and then a spokesperson for each group describes the picture to the whole class. This activity fosters the creativity and imagination of the learners and their public speaking skills.

**Act it out:** This one is both very constructive and funny. The activity consists of giving students pieces of papers with words or statements. Each student chooses a piece of paper and without showing it to their classmates; they act it out and make students guess that word or situation. This activity does not only reinforce the vocabulary items they have learnt but also makes them develop their critical thinking abilities and memory activation. This activity is excellent for making students talk and expand their English vocabulary by describing the acting going on.

**Find out who:** This activity is quite similar to the previous one, except that this one is mainly concerned with describing people. Students find out the name of that person by asking questions and the student holding the card can only answer “yes” or “no”. This activity is excellent for entertaining students and for enriching their background knowledge about famous figures. The teacher can choose to give them figures they know everything about like pop stars, actors and other figures most of them don’t know but should like famous people in the fields of science, history, politics, etc. This activity is really good for helping students master the ways for describing people. Adjectives like “tall, short, blond, brunette, big eyes, hazel eyes, straight nose, curly hair…” will no longer be confusing for them as they are the basics of the English language.

For first year and second year Baccalaureate, speaking activities should be a bit more challenging like:

**Solve the Mystery/ Finish the Story:** Here, the teacher presents to students a story without an end. The story stops at the peak point of its developing events and students are asked to give different endings according to their own interpretations. This speaking activity can give amazing results as students are given a limitless sphere of creativity and imagination. They can give any ending they like. They are free to make their own stories. This may be one of the rare activities where students are not bound to any rules. This activity helps students revive their old vocabulary and learn a new one. Their cognition is totally activated as they put themselves in the shoes of the characters and make up the ending they want to see happening. They live the story. This method is better adopted in a reading session where students are asked to create an end to the story (a very short one) and unleash their “hilarious” imaginations.

**Have your say:** This activity is similar to the previous one, it is also done mainly after the reading or listening session. Students are asked to give their personal standpoint about the topic in hand. This type of discussion generally revolves around the question “Are you for or against? Why?” - Needless to mention that the topic should be interesting to students and within their reach. This activity is particularly interesting because it results in opposite standpoints. The discussion usually heats up and most students become eager to make their points clear and more convincing than their mates’. The teacher’s role is to stand back, listen and monitor the discussion by making students respect the principles of turn-taking and listening to their fellow classmates. This activity enhances students’:
1. Vocabulary,
2. Self-confidence by standing in front of others and daring to contradict them and make them adhere to their position,
3. Public speaking skills by getting rid of the stage fright from the attention they get when they are speaking in front of people,
4. Tolerance towards each other’s opinions,
5. Awareness that there is no such a thing as a right or wrong opinion and that we are all different and see things differently according to our own perspectives,
6. Understanding of the principles of a sophisticated discussion where people listen to what the speaker says and wait for their turn vs. the primitive chaotic debate where everybody talks and no one listens and all end up fighting over who’s right and who’s wrong and
7. Learning from each other’s background knowledge and experiences.

Watching films and documentaries: In this activity, the teacher carefully selects films and documentaries that meet certain criteria related to students’ preferences and the educational goals and objectives. First of all, the film should have a clear objective (informing about a scientific or natural phenomenon, promoting a certain ideology, etc.). This activity should activate the students’ schemata and enrich their background knowledge. In addition to that, this activity should aim to help students develop their critical thinking and maturate their perception of the world. This activity makes students learn implicitly new functions of language and thus develop their speaking skills by developing their repertoire of words and expressions. Also, by watching films and documentaries, students are exposed to authentic language as used by the native speakers and thus correct any pronunciation mistakes they might have. Students are required in this activity to react to the information presented. The best way to make as many students work as possible is to form groups of mixed abilities and have them come up with a general synthesis, addition, reaction, etc. to the film under study. The idea generated from each group will be presented by a spokesperson of that group in front of the whole class, who, in turn, will react to it.

Projects: This is the most popular form of oral activities in Moroccan high schools. Unfortunately, different teachers of the English language confirmed that this activity takes place only twice to three times a year (if it does). It takes a considerable amount of time from students in preparing it and from the teacher in monitoring the course of its preparation. Although it is a great way of making students autonomous learners, it is only doable a few times a year and cannot be relied upon as a regular speaking activity. However, this activity can be made simple and have all students participate in it. The idea is for the teacher to present the 10 topics (of the English language textbook adopted in Morocco) at the beginning of the year and ask students to form ten groups each of which takes a topic and makes a project about it. At the beginning of each unit, the group concerned presents the theme and explains it to their friends who debate it among themselves. As explained, the project can be as simple as a number of pictures and explanations on the topic in hand but with a deep understanding of its ideas and underlying messages.

Finally, it is important to point out that even with the application of such activities in a speaking lesson, motivation is the key to make students develop their speaking skills. This motivation can be either verbal; in the form of encouragement or praising or in the form of
giving pluses (+1,+2) where students who perform well or invest efforts during the session are rewarded. This can have a significant impact on their speaking performances.

Assessing the effectiveness of the suggested remedies

It is important to note first that the success of such activities depends mainly on the students’ willingness to give them a try. These activities are simple and within their reach and they respond to all the criteria described for an interesting lesson and a motivating teacher. So, these activities are addressing those students whose English speaking skills are weak and who want them to improve. The assessment of the fruitfulness of those activities is done according to the same category of students.

Some of the above mentioned activities worked like magic. When the researcher adopted the activity of teaching “functional practice in group scenarios” with the Common Core classes, students showed great enthusiasm and enjoyment. For them, it was a break during class where they were able to talk to their friends and imagine situations and make up dialogues to present to their classmates. For the researcher, it was a very effective speaking activity where she could teach them how to work collaboratively and use their imagination freely and enhance their communicative skills. They were also exposed to a lot of listening in order to awaken their senses on the correct pronunciation of English words. Easy real life conversations were chosen in order to get them accustomed with the daily used language like “asking for directions, asking for help in a cloths shop, making phone calls…” The activity of Act it Out was also performed with Common Core students. They loved the activity and learnt a lot from it. For example, when the researcher adopted this activity in class, one student chose a card with “restaurant”, the student started acting that he was eating then the other students kept uttering words like “breakfast, diner, lunch, bread, kitchen, meal, snack….” Until the word “restaurant” was found. This activity is easy, effortless and does not require any special equipment.

For the First and Second Bac students, the researcher applied different speaking activities such as “solve the mystery/ finish the Story, have your say, watching films and documentaries”. The researcher also tried the “project” activity with 2nd year BAC students who showed great confidence to speak in front of their friends and even assertively give the floor for questions. The audience gave great attention to their friends and reacted to their presentations. The use of such oral activities showed how much students had to say. Even though many of them lacked the necessary vocabulary to talk, they were all motivated to participate and have their voice heard.

To sum up, this research does not pretend that through implementing those activities, students will become proficient speakers of English; it only highlights the motivating factors for students to consider speaking English in their EFL classes and fight their fear and resentfulness towards the activity. Those suggested activities form parts of a long term project where the teacher helps their students from Common Core classes until 2nd year BAC to become proficient speakers. This research also dismissed the common thought that students do not care about English as EFL in Morocco and confirmed their willingness and interest in learning the subject effectively.
Conclusion
As mentioned earlier, the activities suggested outline a project of forming good speakers of English. It is a long term project that starts from the very early stages of language learning. It supports the objectives of the Moroccan National Charter of Education in forming effective, self-confident speakers of English ready to face a globalized world by the time they graduate from high school. Finally, this research is made to emphasize the idea that the time has come to make a shift in the Moroccan teaching system and to give students more priority and attention and let them contribute on what they want to learn. It is high time teachers stopped treating students as buckets to be filled up with knowledge and expected to ruminate that knowledge.

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References

Appendix
The questionnaire administered is as follows (the original being the Arabic one):

**Questionnaire on the topic ‘SPEAKING IN ENGLISH’**

I am conducting a research on students’ speaking skills in Moroccan EFL classrooms and I would like to know your opinions on the matter in order to improve the teaching and learning practices of the English language:

Gender: ……………
Age: …………………
stream: ……………
lever: ……………

**What does the English language represent for you**
1. Just a school subject
2. An important language for my future career
3. A useless school burden

**How do you assess your level in English**
1. very weak: I barely understand the teacher
2. Average: I understand but I can’t speak
3. very good: I understand the teacher and I can answer her

**Order in degree of importance the causes for students’ lack of attention towards speaking activities**
1. The complexity of the textbook
2. Uninteresting topics in the textbooks
3. Boring teacher
4. Lack of self confidence
5. Lack of explanations from teachers
6. Lack of friendly ties between teachers and students
7. Students’ weak language competences
8. Others: …………………………………………………………………………………………………

**Mention some classroom activities that you think might help you improve your speaking skills**
1. Listening to songs in the English language and studying their lyrics
2. Watching movies in English and discussing their topics
3. Playing educational games in class
4. Giving presentation by students and discussing them in class
5. Others: …………………………………………………………………………………………………

**Order in degree of importance: To help me improve my speaking skills,**

**The teacher should:**
1. Speak less and encourage students to speak more
2. Be patient and accept students’ mistakes
3. Include fun activities in her teaching
4. Design lessons that tackle teens’ interests
5. Give enough time to students to think before speaking and not suppress their freedom of speech
6. Give bonuses (extra marks) for students’ efforts to motivate them.
7. Others: …………………………………………………………………………………………………

**The student should:**
1. Participate and be interested in classroom activities
2. Not be shy or scared of mistakes
3. Abide by the instructions of the teacher
4. Give presentations in class
5. Trust the teacher and accept her comments and recommendations
6. Practice English outside the classroom
7. Others: .................................................................

Suggest some topics that you wish to study in the English class:
1. .................................................................
2. .................................................................
3. .................................................................
4. .................................................................

Estimation for the topic of "speaking English"

In the framework of the educational research I conducted on the topic of "oral expression in English," I would like to hear your views on the quality of education in this area to improve this material and raise students’ proficiency. The following aspects are expected to be included:

Gender: .................................................................
Age: .................................................................
Grade: .................................................................
Level: .................................................................

What does English mean to you?
❖ Just a school subject
❖ Necessary language for the future
❖ A heavy burden with no gain

How do you evaluate your ability in English?
❖ Very weak: I hardly understand the teacher and cannot answer
❖ Average: I understand the teacher but find it difficult to answer
❖ Good: I understand the teacher and can answer adequately

Ranks according to importance:
❖ Academic pressure
❖ Students’ reading material doesn’t match their interests
❖ The teacher delivers the lesson in a boring way and fails to search for interesting topics
❖ A lack of trust in oneself and fear of mistakes and ridicule among classmates
❖ The teacher speaks in a language not understood and does not provide enough explanations about the activities
❖ Lack of a friendly relationship between the teacher and students
❖ Students lack the linguistic skills necessary to express their ideas

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Mending Students’ Speaking Deficiencies in Moroccan EFL Classes El Hannaoui

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- الاستماع إلى مقاطع موسيقية إنجليزية ودراسة كلماتها
- مشاهدة أفلام باللغة الإنجليزية ومناقشة مواضيعها
- القيام بالإعلاب ومسابقات تربية باللغة الإنجليزية داخل الفصل
- إنجاز عروض من طرف التلاميذ وتقديمها ومناقشتها داخل الفصل

أذكر أنشطة القسم التي تود أن تدرسها في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية:
- يتكلم أقل ويدرك تلاميذك فرصة الكلام والمناقشة
- يتحلى بالصبر ويقبل أخطاء التلاميذ اللغوية
- يقوم بنشاطات مرضية في الفصل
- يصمم دروساً تهم بقضايا التلاميذ وحياة المراهقين
- يمنح التلاميذ الوقت الكافي للتفكير ولا يقلع حرية التعبير
- يمنح التلاميذ نقاط إضافية لتحفيز التشجيع وإجابات استثنائية

أذكر بعض المواضيع التي تود أن تدرسها في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية
- موضوعات الحب والصداقة
- مصطلحات الثقافة العربية
- العادات والتقاليد الشعبية

أذكر بعض المواضيع التي تود أن تدرسها في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية
- موضوعات الطبيعة والبيئة
- مصطلحات العلوم والتقنية
- التعامل مع التقليدات العرقية

أذكر بعض المواضيع التي تود أن تدرسها في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية
- موضوعات الفن والموسيقى
- مصطلحات الأدب والشعر
- التعامل مع الثقافة العالمية

أذكر بعض المواضيع التي تود أن تدرسها في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية
- موضوعات القصص والروايات
- مصطلحات اللغة المعاصرة
- التعامل مع القضايا الاجتماعية

أذكر بعض المواضيع التي تود أن تدرسها في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية
- موضوعات الأفلام والرسوم المتحركة
- مصطلحات اللغة التلفزيونية
- التعامل مع القضايا الإخبارية
Investigating Algerian EFL Students’ Learning-Style and Brain-Dominance Profiles

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Abstract
Learning styles and brain-dominance preferences continue to attract, today, the attention of both researchers and practitioners in the field of education. Learners are different from each other and this difference matters in learner-centred instruction. This work is an attempt to identify the students’ learning-style and brain-dominance profiles at the Department of English, Larbi Ben M’hidi University, Oum el Bouaghi, Algeria. Seventy two Master Two-level students took part in this study. The Barsch Learning-Style Inventory and the Brain-Dominance Inventory were used as data collection tools. The results show that most of the participants have a visual mode of learning, whether predominantly or in combination with the auditory mode. In addition, the majority of the students are found to have a slight preference either to the left- or the right-brain hemisphere. The paper eventually discusses ways to enable teachers to tailor classroom instructional strategies to students’ learning preferences, and hence capitalize on their learning strengths.

Keywords: brain dominance, learning process, learning styles, teaching strategies

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Introduction

Students are different in various respects: motivation levels, abilities, needs, interests, learning speed, strategies and styles. Every student is a unique person able to demonstrate different individual skills, and is constantly learning and improving. An aspect of the learning process that has recently received considerable attention is that of learning preferences. Research in this area has enlightened teachers regarding the ways learners learn. As a result, teachers have become more and more sensitive to students’ learning differences. In fact, different learning modes entail different instructional techniques. In other words, if students are taught according to their preferred ways of learning, the learning/teaching process is likely to be effective. University faculty have, for a long time, emphasized the content of what is to be learned; many of them tend to spoon feed students thinking that if they do not cover the curriculum, they will not achieve the aims of the course. It is high time they considered the individual learning-style characteristics and brain behaviour of their students.

The aim of this paper is to gain a better understanding of individual differences regarding learning styles and brain dominance. This work considers learning modes as described in Neuro-Linguistic Programming research, and discusses the notion of hemispheric dominance, before it moves on to examining students’ responses to a learning-style inventory and a brain-dominance test, and their implications.

Definition of Learning Styles

A learning style is not an easy concept to define (Cassidy, 2004). It is commonly referred to in the literature as ‘a learning mode’ and ‘a learning preference’. Roughly speaking, a learning style denotes an individual’s particular way of learning. For example, one may feel more comfortable when working independently rather than with others; another would enjoy watching a movie instead of reading its corresponding novel. Hartley (1998) defines learning styles as ways in which individuals typically approach learning activities. In the words of Dunn (2000), learning styles denote “the way(s) students begin to concentrate on, process, internalize, and remember new and difficult academic information” (p. 8). According to Reid (1995), learning styles are internally-based features for the processing of new information, whereas Pritchard (2009) believes that they are not fixed characteristics and that learners can have different styles in different contexts. Sadler-Smith (as cited in Lum, 2006) distinguishes a learning style from a learning preference in that the former is perceived as an information-processing activity while the latter has to do with one’s choice of a mode of learning over another.

The idea that learners have preferred approaches to learning is underlain by the assumption that humans are more or less receptive to different environmental stimuli. They have different sensory experiences and learning channels. In his ‘Multiple Intelligences’ theory, Gardner (1985) explains that there are varied ways of knowing and learning about the world, and that humans have different levels of intelligence across a variety of intellectual domains.

The most common description of learning styles is the one found in Neuro-Linguistic Programming research. Three major learning styles were identified, namely the ‘Visual’, the ‘Auditory’ and the ‘Kinesthetic’ styles (the VAK model). Visual learners favour visually presented information and find it easy to remember what they see or read. Auditory learners learn better by listening and have the ability to memorise what they hear effortlessly. Kinesthetic
learners learn by doing and have a good memory when it comes to recalling events and physical experiences. Though every learner may use all three styles, s/he tends to have an inclination to use one style over the others. Fleming (as cited in Pritchard, 2009) puts forward the V-A-R-K system which covers four human senses, and hence four learning styles, i.e. the ‘Visual’, the ‘Auditory’, the ‘Reading’ and the ‘Kinesthetic’ style. Whether there are three, four or many more styles, whether they are associated with human senses or other aspects, what counts most is to raise teachers’ and learners’ awareness about the fact that there are different learning ways, that is, different strengths and needs, which necessitate different teaching procedures.

As a matter of fact, research evidence suggests that adapting instruction to individual differences in learning styles is likely to lead to effective learning and better academic performance (Brown, 1994; Sims & Sims, 1995). According to the learning-style theory (Dunn & Griggs, 2000), teachers should opt for methodical pluralism and students are to be taught, at least initially, in accordance with what meets their needs.

Learning-Style Inventories are used to identify one’s learning style. Beginning from the 1970’s, researchers have developed various instruments to assess learning styles (Dunn & Dunn, 1972; Schmeck, Ribich & Ramanaiah, 1977; Gregorc, 1979; Hunt, 1979; as cited in Kang, 1999). More recent models include, for instance, Honey & Mumford’s (1992) Learning Style Questionnaire and Kolb’s (1999) Learning Style Inventory (as cited in Boström & Lassen, 2006). According to Coffield et al. (2004), there are more than 70 models to identify and analyse learning styles, but they vary in construct and predictive validity; several ones are available online. This study is based on the Barsch Learning Style Inventory (Barsch LSI) (Davies et al., 1994).

Brain Theory Research
Brain research is a relatively new area of inquiry and many of its findings and implications are controversial. Some of the most discussed notions in this regard are ‘brain laterality’ and ‘hemispheric dominance’: The brain is reported to have two hemispheres with functional difference and dominance, a fact which has a tight link with the way one learns. As pointed out by researchers in the field like Williams (1983), Davies et al. (1994) and McCarthy, Germain & Lippitt (2006), the two brain hemispheres function and process information differently. The left hemisphere is geared to what is verbal, sequential, analytical, abstract and logical, while the right hemisphere manages global, holistic, concrete, intuitive and visual-spatial functions. Generally speaking, people use both hemispheres holistically, but most individuals have a propensity to use strategies primarily connected to one hemisphere, and are, thus, said to be left-brain dominant or right-brain dominant. Some people have approximately even preferences and are said to have bilateral dominance.

Left-brain learners are linear in that they process information following a sequence. They are analytical, for they pay close attention to fine details. It follows that they are logical and organized. They give importance to theory and master abstract and factual information. They also have the ability to assimilate new information quickly. Furthermore, they are competitive, time-oriented and prefer to work individually. On the other hand, right-brain learners are just the opposite. In fact, they are global in that they look at the broad picture and process information as a whole. They are, besides, intuitive, spontaneous and creative, but they are not competitive and
take time to assimilate new information. Moreover, they are event-oriented and give more importance to practice.

Several brain-dominance tests in the form of self-administered brain-dominance inventories can be found in the literature; some are available online. They are usually accompanied with materials elucidating how to identify one’s brain-dominance profile.

The Study
This study was carried out at Larbi Ben M’hidi University, Oum el Bouaghi, Algeria, during the first semester of the 2016-2017 academic year. It aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the learning-style profiles of Master Two-level students at the English Department, Larbi Ben M’hidi University, Oum el Bouaghi?
2. What are their brain-dominance profiles? And
3. How can English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers address diversity in learning profiles?

Participants
The learning-style and the brain-dominance inventories were administered to all Master two-level students at the Department of English, Faculty of Letters and Languages, that is, 130 students. However, only 72 students (55.38%) completed both inventories and dealt with all items in each inventory. Their age ranged from 22 to 25 years. 54 (75%) were female while 18 (25%) were male students. 50 of them were majoring in EFL Didactics and 22 in EFL Literature and Civilization. Both groups were taken into account in order to compare their results.

Instruments
As mentioned previously, this study is based on two inventories: The Barsch LSI and the Brain-Dominance Inventory (Davies et al., 1994). The first tool determines the extent to which a learner is visual, auditory or tactile. The second tool categorizes learners into right-brain, left-brain or bilateral learners.

The Barsch LSI consists of a total of 24 items rated on a five-point scale including “Almost Always” (4 points), “Usually” (3 points), “Sometimes” (2 points), “Seldom” (1 point) and “Almost Never” (0 point). Students were supposed to select the option they think applies to them the most. The statements point to the three learning preferences: visual, auditory, and tactile.

The Brain-Dominance Inventory used in this study consists of a series of 39 preference statements. The latter are presented in the form of incomplete items, and each one of them has three options (“a”, “b”, and “c”) pointing out different ways of acting or learning. Students were required to specify their preference by ticking the appropriate box.

Analysis of the Findings
Learning styles and brain dominance were identified on the basis of the scores students got for each item in the inventories. Frequency and percentage were used in this respect. It is noted that in the Barsch LSI, a score in one area can be considered as significant when it exceeds...
scores in the other areas with at least four points. In the Brain-Dominance Inventory, the number of “a’s”, “b’s” and “c’s” must total 39. A student’s final score is computed by dividing the obtained “b-a” score by 3, 2, or 1, depending on whether the “c” score is 17 or higher, from 10 to 16, or less than 10, respectively.

Table 1
Didactics Students’ Scores in the Barsch LSI

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<th>APS</th>
<th>TPS</th>
<th>Predominant Style</th>
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<th>APS</th>
<th>TPS</th>
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<td>17</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**VPS:** Visual Preference Score  
**APS:** Auditory Preference Score  
**TPS:** Tactile Preference Score

Table 2  
*Literature/Civilization Students’ Scores in the Barsch LSI*
Figure 1: Didactics Students’ Categorization according to the Barsch LSI

Figure 2: Literature/Civilization Students’ Categorization according to the Barsch LSI
According to the findings of the Barsch LSI, most of the students in both groups have a visual style of learning, whether a dominating visual style or in association with another mode, mainly the auditory one. In fact, 34% of the students in the Didactics group (Table 1 and Figure 1) and 40.91% in the Literature/Civilization group (Table 2 and Figure 2) have clear visual mode predominance. Besides, 20% of the participants in the first group and 31.82% in the second one have a combination of the visual mode with the auditory one and an insignificant score difference. On the whole, it is possible to state that the distribution of learning styles is visual, auditory, and tactile, from the most common to the least common one.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Predominant Style</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Score</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>bi-lateral</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S P towards the right</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-4</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>S P towards the right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>-4</td>
<td>M P for the left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S P towards the right</td>
<td>30</td>
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A: number of a’s chosen  
B: number of b’s chosen  
C: number of c’s chosen  

S P: slight preference  
M P: moderate preference
Table 4

| Literature/Civilization Students’ Scores in the Brain-Dominance Inventory |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Stude nt | A | B | C | Score | Predominant Style | Stude nt | A | B | C | Score | Predominant Style |
| 1       | 1  | 1  | 1  | -2    | S P to the left    | 12      | 1  | 1  | 1  | +2    | S P to the right  |
| 2       | 0  | 2  | 1  | +7    | right-brain dominant | 13      | 1  | 1  | 1  | +2    | S P to the right  |
| 3       | 1  | 1  | 1  | -1    | S P to the left    | 14      | 1  | 0  | 1  | -3    | S P to the left   |
| 4       | 1  | 0  | 1  | -4    | M P for the left   | 15      | 1  | 1  | 0  | -4    | M P for the left   |
| 5       | 0  | 1  | 1  | +4    | M P for the right  | 16      | 1  | 1  | 0  | +6    | M P for the right  |
| 6       | 1  | 0  | 2  | -2    | S P to the left    | 17      | 1  | 0  | 2  | -3    | S P to the left   |
| 7       | 1  | 1  | 1  | -1    | S P to the left    | 18      | 1  | 1  | 1  | -1    | S P to the left   |
| 8       | 1  | 1  | 1  | -2    | S P to the left    | 19      | 1  | 0  | 1  | -1    | S P to the left   |
| 9       | 2  | 1  | 0  | -13   | left-brain dominant(s) | 20      | 0  | 2  | 1  | +7    | right-brain dominant |
| 10      | 1  | 0  | 2  | -2    | S P to the left    | 21      | 1  | 0  | 1  | -4    | M P for the left   |
| 11      | 1  | 1  | 1  | -1    | S P to the left    | 22      | 1  | 1  | 0  | -8    | left-brain dominant |

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Figure 3: Didactics Students’ Categorization according to the Brain-Dominance Inventory

Figure 4: Literature/Civilization Students’ Categorization according to the Brain-Dominance Inventory
The Brain-Dominance Inventory results show that 62% (32%+30%) of the respondents in the Didactics group (Table 3 and Figure 3) and 59.09% (50%+09.09%) in the Literature/Civilization group (Table 4 and Figure 4) are classified in the “slight preference” category, whether towards the left or the right, with higher scores for the former, particularly in the Literature/Civilization group. Accordingly, it is possible to say that actual left- or right-brain dominance is restricted to few individuals: 08% in the Didactics group (02% left-brain dominant; 04% left-brain dominant – very strong –; 02% right-brain dominant; and 0% right-brain dominant – very strong –) and 18.19% in the Literature/Civilization group (04.55% left-brain dominant; 04.55% left-brain dominant – very strong –; 09.09% right-brain dominant; and 0% right-brain dominant –very strong –).

Adapting Teaching to Learning Profiles

There are several pedagogical implications worth considering in this account. To begin with, faculty need to differentiate instruction not only by complexity or other factor but also by learning style. Variety and flexibility are the keys when it comes to catering for learning styles. Lesson presentation may be both verbal and visual together with some hands-on demonstration to fit all three learning modes. In other words, teachers should provide learners with opportunities to experience diverse sensory experiences that stimulate different styles in order to boost learning. In ideal situations, instructors identify the dominant style patterns in their classes and adapt their teaching method and content accordingly.

Visual learners learn with their eyes. Accordingly, teachers can use materials or resources that are viewed or read: boards, posters, pictures, drawings, books, videos, diagrams, graphs, maps and written notes. In addition, assignments should be written and so should be the teacher’s feedback. Auditory learners learn with their ears. Hence, instructors have to adopt a teaching-by-talking methodology: They have to provide them with materials or resources that are heard like lectures, oral explanations and instructions, group or class discussions, student presentations and audio-tapes. Interviewing (questioning), brainstorming and storytelling are strategies of equal importance and relevance. Tactile learners learn with their hands or ‘hands-on’. This learning mode entails the resort to touchable materials like realia. Learners should be given the opportunity to manipulate these objects while performing tasks. Besides, tactile students cannot usually keep still for a long time; that is why it would be a good idea to plan a break or more in every lesson, and to design some physical activities and field trips on a regular basis. Teachers may even consider allowing these students to move around while thinking. Demonstration, role-playing and writing notes down are also recommended activities.

Varied learning modalities can be met through the resort to technological means as Computer-Assisted Language Learning and more importantly the Internet. The latter comprises printed materials and non-print (audio-visual) materials and can be said to be a source of multiple intelligences. Instructors can implement various techniques such as slide presentations, audio and video materials, computer-based text with sound and animation in order to match the students’ needs.

The teacher may help students uncover their personal learning style(s) using inventories as those implemented in the framework of this work. This procedure is very useful to students as
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It enables them to understand better the way they learn, which would foster their “learning how to learn” skill. In other words, when learners develop an awareness of their own learning preferences, they can recognize their strengths and weaknesses, and work accordingly to enhance their potential for learning and make faster progress. Besides, they would feel better about themselves, more self-confident and more in control (Pritchard, 2009), and hence would stay motivated. EFL teachers can introduce students to individual differences in learning styles through the use of the interactive activity “Find Someone Who”, with which most of them are familiar. Relevant instances that could be included are: “Find Someone Who reads something almost every day” (a visual person); “Find Someone Who listens to music frequently” (an auditory person); “Find Someone Who likes to do things with his/her hands such as building models” (a tactile person). Students’ interaction should be followed by a discussion with the teacher for a better understanding of these learning channels.

It is important for instructors to identify their own learning preferences via an LSI. Teachers’ learning preferences influence their teaching strategies which, in turn, have a direct impact on students’ learning. Knowing about their own learning profile helps teachers reflect upon the choices they make and the techniques they implement in the light of the learners’ differences. Teaching learning strategies is another important procedure that enables students to learn effectively whatever the style adopted by the teacher (Oxford, 1990). These strategies would assist them to face challenges and to experience other channels of learning and develop them.

Likewise, assessment techniques should consider the learners’ various styles. This could be achieved by giving students the opportunity to respond in a range of ways. Instead of tests based solely on reading and writing, faculty could design alternative tests centred on listening and speaking, or reading and interacting/performing. Students may be asked to respond to an exam question through an oral presentation, a diagram, a creative piece of writing, or some other form of knowledge application. It should be remembered that the exclusive reliance on traditional pen-and-paper testing, as it is the case in Algerian schools and universities, is advantageous to visual learners.

Regarding hemisphericity, instructors are, similarly, required to vary their techniques. With left-brain learners, the teacher is supposed to apply the discovery problem-solving approach through the use of, for instance, true/false statements, multiple choice questions and matching exercises. Detailed explanations based on logic, analysis and the use of graphs, charts and tables, reading and writing assignments are all recommended. The traditional lecturing approach is equally suitable to this type of learners (Kinsella; as cited in Kang, 1999) since it allows for the linear, sequential processing of input. It is preferable that teacher-learner relationship be formal, and students’ correct performance be recognized.

Students with a right-brain preference need other instructional strategies. At the outset, they should be provided with clear explanations of the points making up a lesson as a whole. Problem-solving exercises and graphic information are to be used with caution, and are to be simplified whenever used. Instead, social-oriented activities as role plays, dialogues, expressing opinions, group works and projects are welcome. The teacher is primarily conceived of as a
facilitator who supports learners and caters for the appropriate environment for learning to take place.

As to bi-lateral learners and those with a slight preference either to the left- or the right-brain hemisphere, they use functions of both hemispheres in a more or less equal fashion. Even right- or left-brain dominant learners should be assisted to develop a flexible use of both hemispheres. This may be possible through diversifying classroom practices in a way that activates the learners’ different skills and faculties. It should be remembered that the brain operates in a highly intricate way, and recent research evidence suggests that viewing the brain as two halves is not really accurate, for its two hemispheres work jointly as well as independently (Curran 2008).

Conclusion
University teachers need to understand the diversity in students and address it in their daily classroom practices. This might be easier said than done, for it seems to be a challenging task, especially in classes of forty or more students, or in large amphitheatres, as is the case in the Algerian university context. To cater for individual learning profiles and needs, teachers are required to vary their teaching/testing approaches, to balance classroom activities, to provide alternatives. This would, no doubt, make a huge difference in their students’ learning.

About the Author:
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